Can't See the Forest for the Trees The Misapplication of Economic Theory to the Increasing Regulatory Trend Against Vertical Healthcare Integration

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"Plentie is no deintie, ye see not your owne ease. I see, ye can not see the wood for trees."¹ - John Heywood, 1546

> ith the emergence of accountable care and value-based reimbursement models, which rely on achieving better outcomes at lower cost, U.S. hospitals are increasingly seeking more integrated relationships with physicians, including vertical

integration strategies such as direct employment and co-management arrangements.² Corresponding with this growing trend toward vertical integration in healthcare delivery, there has been increased federal, state, and local regulatory scrutiny regarding the legal permissibility of these arrangements. Most notably, government regulators (more specifically, the Office of the Inspector General [OIG] of the U.S. Department of Health and *Human Services* [HHS], and the U.S. Department of Justice [DOJ]) have, in some cases, challenged these transactions under various federal and state fraud and abuse laws, basing their arguments, in part, on the concept that the acquisition of a physician practice, which then operates at a "book financial loss,"³ is, in and of itself, dispositive evidence of the hospital's payment of consideration based on the volume and/or value of referrals.⁴ The underlying principle of this concept, termed the Practice Loss Postulate (PLP),⁵ appears to be the allegation that hospitals enter into these arrangements in order to induce legally impermissible referrals from physicians, thus generating margins/profits that offset those "book financial losses" associated with the acquired physician practices.

In the context of vertical integration in healthcare, the use of the PLP by government regulators, as well as private *qui tam* plaintiffs, is misguided and imprudent, in that: (1) the PLP misapplies established and accepted economic thought; and, (2) the PLP represents a less than rational interpretation and application of the threshold of *commercial reasonableness*. Should the PLP continue to evolve into accepted "*legal doctrine*," and ultimately the "*law of the land*," the result may be to impede the development of innovative new structures of emerging healthcare organizations to the extent that it would cause significant harm to the healthcare economy, such as the losses of both: (1) operating cost-related efficiencies associated with *vertical integration*; and, (2) the qualitative benefits that *vertical integration* can provide to a community.

This paper details the progression of the PLP through elements derived from statutes, regulations, and case law distilled into the components of the postulate. Next, the paper describes the benefits and drawbacks of vertical integration in healthcare and how, in light of these benefits and drawbacks, government agencies are promoting, and the market for healthcare delivery services are trending toward, vertical integration in healthcare, despite the regulatory impediment of the PLP. Finally, the paper discusses how the PLP: (1) does not satisfy the basic requirements for *economic assumptions*; (2) reflects a misapplication of fundamental *economic principles*; (3) runs contrary to established and accepted *economic theories*; and, (4) represents a less than rational interpretation and application of the threshold of *commercial reasonableness*.

DESCRIPTION OF THE PLP

Review of the Stark Law and Anti-Kickback Statute The thresholds for satisfying regulatory requirements under healthcare fraud and abuse laws vary, depending on: (1) the law in question, (e.g., the Stark Law or the Anti-Kickback Statute [AKS]); (2) whether the arrangement utilizes direct or indirect compensation; and, (3) whether the transaction involves horizontal consolidation or vertical integration. Within the context of one potential healthcare integration strategy, i.e., a direct employment arrangement between a hospital and a physician practice, the law in question can alter the analysis required. For example, the Stark Law differentiates between *direct* and *indirect* compensation arrangements,⁶ defining a *direct* compensation arrangement as one in which "... remuneration passes between the referring physician (or a member of his or her immediate family) and the entity furnishing DHS [i.e., designated health services] without any intervening persons or entities..."⁷ Alternatively, an indirect compensation arrangement must satisfy three parts:

- (1) "Between the referring physician (or a member of his or her immediate family) and the entity furnishing DHS there exists an unbroken chain of any number (but not fewer than one) of persons or entities that have financial relationships...between them";
- (2) "The referring physician (or immediate family member) receives aggregate compensation from the person or entity in the chain with which the physician (or immediate family member) has a direct financial relationship that varies with, or takes into account, the volume or value of referrals or other business generated by the referring physician for the entity furnishing the DHS, regardless of whether the individual unit of compensation satisfies the special rules on unit-based compensation..."; and,
- (3) "The entity furnishing DHS has actual knowledge of, or acts in reckless disregard or deliberate ignorance of, the fact that the referring physician (or immediate family member) receives aggregate compensation that varies with, or takes into account, the volume or value of referrals or other business generated by the referring physician for the entity furnishing the DHS."⁸

Notably, under the Stark Law, both the *employment exception* (which qualifies as a *direct* compensation arrangement) and the *indirect compensation arrangement exception* require the compensation in question to meet the distinct and separate

thresholds of *fair market value* (FMV) and *commercial reasonableness*.⁹ However, it should be noted that certain compensation arrangements do not fit the Stark Law definitions of *either direct* or *indirect* compensation, and as such may avoid scrutiny under the Stark Law.¹⁰

In contrast to the Stark Law, the AKS does not distinguish between *direct* and *indirect* compensation. Specifically, under the *employment safe harbor*, "*remuneration' does not include any* amount paid by an employer to an employee, who has a bona fide employment relationship with the employer, for employment in the furnishing of any item or service for which payment may be made in whole or in part under Medicare, Medicaid or other Federal health care programs."¹¹ Importantly, unlike the employment exception under the Stark Law, the employment safe harbor under the AKS *does not* include a requirement that compensation meet the standards of FMV or commercial reasonableness.¹²

The differences between the regulatory thresholds implicated by the Stark Law and the AKS regarding direct employment arrangements are illustrated below in Figure 1.

When determining the appropriate thresholds for satisfying regulatory requirements under healthcare fraud and abuse laws, it is important to consider the structure of the integration transaction, as well as, the specific law(s) implicated by the integration transaction. Employment arrangements are merely one potential integration strategy available to vertically integrated health systems that may implicate the Stark Law and AKS, as there are integration strategies professional other (e.g., services clinically integrated arrangements, networks, clinical co-management arrangements, or joint ventures) which may also implicate separate regulatory exceptions and safe harbors.

Efforts to maintain regulatory compliance are costly, difficult, and healthcare providers seeking vertical integration may bear significant risk related to regulatory scrutiny under federal and state fraud and abuse laws.¹³ In particular, the Stark Law has evolved into a web of rules that may complicate providers' efforts toward regulatory compliance regarding physician compensation.¹⁴ As stated by Judge James A. Wynn, Jr., of the 4th Circuit Court of Appeals in his concurring opinion to the 2015 decision in *U.S. ex rel. Drakeford v. Tuomey: "It seems as if, even for well-intentioned health care providers, the Stark Law has become a booby trap rigged with strict liability and potentially ruinous exposure—especially when coupled with the False Claims Act."¹⁵*



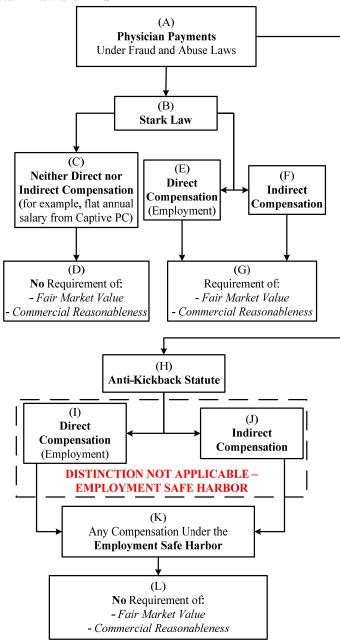
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Figure 1 – Physician Employment Arrangements under the Stark Law and AKS



Case Law

U.S. ex rel. Drakeford v. Tuomey

Within this complex regulatory environment, in which even "well-intentioned" providers may face "potentially ruinous exposure" under fraud and abuse laws,¹⁶ certain government regulators are relying on the PLP to assail vertical integration transactions in healthcare. The seeming escalation in reliance on the PLP in regulatory enforcement actions may be better understood by tracing its origins (in part) to the landmark case, U.S. ex rel. Drakeford v. Tuomey Healthcare System (Tuomey). In Tuomey, the relator, Michael Drakeford, M.D., alleged that Tuomey, a private, non-profit community hospital in South Carolina, violated the Stark Law when it entered into more than fifteen employment agreements, all of which allegedly were designed to induce and maintain referral relationships.¹⁷ Specifically, the relator alleged that Tuomey entered into compensation contracts with area physicians, conferring salary and

benefits to those physicians in excess of the net collections received from their professional practices.¹⁸ Tuomey would then bill Medicare for the *ancillary service and technical component* (ASTC) associated with these physicians' professional services (i.e., a *"facility fee"*), because Tuomey provided the space, nurses, equipment, and other items required for the delivery of those services.¹⁹ The relator, and the U.S. attorney intervening in the case, argued, and the court concluded,²⁰ that within the context of inpatient and outpatient hospital services, any ASTC services performed in connection with personally performed services constituted an impermissible referral.²¹

In 2010, a U.S. district court entered a judgment against Tuomey for nearly \$45 million due to violations of the Stark Law.²² Then, in 2012, the U.S. Court of Appeals for the 4th Circuit overturned the judgment of the district court on 7th Amendment grounds related to jury instructions, and remanded the case for a new trial.²³ In its opinion, the 4th Circuit opined that ASTC services billed in connection with a physician's personally performed services constitute a "*referral*" as defined by Stark and its regulations.²⁴ In doing so, the court relied on the OIG's official commentary, which stated:

"We have concluded that when a physician initiates a designated health service and personally performs it him or herself, that action would not constitute a referral of the service to an entity...However, in the context of inpatient and outpatient hospital services, there would still be a referral of any hospital service, technical component, or facility fee billed by the hospital in connection with the personally performed service. Thus, for example, in the case of an inpatient surgery, there would be a referral of the technical component of the surgical service, even though the referring physician personally performs the service."

In addition, both the U.S. District Court and the 4th Circuit considered the testimony of the relator and DOJ's expert witness Kathleen McNamara, who, after the 4th Circuit issued its opinion, noted:

"Case documents I examined and the testimony I reviewed shows that Tuomey took into account the value and volume of anticipated physician referrals by...<u>Acknowledging that the</u> hospital's technical and facility fees earned each time the physicians performed an outpatient surgery are reasonable "off-sets" for its \$1.5 [million] annual operating losses. Notably because Tuomey's technical and facilities earned [sic] are deemed to be the physicians' patient referrals."²⁶ [Emphasis Added]

The 2012 *Tuomey* ruling from the 4th Circuit, as well as, a 2013 U.S. district court judgment against Tuomey for \$237 million stemming from the relator's allegations, marked a milestone in a series of costly judgments and settlements against vertically integrated health systems for allegedly violating the Stark Law. In hindsight, the litigation and outcome surrounding this case serves as a harbinger for future cases involving the PLP, due to *Tuomey's* holding as to the Stark Law connection between physician professional component revenues and ASTC revenues in a hospital setting.

U.S. ex rel. Parikh v. Citizens Medical Center

In the case, U.S. ex rel. Parikh v. Citizens Medical Center (Parikh), a group of physician relators alleged that Citizens Medical Center (CMC) hired five cardiologists from one physician practice, as employees, and paid them salaries that more than doubled the salaries that those physicians earned while they were

employed by their independent legacy practice, in an effort to secure referrals to CMC in violation of the AKS and Stark Law.²⁷ Notably, the relators argued that after entering into the employment agreements, CMC suffered net losses of as much as \$400,000 in 2008, and \$1,000,000 in 2010, but that CMC continued to employ the cardiologists "*because of the volume and value of their patient referrals.*"²⁸ In a 2013 order denying CMC's motion to dismiss the relator's claims, Judge Gregg Costa of the U.S. District Court for the Southern District of Texas stated:

"Relators have made several allegations that, if true, provide a strong inference of the existence of a kickback scheme. Particularly, the Court notes Relators' allegations that the cardiologists' income more than doubled after they joined Citizens, even while their own practices were costing Citizens between \$400,000 and \$1,000,000 per year in net losses. Even if the cardiologists were making less than the national median salary for their profession, the allegations that they began making substantially more money once they were employed by Citizens is sufficient to allow an inference that they were receiving improper remuneration. This inference is particularly strong given that it would make little apparent economic sense for Citizens to employ the cardiologists at a loss unless it were doing so for some ulterior motive-a motive Relators identify as a desire to induce referrals. [Emphasis Added]

In 2015, CMC agreed to pay \$21.75 million to the DOJ as part of a settlement agreement to resolve the allegations of AKS and Stark Law violations.³⁰ Notwithstanding that *Parikh* was settled, the judge's memorandum and order in *Parikh* serves as an eye-opening, key development in the progression of the PLP, in that a federal judge³¹ directly articulated judicial support for the validity of the inference that "*book financial losses*" generated by a vertically integrated physician practice may signal the payment of compensation, remuneration, and consideration to physicians as an inducement of legally impermissible referrals from physicians.

U.S. ex rel. Reilly v. North Broward Hospital District

September 2015 served as a watershed moment for healthcare fraud and abuse settlements based, in part, on the PLP. On September 15, 2015, the DOJ and OIG announced a then-record breaking settlement for allegations of Stark Law violations not reaching trial with Florida-based North Broward Hospital District (Broward Health).³² The lawsuit, titled U.S. ex rel. Reilly v. North Broward Hospital District, et al. (North Broward), which settled for \$69.5 million, alleged that Broward Health compensated numerous employed physicians in excess of FMV for their services, at levels which were not commercially reasonable, and at levels that took into account the volume or value of referrals made by the physicians.³³ In this case, the relator alleged that Broward Health purposely tracked referrals from physicians to the hospital for ASTC services in "Contributive Margin Reports," the revenues from which ASTC services were then used to offset the "massive direct losses" arising from what the relators alleged to be excessive compensation to the referring physicians.³⁴ The complaint against Broward Health relied on the health system's alleged utilization of the "Contributive Margin Reports" in developing the claims of Stark Law and AKS violations, noting:

"Broward Health's strategic scheme of paying employed physicians more than fair market value and more than they can ever hope to collect for their personal services is not a commercially sustainable business model. This practice is only sustainable by <u>anticipating and allocating hospital</u>

<u>referral profits to cover the massive direct losses from</u> <u>excessive physician compensation</u>.³⁵ [Emphasis Added]

The allegations in the *North Broward* case provide further evidence of the progression of the PLP, as the relators alleged impermissible payments to employed physicians for referrals by separating the professional component of physician services (albeit, personally performed) from the associated ASTC services. In short, the relators based their allegations on the profitability (or lack thereof) of the physicians' professional services, *independent* of the economic performance of the *vertically integrated* health system, of which those professional services were an integral part.

U.S. ex rel. Payne v. Adventist Health System

The record settlement payment of \$69.5 million, announced on September 15, 2015, for alleged Stark Law violations in the Broward Health case was broken less than one week later, on September 21, 2015, when the DOJ and OIG announced a \$115 million settlement in U.S. ex rel. Payne, et al. v. Adventist Health System, et al. (Adventist).³⁶ The complaint, filed by a group of relators associated with compliance activities within the Adventist system,³⁷ alleged that Adventist repeatedly authorized noncommercially reasonable compensation arrangements that exceeded FMV with physicians such that the hospitals would have operated at a *financial* (monetary) loss, but for the revenues resulting from referrals for ASTC generated by the physicians.³⁸ The relators in the Adventist case extended their commercial reasonableness argument, alleging that the physician practices within the health system were not "economically viable" when considered on their "own merits," effectively judging the vertically integrated hospital employed physician's professional practices as though they were *independent* economic entities and operating enterprises:

"[Adventist] Hospitals are thus compensating the doctors whose practices they have purchased at levels that not only exceed what [Adventist] can rationally pay while maintaining a physician practice that could be <u>economically viable on its</u> <u>own merits</u>, but that even more dramatically exceed what [Adventist's] employee physicians could reasonably expect to earn if those physicians had continued to own and operate the business themselves."³⁹ [Emphasis Added]

The *Adventist* case provides further clarity to the PLP by explicitly treating a vertically integrated physician practice as an *independent* free-standing physician practice enterprise, which the relators allege should be "*economically viable on its own merits.*"⁴⁰ This treatment ignores the additional market leverage and other operating advantages that are manifested by *hospital-owned* physician practices, which are not available to *independent* free-standing physician practices. Further, it does not address the amount that "…*physicians could reasonably expect to earn if those physicians had continued to own and operate the business themselves*" from the higher profit ASTC revenue stream that the physicians abandoned when they became employed.⁴¹

Together, these four cases reflect increasing utilization of the PLP in the regulatory scrutiny of vertically integrated health systems. Further, the magnitude of the financial penalty paid by each vertically integrated health system implicated in the above cases, due to allegations of healthcare fraud and abuse violations built on the PLP, may create significant organizational risk for vertically integrated health systems paying employed physicians compensation in excess of those physicians' professional collections [*Tuomey*];⁴² and, in the cases of *Parikh*, *Broward Health*, and *Adventist*, where a combination of physician compensation and practice overhead expenses were in excess of physician professional collections.⁴³ Under federal *fraud and abuse* laws for employment arrangements, a determination first needs to be made as to whether the compensation at issue is *direct*, *indirect*, or neither. If the compensation is neither direct nor indirect (e.g., a flat annual salary from a Captive PC), then no further determination as to FMV or commercial reasonableness is required. Conversely, healthcare transactions involving direct or indirect compensation must be demonstrated to both: (a) not exceed FMV; and, (b) be commercially reasonable, in order to be deemed legally permissible⁴⁴ A failure to meet these two thresholds may result in Stark Law or AKS violations; in particular, with regard to FMV under these statutory edicts. The judicial leap, e.g., assuming that "*[p]ayments exceeding FMV are* in effect deemed 'payment for referrals',"45 irregardless of the totality of the facts and circumstances regarding the total economic benefits of the vertical integration transaction under which these payments were made, illustrates a regulatory propensity to "deem" isolated payment transactions exclusive of their synergistic role with the whole of the enterprise.

Summary of the Practice Loss Postulate

Having considered the treatment of compensation arrangements under certain fraud and abuse laws (i.e., the Stark Law and the AKS), and based on an analysis of *Tuomey* (2012), as a harbinger case⁴⁶, as well as, *Parikh* (2013), *North Broward* (2015), and *Adventist* (2015), it is possible to distill certain elements from these landmark cases into the gravamen of the PLP.⁴⁷ In brief, the PLP treats vertically integrated physician practices as stand-alone economic enterprises, which, when stripped of their ASTC revenue, and relying solely on professional services, i.e., *work relative value unit* [wRVU] related revenue, and paying physicians at FMV, are almost certain to generate "*book financial losses*".⁴⁸

Through the utilization of the PLP, regulators are asserting the presupposition that specific and immediate "book financial losses," from the operation of the professional practice of the employed physicians is not an *integration support payment*, i.e., a subsidy supporting vertical integration, based on the difference between physician compensation at FMV, coupled with practice overhead expenses, and collections on physicians' professional services. Rather, the PLP asserts that the hospital's sufferance of these "book financial losses" serves as dispositive evidence of the legally impermissible payment of compensation, remuneration, or consideration based on the volume and/or value of the hospital's employed physician referrals of ASTC services to the hospital, which require a physician's authority (i.e., the "power of prescription") to order admission, diagnostic tests, drugs, durable medical equipment, and other services for their patients. Consequently, under the PLP, a "book financial loss" on a physician practice borne by a vertically integrated health system, when treating that practice as a stand-alone economic enterprise, is viewed as evidence of legally impermissible referrals under the Stark Law.

In doing so, the PLP ignores the efficacious aspects of other economic benefits associated with vertical integration in healthcare (see *Potential Benefits of Vertical Integration*, below), and focuses exclusively on the existence, or lack of, *immediate* and *direct financial (cash)* returns on and of investments related to *vertical integration* transactions. This regulatory conjecture hinders the ability of a vertically integrated health system to withstand fraud and abuse scrutiny, and erects a barrier to satisfying the threshold of *commercial reasonableness.*⁴⁹

The potentially deleterious impact of this theory on vertically integrated health systems mandates a careful examination of the PLP, as to whether the PLP properly applies established and accepted economic thought on the subject of healthcare delivery service organization and integration in the U.S. marketplace to the subject enforcement actions. Additionally, because the PLP has erected a barrier for vertically integrated healthcare organizations to surmount the threshold of *commercial reasonableness* (which must be satisfied under the Stark Law and AKS),⁵⁰ an examination of the validity and efficacy of the PLP within the analytical framework of the threshold of *commercial reasonableness* is warranted.

VERTICAL INTEGRATION

In order to understand the fundamental flaws inherent in the PLP, it is important to define the term *vertical integration* and its current and future impact on the U.S. healthcare delivery system, as well as, the contributory reform initiatives and market forces that are driving healthcare providers to pursue this strategy.

Potential Benefits of Vertical Integration

Across all industries, *vertical integration* may be defined as "[*t*]*he combination in one firm of two or more stages of production normally operated by separate firms*."⁵¹ Firms engage in vertical integration transactions in pursuit of certain known benefits typically associated with this form of organization, including:

- (1) The development of *economies of scale*,⁵² i.e., the ability of large firms to produce large quantities of a good at a *reduced cost per unit*;⁵³
- (2) The development of *economies of scope*,⁵⁴ i.e., the ability of large firms to produce a variety of goods *more cheaply* than producing those goods separately;⁵⁵ and,
- (3) Vertically integrated firms with centralized management structures can, if strategically constructed and implemented, create *superior production efficiencies* relative to more fragmented business structures and markets.⁵⁶

In the U.S. healthcare industry, vertical integration describes the "integration of providers at different points along the continuum of care, such as a hospital partnering with a skilled nursing facility (SNF) or a physician group,"⁵⁷ which organizational model can provide additional benefits to healthcare delivery organizations, as well as, to the communities they serve. Through the integration of providers at different stages of the production of healthcare services (i.e., along the continuum of care), vertically integrated healthcare systems may be able to generate both qualitative and quantitative economic benefits above and beyond those produced by non-vertically integrated healthcare systems. The qualitative and quantitative economic benefits often associated with vertical integration in healthcare include:

- (1) Satisfaction of the *charitable mission* of the healthcare enterprise;
- (2) Achievement of higher levels of *care coordination*, relative to a non-vertically integrated healthcare system;⁵⁸
- (3) Utilization of complimentary and requisite care mapping of services, which can:
 - (a) Provide organizations with the size necessary to justify certain services and employ certain physicians in the instance where, separately, they would not have the patient volume or financial resources to employ a specialist or service; and,
 - (b) Allow for the management of an enterprise to exert a span of control across the *continuum of patient care* and

implement those strategies which are more likely to result in the most beneficial patient outcomes;⁵⁹

- (4) Creation of operational efficiencies by:
 - (a) Reducing duplicative treatments and capitalizing on firm synergies to create more efficient provider/patient contact;⁶⁰
 - (b) Reduction in transportation costs for the patients and the medical service providers;⁶¹ and,
 - (c) Incorporating *healthcare information technology* (HIT) across multiple sites of service, which allows for closer collaboration between providers in the provision of care to patients;⁶²
- (5) Improved likelihood of achievement of *Pay for Performance* (P4P) goals;⁶³
- (6) Satisfaction of the "Triple Aim," which consists of:
 - (a) Improving the patient's experience of healthcare;
 - (b) Improving population health; and,
 - (c) Reducing health expenditures per capita;⁶⁴
- (7) Mitigation of providers' risk by:
 - (a) Allowing health systems to diversify their supply chain;⁶⁵ and,
 - (b) Allowing health systems to spread the risk of participation in global payment mechanisms over a larger population; and,
- (8) Satisfaction of *continuum of care* requirements under state licensing regulations and *Certificate of Need* (CON) laws.⁶⁶

Note that many of the economic benefits of healthcare vertical integration are non-monetary (non-cash), in contrast to monetary (cash) benefits.⁶⁷ Although these non-monetary (non-cash) benefits may not provide immediate monetary (cash) returns on and of the investment, they may still provide utility, i.e., "the ability of a product to satisfy a human want, need, or desire."68 This distinction is essential to understand, as it highlights a primary difference between *financial economics*, which focuses on a broader sense of *utility*; and, *accounting conventions*, which only focus on *financial (cash)* considerations. Further, because not all forms of *utility* accruing to the vertically integrated healthcare system, such as satisfaction of the Triple Aim and improved care coordination across the *continuum of care*, may be fully reflected on the financial reports for the enterprise, the analysis of healthcare vertical integration transactions may be skewed as to the conclusions drawn regarding FMV and commercial reasonableness; and, therefore as to the legal permissibility of the transaction.

Potential Drawbacks of Vertical Integration

Firms pursuing *vertical integration* strategies should be cognizant of certain potential *drawbacks* in their cost/benefit analysis of this market behavior strategy. Among the potential drawbacks of *vertical integration* are the potential to: (a) implicate antitrust laws due to non-competitive concerns; and, (b) require an increase in the capital requirements associated with market entry for competitors, both of which may negatively impact competition.⁶⁹ In healthcare, antitrust considerations, as well as, the potential for fraud and abuse violations (see *Review of the Stark Law and Anti-Kickback Statute*, above) may factor into a healthcare enterprise's decision to engage in a vertical integration transaction, particularly in light of the 2015 decision from the 9th Circuit Court of Appeals in *Saint Alphonsus Medical Center-Nampa Inc. v. St. Luke's Health System, Ltd* (St. Luke's).

In the St. Luke's case, the 9th Circuit Court of Appeals affirmed a lower court decision ordering the divestiture of a large multispecialty practice from an Idaho health system in violation of Section 7 of the Clayton Act, which prohibits acquisitions with effects that "may be substantially to lessen competition, or to tend to create a monopoly."⁷⁰ In the St. Luke's case, Saltzer Medical Group, a multi-specialty physician practice group located in Nampa, Idaho, with sixteen adult primary care physicians (PCPs), was acquired by St. Luke's Health System, a non-profit health system based in Boise, Idaho (twenty miles east of Nampa) with eight PCPs.⁷¹ The 9th Circuit opinion noted the lower court's findings that 68% of Nampa residents with commercial insurance obtained primary care services from local physicians, with only 15% of residents obtaining similar services in Boise.⁷² Based on this fact, the 9th Circuit opinion affirmed the lower court's conclusion that "commercial health plans need to include Nampa PCPs in their networks to offer a competitive product," which could lead to increased leverage when negotiating with insurers for higher reimbursement rates.⁷³ Because St. Luke's controlled nearly 80% of the Nampa PCP market post-acquisition and sought to use this increased market share to negotiate higher reimbursement rates from commercial insurers, the 9th Circuit opinion upheld the lower court ruling that the merger created a prima facie case for a violation of the Clayton Act.74

Of particular relevance to vertically integrated healthcare systems, the St. Luke's case analyzed the potential benefits of increased efficiencies as a defense to scrutiny under Section 7 of the Clayton Act. Specifically, St. Luke's claimed the acquisition would generate efficiencies and "would benefit patients by creating a team of employed physicians with access to Epic, the electronic medical records system used by St. Luke's."⁷⁵ As indicated above (in Potential Benefits of Vertical Integration), such compatibility of health information technology (HIT) systems is one of the qualitative benefits of vertical integration in healthcare, and may lead to improved care coordination.⁷⁶ However, the 9th Circuit affirmed the lower court's conclusion that St. Luke's provided "no empirical evidence to support the theory that St. Luke's needs a core group of employed primary care physicians beyond the number it had before the Acquisition to successfully make the transition to integrated care."⁷⁷ In discussing the intersection of the potential efficiencies of vertical integration transactions and the antitrust laws, the 9th Circuit stated:

"At most, the district court concluded that St. Luke's might provide better service to patients after the merger. That is a laudable goal, but the Clayton Act does not excuse mergers that lessen competition or create monopolies simply because the merged entity can improve its operations."⁷⁸

Healthcare delivery systems should also note that the simple act of closing a vertical integration transaction does not guarantee immediate achievement of the anticipated benefits discussed above. In particular, vertically integrated organizations must often wait "a long time to realize positive gains from these investments."⁷⁹ Further, the culture of the vertically integrated healthcare enterprise may influence the achievement of the benefits associated with it; as explained by Louis C. Gapenski, Ph.D., and George H. Pink, Ph.D., in Understanding Healthcare Financial Management:

"The key feature of integrated delivery systems is that, to be successful, the primary focus must be the clinical effectiveness and profitability of the system <u>as a whole</u>, as opposed to each individual element. This emphasis requires a much higher level of administrative and clinical integration than is seen in *most organizations; <u>more important, it requires that</u> <u>managers of the system's individual elements place their own</u> <u>interests second to those of the overall system.</u>"⁸⁰ [Emphasis Added]*

Without this commitment, a healthcare vertical integration transaction may not result in reduced healthcare expenditures, improved care coordination, and heightened care quality.⁸¹

Transactional Initiative Types

Given that the application of the PLP to a particular integration transaction may call into question the validity of the FMV analysis of the property interest (i.e., a physician practice), it should be noted that a FMV analysis assumes a hypothetical transaction involving a universe of typical buyers, sellers, owners, and investors.⁸² Similarly, the application of the PLP to a particular integration transaction may call into question the validity of the commercial reasonableness analysis of the transaction. These analyses would necessarily include consideration of whether the hypothetical (or in the case of a *commercial reasonableness* analysis, prospective) buyers, sellers, owners, and investors are pursuing the transaction based on the objective of horizontal consolidation or vertical integration.⁸³ Therefore, in this consideration, the distinct nature of the objective pursued by the acquirer may impact the value of the considered enterprise. As stated in Potential Benefits of Vertical Integration, above, vertical integration may be defined as "[t]he combination in one firm of two or more stages of production normally operated by separate firms."84 In contrast, horizontal consolidation may be defined as "[c]ombining two or more enterprises at the same stage of production."⁸⁵ In healthcare, a distinction is drawn between horizontal consolidation, "which integrates organizations providing similar levels of care under one management umbrella, [and] vertical integration[, which] involves grouping organizations that provide different levels of care under one management umbrella."86 Vertical integration and horizontal consolidation have separate and distinct economic advantages and drawbacks,⁸⁷ which may impact a valuation analyst's consideration of a hypothetical transaction. Because of these distinctions, the valuation analyst should be careful to delineate between vertical integration and horizontal consolidation when considering: (1) the potential benefits of the integration transaction; (2) the potential drawbacks of the integration transaction; and, (3) the FMV of a hypothetical transaction. Similarly, the analyst should consider the distinction between vertical integration and horizontal consolidation when analyzing the commercial reasonableness of a prospective integration transaction. To date, horizontal consolidation transactions have not appeared to be subject to the regulatory scrutiny utilizing the PLP; as such, this paper focuses on *vertical integration* transactions.

Implementation of Vertical Integration

Due, in part, to the potential benefits of *vertical integration*, certain governmental agencies, such as the *Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services* (CMS) and OIG, have undertaken initiatives promoting or requiring *vertical integration* in healthcare. These efforts include, but are not limited to:

(1) The promulgation of the *Comprehensive Care for Joint Replacement* (CJR) program, a mandatory CMS *valuebased reimbursement* initiative that includes tools for hospitals to integrate with other providers along the *continuum of care*;⁸⁸

- (2) The creation of *accountable care organizations* (ACOs), as part of the *Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act* (ACA), which seek to integrate multiple providers along the *continuum of care*, as well as, hold integrated providers accountable for defined populations, as an incentive to improve population health;⁸⁹
- (3) The approval by the OIG of medical directorships, comanagement agreements, and other arrangements related to physician-hospital alignment;⁹⁰ and,
- (4) The requirement under certain state licensure laws and CON programs that hospital enterprises provide a full range of services along the *continuum of care*.⁹¹

As a result of government initiatives promoting, and sometimes requiring, vertical integration in healthcare, providers have engaged, or are currently engaging, in vertical integration transactions in the marketplace.⁹² A 2005 survey by Medical Group Management Association (MGMA), entitled "Physician Compensation and Production Survey: 2005 Report Based on 2004 Data," reported that over half of physicians were working for organizations owned by physicians.⁹³ The 2015 version of the same survey (based on 2014 data) reported that the share of physicians working for organizations owned by physicians had fallen to less than one third of the physician population.94 Conversely, over the same time period, the share of physicians working for organizations owned by hospitals and health systems more than doubled.95 This migration of physicians toward practicing in hospital-owned enterprises serves as evidence of providers seeking vertical integration in the marketplace.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST THE PLP

As discussed in the Summary of the Practice Loss Postulate, above, the PLP treats vertically integrated physician practices as stand-alone economic enterprises, distinct from the health system under which the physician practice operates. Further, the PLP focuses exclusively on the existence of, or lack of, immediate and direct financial (cash) returns on or of investments in physician practices acquired as part of a vertical integration transaction. As demonstrated below, the conclusion that specific and immediate "book financial losses" stemming from a physician practice within a vertically integrated health system reflect payment of consideration based on the volume and/or value of physician referrals, ignores established and accepted economic theories built off fundamental economic principles, which demonstrate the validity of other forms of economic benefit aside from *immediate* and direct financial (cash) returns on or of investments. As the regulatory thresholds of FMV and commercial reasonableness are built on *economic* concepts, not on *accounting conventions*, which focus solely on *financial* (cash) considerations, the utilization of the PLP to scrutinize vertical integration in healthcare reflects a significant misapplication of *economic theory* that may drastically affect the overall legal permissibility of healthcare vertical integration transactions. Additionally, by not considering the qualitative, as well as the quantitative, economic benefits associated with vertical integration in healthcare, the PLP is a less than rational interpretation and application of the threshold of commercial reasonableness under the Stark Law and AKS.

Economic Argument

In order to appreciate the economic underpinnings of the argument against the PLP, it is helpful to have a basic understanding of how economic *principles* and *theories* have evolved. In 1890, Alfred Marshall discussed the development of economic thought (or as he

termed it, *economic law*) in his seminal work, "*Principles of Economics*."⁹⁶ Marshall explained that the *physical* sciences progress through a process intended to explain observations of nature; according to this process: (1) an investigator makes a statement about the world, which statement is then subjected to rigorous testing; (2) if the statement withstands the testing, and the statement is successfully used to predict events, it graduates to the level of a *law*; and, (3) having accepted a common understanding of how certain elements of the natural world behave (as explained by the tested *laws*), individual investigators may pursue further studies of phenomena that have yet to be explained.⁹⁷ Marshall argued that economics, as a discipline, aspired to function by this same process, by attempting to derive and utilize generally accepted *economic laws*.⁹⁸

Under the framework of Marshall's process for the advancement of economic thought, the use of the PLP as a basis for judicial, legislative, or regulatory action is troubling, because the PLP defies each step of this process of advancing economic thought. Specifically, the PLP: (1) does not satisfy the basic requirements for *economic assumptions*, or, as Marshall may have termed it, it fails to withstand the basic testing that any economic statement must undergo; (2) reflects a misapplication of fundamental *economic principles* (similar to Marshall's *economic laws*); and, (3) runs contrary to established and accepted *economic theories*, ignoring more complex economic studies that are based on fundamental *economic principles*.

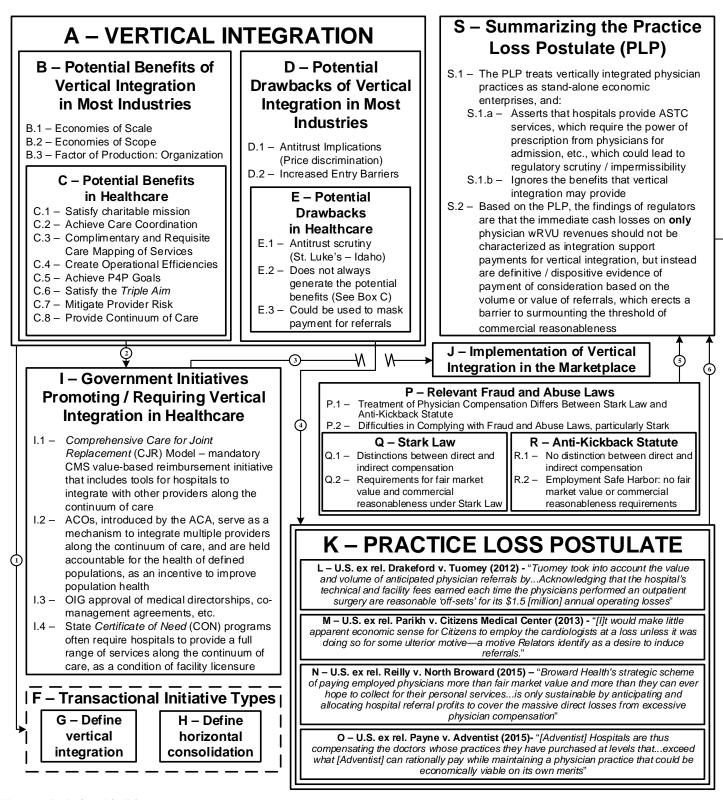
Economic Assumptions

As stated above, the first step in the progression of economics as a discipline is to put forward a statement to be tested, referred to herein as an *economic assumption*. The *economic assumption* put forth by the PLP (see the *Summary of the Practice Loss Postulate*, above) is captured in statements from case documents related to U.S. ex rel. Parikh v. Citizens Medical Center, U.S. ex rel. Reilly v. North Broward Hospital District, et al., and U.S. ex rel. Payne, et al. v. Adventist Health System, et al., e.g.:

Parikh – Memorandum and Order, 2013: "...it would make <u>little apparent economic sense</u> for [a hospital] <u>to employ</u> [<u>physicians] at a loss unless</u> it were doing so for some ulterior motive—a motive Relators identify as <u>a desire to</u> <u>induce referrals</u>."⁹⁹ [Emphasis Added]

North Broward – Relator's Third Amended Complaint, 2012: "[A hospital]'s strategic scheme of paying employed physicians more than fair market value and <u>more than [the</u> <u>hospital] can ever hope to collect for [the employed</u> <u>physicians'] personal services</u> is not a commercially sustainable business model. This practice is only sustainable by anticipating and allocating hospital referral profits to cover the massive direct losses from excessive physician compensation."¹⁰⁰ [Emphasis Added]

Adventist – Relator's Amended Complaint, 2013: "...Hospitals are thus compensating the doctors whose practices they have purchased at levels that not only exceed what [the hospitals] can rationally pay while maintaining a physician practice that could be <u>economically viable on its</u> <u>own merits</u>, but that even more dramatically exceed what [the hospitals'] employee physicians could reasonably expect to earn <u>if those physicians had continued to own and operate the</u> <u>business themselves</u>."¹⁰¹ [Emphasis Added]

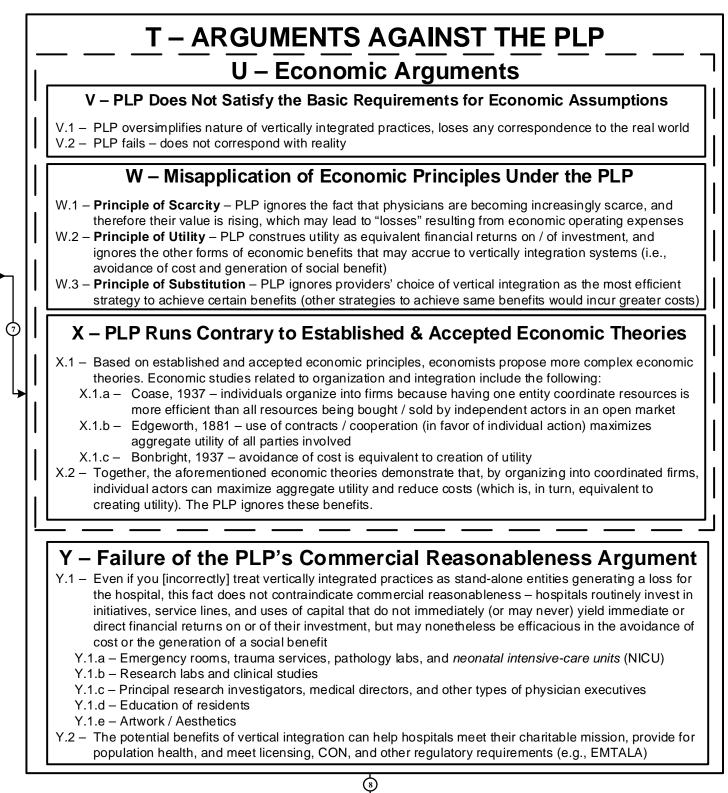


Notes to Relationship Lines

- (1) A FMV analysis assumes a hypothetical transaction involving a universe of typical buyers, sellers, owners, and investors, including consideration of whether they are pursuing the transaction based on the objective of horizontal consolidation or vertical integration. The distinct nature of the objective pursued by the acquirer may impact the value of the considered enterprise.
- (2) The potential benefits of vertical integration have influenced some government agencies (such as CMS and the OIG) to promote, and sometimes require, vertical integration in healthcare.
- (3) Various government initiatives, such as CJR, ACOs, and licensing and CON requirements, are moving healthcare providers toward vertically integrated models of healthcare delivery.
- (4) Due to the drawbacks of vertical integration in most industries (and the potential drawbacks of vertical integration in healthcare), government regulators (more specifically, officers of the OIG and the DOJ) have, in some cases, challenged vertical integration transactions in healthcare under the federal fraud and abuse laws, basing their arguments, in part, on the PLP.
- (5) The authors have considered the details of compensation arrangements under various federal and state fraud and abuse laws in its analysis of the PLP. (6) Receipt on Theorem (2012) are herbinger area. Registry (2013) Advantity (2015) and North Recurrent (2015) it is possible to distill contain adapted for the PLP.
- (6) Based on *Tuomey* (2012) as a harbinger case, *Parikh* (2013), *Adventist* (2015), and *North Broward* (2015), it is possible to distill certain elements of the PLP.
 (7) The PLP reflects a misapplication of fundamental economic principles, runs contrary to established and accepted economic theories, does not satisfy the basic requirements of economic
- (1) The PLP reflects a misapplication of fundamental economic principles, runs contrary to established and accepted economic theories, does not satisfy the basic requirements of economic assumptions, and is a less than rational interpretation and application of the threshold of commercial reasonableness.
- (8) Given the Commercial Reasonableness Argument (Box Y) and the Economic Argument (Box U), the application of the PLP is misguided and imprudent.

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9



Z – PRACTICE LOSS POSTULATE IS MISGUIDED & IMPRUDENT

Z.1 – Should the PLP continue to evolve into accepted "*legal doctrine*," and ultimately the "*law of the land*," the result may be to impede the development of innovative new structures of emerging healthcare organizations to the extent that it would cause significant harm to the healthcare economy, such as the losses of both: (1) operating cost-related efficiencies associated with *vertical integration*; and, (2) the qualitative benefits that *vertical integration* can provide to a community (e.g., improvements in care coordination, promotion of population health, and achievement of *Triple Aim*).

- Z.2 The PLP does not meet the basic requirements for an economic assumption, is unsupported by fundamental economic principles, and runs contrary to established and accepted economic theory.
- Z.3 The PLP is a less than rational interpretation and application of the commercial reasonableness threshold.

In 1932, Joan Robinson put forth two metrics by which economists may determine the usefulness of an *economic assumption*, such as the one put forth by the PLP. Robinson stated that "The two questions to be asked of a set of assumptions in economics are these: Are they tractable? And: Do they correspond to the real world?"¹⁰² The latter standard mirrors Marshall's assertion that proposed statements attempting to explain observations of nature must survive rigorous testing before rising to the level of established and accepted law, while the former speaks to an assumption's usefulness as an analytical tool. Robinson explained that there is an inherent tension between these standards, noting that "Some sets of assumptions are too complicated to be manageable by the technique which is now at our disposal. But a set of assumptions that is manageable is likely to be unreal."¹⁰³ For example, economists often assume a set of *axioms* related to *utility*, and define behavior that conforms to these axioms as rational.¹ This supposedly *rational* behavior, i.e., behavior in accordance with the set of assumed axioms, does not always correspond with individuals' actual behavior in the real world (i.e., the assumption is not perfectly *realistic*).¹⁰⁵ Additionally, individuals may pursue seemingly *irrational* behavior based on a set of information that is incomplete, or flawed.¹⁰⁶ Despite these limitations of the assumption of *rationality*, economists are able to use these assumed axioms to mathematically model consumers' behavior.¹⁰⁷ Because the axioms of expected utility theory have survived testing against observations of real-world economic actors,¹⁰⁸ the assumption of *rational* behavior rises to the level of an *economic* principle (i.e., the Principle of Utility, discussed below). This demonstrates the balance between the goals that economic assumptions be both tractable and realistic.

The assertion of the PLP in recent cases may have arisen in such a hastily aggressive, and typically uncontested, manner, on the false premise that it gains probity because it is *tractable*,¹⁰⁹ without due consideration as to whether it is also *realistic*, i.e., whether the *economic assumption* "*correspond[s] to the real world*."¹¹⁰ In this instance, the PLP has dramatically oversimplified the nature of vertically integrated physician practices, by essentially reducing the question of a transaction's *commercial reasonableness* to an analysis of only whether or not a practice's professional services generate *financial (cash)* gains for the acquiring hospital. In doing so, the PLP embodies an *economic assumption* that foregoes correspondence with the real world (as discussed below) in favor of *tractability*.

With respect to the question of whether the PLP is realistic, evidence shows that the PLP does not correspond with the real world. The PLP treats vertically integrated practices as independent freestanding operating enterprises in making its case that these physician practices are economically unviable.¹¹¹ However, benchmarking data indicates that vertically integrated physician practices do not operate in the same way as independent physician practices. Rather, vertically integrated physician practices, in comparison to independent physician practices, typically: (1) provide significantly more charity care; (2) serve a different payor mix, specifically in that vertically integrated physician practices provide more services to Medicaid beneficiaries, and fewer services to patients covered by commercial insurance; and, (3) operate with relatively fewer non-physician practitioners per physician.¹¹² Together, these characteristics of vertically integrated physician practices lead to reduced revenues, relative to the revenues generated by *independent* physician practices.¹¹³ Thus, the PLP's treatment of vertically integrated practices as economically unviable, when considering them as *independent* enterprises, clearly contradicts the reality that these are not *independent* practices.

As discussed above, the PLP has put forth an *economic assumption* that foregoes correspondence with the real world in favor of *tractability*. It is important to note that, given two sets of assumptions that are equally *tractable*, the question of which set of assumptions is preferable depends on which set is more *realistic*.¹¹⁴ Correspondingly, as the availability of data and computing power have improved, increasingly complex models have been rendered *tractable*, allowing economists to perform nuanced studies that more closely correspond with the real world,¹¹⁵ e.g., detailed *commercial reasonableness* analyses. Because these more *realistic* analyses are also *tractable*, the PLP should be discarded as an inferior *economic assumption*.

Economic Principles

Perhaps more concerning than the PLP's failure to put forth a viable *economic assumption*, is the fact that the PLP misapplies or disregards established and accepted *economic principles*. As described above, those *economic assumptions* that have survived rigorous testing "graduate" to the level of an *economic principle*.¹¹⁶ Marshall utilized the term *economic law*, defining *economic laws* as "...*statements with regard to the tendencies of man's action under certain conditions*."¹¹⁷ For the purposes of this analysis, *economic principles* are defined to include not only *economic laws* regarding individuals' actions, but also established and accepted statements about the fundamental nature of economies. As stated above, the use of the PLP in guiding regulatory, legislative, or judicial action is concerning, because it clearly misapplies or ignores several of these *economic principles*, e.g.: (1) the *Principle of Scarcity*; (2) the *Principle of Utility*; and, (3) the *Principle of Substitution*, which are each discussed below.

Scarcity is defined as "the general condition... that more is wanted of goods and services than is available (either to individuals or to populations)."¹¹⁸ Following from this, the Principle of Scarcity states that "No object... can have value unless scarcity is coupled with utility," and further states that as a property interest becomes more scarce, the value of the subject property interest increases.¹¹⁹ With respect to the PLP, the resource in question is physician labor, which is becoming increasingly scarce.¹²⁰ As the demand for coordinated, efficient healthcare services rises, hospitals are seeking to integrate with physicians, based on the potential gains of vertical integration (discussed above).¹²¹ Simultaneously, as physician labor becomes more scarce, hospitals must incur increasing expenses in order to retain a physician's services,¹²² which may result in a "book financial loss" on the physician's professional services, when considered independently. The PLP fails to recognize this reality, and therefore ignores the Principle of Scarcity.

The *Principle of Utility* states that "*rational*" economic actors will attempt to maximize their expected *utility*,¹²³ where *utility* is defined as "*the ability of a product to satisfy a human want, need, or desire.*"¹²⁴ Therefore, while *utility* may stem from *monetary* (*cash*) benefits, it may also be derived from other sources, e.g., the *avoidance of cost*, or the creation of a *social benefit*. The PLP asserts that vertically integrated systems offset the "*book financial losses*" associated with *integration support payments* related to physician labor through the revenues associated with legally impermissible referrals. This inference regarding "*book financial losses*" ignores the other forms of *utility* that healthcare organizations may derive from *vertical integration*, such as the *social benefit* to the community or the *utility* gained from

eliminating inefficiencies. In doing so, the PLP misconstrues *utility* as being equivalent to only *monetary* (*cash*) gain, in contrast to "*the ability of a product to satisfy a human want, need, or desire,*"¹²⁵ which may take the form of *non-monetary* (*non-cash*) benefits. Given this analytical deficiency, the PLP misapplies the

Principle of Utility.

The Principle of Substitution states that "The price of a desired substitute, or one of equal utility, sets the ceiling of value for a particular good or service."¹²⁶ Inherent in the PLP is the assumption that integration support payments are evidence that hospitals would be irrational to prefer vertical integration to their continued operation in the service area, independent of physician practices, unless the hospitals were the beneficiaries of revenues resulting from legally impermissible physician referrals. However, based on the Principle of Substitution, market participants and policy makers would select an alternative route to receiving the benefits that vertical integration provides (e.g., meeting continuum of care requirements or satisfaction of the Triple Aim) if the alternative required a lower cost than the cost of vertical integration (i.e., integration support payments). This is not the case, as evidenced by the significant growth of vertical integration strategies in the healthcare industry (see Implementation of Vertical Integration, above). Therefore, the assumption inherent in the PLP ignores rational actors' selection of vertical integration as the optimal alternative under the Principle of Substitution.

Having discussed the *Principle of Scarcity*, the *Principle of Utility*, and the *Principle of Substitution*, it is evident that, in evaluating vertical integration transactions, the PLP misapplies or disregards established and accepted *economic principles*. Further, the PLP also disregards more advanced *economic theories* that are based on the aforementioned *economic principles*, as discussed below.

Economic Theories

The third stage in the progression of economics as a discipline is for students of economics to propose further economic theories, based on the accepted economic principles that were established by previous investigators into the discipline of economics, allowing "... the individual student [to] speak with the authority of his science."¹²⁷ Economists have long studied the topic of organization and integration in the marketplace, and developed complex economic theories, which theories have been analyzed and accepted as models that accurately describe economists' observations of the real world.¹²⁸ In turn, these theories have been utilized as the bases for further economic studies; as described by Marshall, this iterative process allows each student to expand the "scope" of economic knowledge.¹²⁹ However, the PLP runs contrary to these established and accepted economic theories, and consequently, the PLP contraindicates a large body of economic thought. A selection of several seminal works published over the past 135 years regarding economic theories related to organization, integration, and efficiency in the marketplace are discussed below.

In 1881, Francis Edgeworth published *Mathematical Psychics*,¹³⁰ in which he utilized a mathematical analysis to argue that "...*the basis of arbitration between contractors is the greatest possible utility of all concerned*..."¹³¹ Edgeworth studied negotiation and cooperation between economic entities, starting from the simple case of interactions between two parties, whose interests depend on two variables (i.e., x and y), which the parties have agreed not to alter without mutual consent (i.e., they have entered into a contract).¹³² By plotting the two variables graphically, Edgeworth mapped out what he termed a *contract curve*, with each point along the curve representing a potential bargain between the parties.¹³³ Based on mathematical analysis of this curve (more specifically, the formulas underlying the curve), Edgeworth showed that "...*the total utility of the system is a relative maximum at any point on the pure contract-curve*."¹³⁴ This indicates that cooperative contracts among healthcare providers (e.g., *vertical integration*) would be preferable to *independent* operation, maximizing the *utility* of the entities involved.

In 1937, Ronald Coase published *The Nature of the Firm*,¹³⁵ in which he argued that individuals organize into firms because one entity coordinating scarce resources is more efficient than independent actors' purchase and sale of all resources in an open market.¹³⁶ Coase's theory is based on the idea that there are *transaction costs* associated with the operation of a market, which firms may mitigate or eliminate.¹³⁷ Notably, Coase stated that "*The entrepreneur [who is allocating the resources of the firm] has to carry out his function at less cost [than the market]... because it is always possible to revert to the open market if he fails to do <i>this*."¹³⁸ This reinforces the importance of the *Principle of Substitution* as applied to vertical integration in healthcare, suggesting that if healthcare providers *could* achieve the benefits of vertical integration through independent operation, then they *would* choose to operate in the open market.

In 1937, James Bonbright published The Valuation of Property: A Treatise on the Appraisal of Property for Different Legal *Purposes*, ¹³⁹ a foundational text that precipitated the modern understanding of valuation and appraisal in economic terms. In this work. Bonbright stated that one of the key propositions in the theory of valuation is that "The value of a property to its owner is identical in amount with the adverse value of the entire loss, direct and indirect, that the owner might expect to suffer if he were to be deprived of the property."¹⁴⁰ In short, Bonbright proposed that the avoidance of cost is equivalent to the creation of utility.¹⁴¹ Considered in conjunction with Coase's theory that firms exist to mitigate or eliminate transaction costs,¹⁴² Bonbright's proposition on the avoidance of cost suggests that the efficiencies generated by organizing healthcare providers into a vertically integrated firm creates *utility* for the integrating entities, and may therefore be preferable to *independent* operation.

In 2005, Alain Enthoven and Laura Tollen published "*Competition in Health Care: It Takes Systems To Pursue Quality And Efficiency*," in which they advocated for integrated delivery systems as a solution to improve the U.S. healthcare delivery system.¹⁴³ Enthoven and Tollen stated:

"There is more to safe, appropriate, affordable health care than what is evident to a patient in an encounter with an individual provider. We need systems to ensure that health care providers are...deployed in the appropriate...numbers and specialties to meet a population's needs efficiently; current on evidence- based practice and supported by tools (such as monitoring and reminders) to overcome widespread practice variations and quality failures; ...supported by teams of colleagues sharing goals, work processes, and information and able to coordinate care across multiple settings; supported by a system that records test results, diagnoses, and treatments and transmits orders accurately; practicing in facilities with equipment selected based on evidence of safety and efficacy; and supported financially and logistically to participate in common efforts such as guideline *development...which* [*is*] *important for evidence-based practice.*"¹⁴⁴

In 2008, Michael Porter published an expanded edition of *On Competition*, in which he argued that *social benefits* and *economic benefits* are "*integrally connected*" for business enterprises.¹⁴⁵ Porter stated:

"It is true that economic and social objectives have long been seen as distinct and often competing. But this is a false dichotomy; it represents an increasingly obsolete perspective in a world of open, knowledge-based competition. Companies do not function in isolation from the society around them. In fact, their ability to compete depends heavily on the circumstances of the locations where they operate...The more a social improvement relates to a company's business, the more it leads to economic benefits as well."¹⁴⁶

Together, the aforementioned economic theories demonstrate that individual actors can maximize aggregate utility and mitigate or eliminate certain transaction costs (which are, in turn, equivalent to the creation of *utility*) by organizing into coordinated firms. As reflected under the Principle of Substitution, rational economic actors are choosing to engage in vertical integration transactions in order to maximize aggregate utility related, in part, to nonmonetary (non-cash) benefits. By assuming that specific and immediate "book financial losses" on vertically integrated physician practices constitute dispositive evidence of the payment of consideration based on the volume and/or value of legally impermissible physician referrals, the PLP ignores the conclusions of an established and accepted canon of economic literature. In doing so, regulators and legal professionals who utilize the PLP are effectively disregarding the body of knowledge available to them, rather than relying upon "the authority of [the] science"147 of economics.

Commercial Reasonableness Argument

In addition to the deficiencies of the PLP as an *economic assumption*, as well as, the PLP's disregard for established and accepted *economic principles* and *economic theories*, the PLP misinterprets the threshold of *commercial reasonableness*. Specifically, losses on *vertically integrated* physician practices do not contraindicate the threshold of *commercial reasonableness*, a specialized concept within the realm of *financial economics* that considers, in part, *utility considerations*, not solely relying on *accounting conventions*, which focus exclusively on *financial (cash)* considerations.

HHS has interpreted the term "commercially reasonable" to mean an arrangement which appears to be "...a sensible, prudent business agreement, from the perspective of the particular parties involved, even in the absence of any potential referrals."¹⁴⁸ Additionally, HHS's Stark II, Phase II commentary suggests that:

"An arrangement will be considered 'commercially reasonable' in the absence of referrals if the arrangement would make commercial sense if entered into by a reasonable entity of similar type and size and a reasonable physician...of similar scope and specialty, even if there were no potential DHS referrals."¹⁴⁹

One element that may indicate a *sensible, prudent business* arrangement is the anticipated economic benefit (i.e., **utility**) to be derived from the *financial profitability* resulting from the transaction. As discussed in *Economic Principles*, above, economic benefit can be derived from both **monetary** (cash) and **non-monetary** (non-cash) sources; however, the ultimate source of

value is the *expected utility* to be derived from the ownership or control of a property interest. *Financial (cash)* remuneration is, in fact, an intermediary economic benefit, whose value emanates from its exchange for an asset which directly provides *utility*. However, many of the economic benefits derived from *vertical integration* in healthcare (e.g., providing the continuum of care in meeting its community benefit mission, promotion of population health, and achievement of the *Triple Aim*) are *non-monetary (non-cash)* economic benefits that provide *utility* to the *vertically integrated* health system, separate and distinct from *utility* derived from *monetary (cash)* economic benefits.¹⁵⁰

In light of these considerations, along with other standards, constituting the *commercial reasonableness* threshold, hospitals routinely invest in initiatives, service lines, and uses of capital that do not *immediately* (or may never) yield *direct financial (cash)* returns on or of their investment, including:

- (1) Emergency rooms, trauma services, pathology labs, and *neonatal intensive-care units* (NICU);
- (2) Research labs and clinical studies;
- (3) Principal research investigators, medical directors, and other types of physician executives;
- (4) Education of residents; and,
- (5) Artwork and other aesthetics that aim to generate therapeutic benefits for the hospitals' patients.¹⁵¹

Even though many hospital investments do not create *immediate* or *direct financial (cash)* returns, these investments may allow hospitals to accrue other forms of *utility*, e.g., the *avoidance of cost* or the generation of *social benefits*. Therefore, despite the lack of *immediate* or *direct financial (cash)* return on or of certain investments by healthcare enterprises, these services may nevertheless satisfy the threshold of *commercial reasonableness*. For example, the investment may be "*necessary*" for the continued operation of the healthcare enterprise apart from obtaining referrals,¹⁵² such as those listed above (in *Potential Benefits of Vertical Integration*).

In particular, for a tax-exempt healthcare organization, under which health systems qualify and must be "...organized and operated exclusively for an exempt purpose..."¹⁵³ such as, "charitable, religious, educational, scientific,... [or] public safety...,"¹⁵⁴ financial losses may be incurred in accordance with Internal Revenue Service (IRS) Revenue Ruling 69-545, which states:

"In the general law of charity, the promotion of health is considered to be a charitable purpose. [...] A nonprofit organization whose purpose and activity are providing hospital care is promoting health and may, therefore, qualify as organized and operated in furtherance of a charitable purpose."¹⁵⁵

This *charitable mission* provides the basis for the tax-exempt status of the vertically integrated health system, which, in lieu of a *monetary* (*cash*) benefit, will, in the service of their stated charitable mission, generate a *social benefit* for the community it serves. Vertically integrated health systems are increasingly required to serve as *organizers* and *integrators* of care in a community, whereby they provide a *continuum of care* across a population.¹⁵⁶ This charitable mission may not necessarily be profitable from the perspective of *accounting* precepts, but is nonetheless necessary for the *health of the population* in the community served by the vertically integrated health system.

The PLP's reliance on *accounting* conventions, such as "book financial losses", reflects a less than rational interpretation and application of the *commercial reasonableness* threshold, which requires consideration of the broader concept of economic utility, not simply immediate or direct financial (cash) returns. Accounting documents, such as an income statement, balance sheet, or general ledger, rarely account for non-monetary (noncash) economic benefits in ways that efficaciously reflect the overall *utility* produced by an enterprise, asset, or service that may support the commercial reasonableness of the vertical integration transaction. The sole reliance on accounting documents that demonstrate "book financial losses" as evidence against the commercial reasonableness of a vertical integration transaction erodes the economic underpinnings of the threshold of commercial reasonableness in healthcare transactions, which requires the analysis and consideration of both the qualitative and quantitative economic benefits that vertical integration may provide.

CONCLUSION

In summary, the current trend in the regulatory application of the PLP to challenge vertical integration in healthcare is misguided and imprudent. Specifically, the PLP is flawed from an economic perspective, primarily in that it: (1) does not meet the basic requirements for an *economic assumption*; (2) is unsupported by fundamental *economic principles*; and, (3) runs contrary to established and accepted *economic theory*.

Additionally, the PLP represents a less than rational interpretation and application of the *commercial reasonableness* threshold, in that it focuses its analysis solely on the financial *quantitative* factors, e.g., *monetary* (*cash*) returns, and ignores the *qualitative* factors, e.g., the *avoidance of cost*, and the generation of *social benefit*. Should the PLP continue to evolve into accepted "legal doctrine," and ultimately the "*law of the land*," the result may be to impede the development of innovative new structures of emerging healthcare organizations to the extent that it would cause significant harm to the healthcare economy. This may include the loss of both: (1) operating cost-related efficiencies associated with *vertical integration*; and, (2) the qualitative benefits that *vertical integration* can provide to a hospital's community in furtherance of its community benefit mission.

In considering the application of the PLP to vertical integration in healthcare, economists and valuation professionals that work with healthcare providers and their legal advisers, should understand and educate their clients that studies of FMV and commercial reasonableness are specializations within the broader discipline of financial economics. The requisite economic concepts involve utility, which is not satisfied simply by financial (cash) considerations but also by *non-monetary* economic benefits, such as the avoidance of cost and the generation of social benefits. In contrast, arguments embodied by, and decisions relying on, the PLP are habitually based on the unfounded misapplication of accounting conventions, which focus only on financial (cash) considerations. When considering economic issues, such as the FMV and commercial reasonableness of a healthcare vertical integration transaction, the reliance on *accounting* precepts may mislead healthcare providers and the legal community regarding the legal permissibility of the transaction.

The deleterious impact of the increasing regulatory trend against healthcare vertical integration arising from the application of the PLP presents an existential threat to healthcare reform. Accordingly, notwithstanding the legal community's often seeming disdain for the *dismal science*, and fully recognizing the limitations of economic analysis, it is nonetheless essential that the misapplication of economic theory embodied in the PLP be redressed by trained, learned professionals with access to, and who are conversant with, the pertinent body of knowledge. In 1932, Joan Robinson, in her groundbreaking work, *Economics is a Serious Subject*, opined on the distinction between economists and certain "*practical men*," such as accountants, bankers, and businessmen.¹⁵⁷ Discussing how this distinction could impact the future role of economists in influencing issues concerning the general public, Ms. Robinson stated:

"...[T]he relations of economics and practical life are similar to the relations of physiology and medicine... [A]s an inadequate knowledge of physiology led in the past to a medicine which killed more patients than it cured, so, in the history of the last hundred years...economics...once primitive and over-confident, has done more harm than good in the sphere of political life. Economics as medicine is in an even more elementary state than economics as a serious subject.

But it does not at all follow that economists should refrain from giving governments the benefit of their advice. If there is no doctor in the neighbourhood, it is better to ask a physiologist what is wrong with the patient than to ask an engineer...

[G]overnments [have been led] to prefer the advice of bankers, industrialists, and other practical men. But it is certainly better for the patient to ask the physiologist what is wrong with him than to ask the advice of the first man he meets. For the first man that he meets may be an undertaker who has his own view of the course that the disease ought to follow."¹⁵⁸

Robinson's thoughts capture the essence of the problem in the application of the PLP as the basis for judicial, legislative, or regulatory action, in that the PLP embodies a regulatory analysis of vertically integrated transactions that focuses exclusively on the integrated physician practice's *financial* (*cash*) returns, while entirely disregarding fundamental *economic* considerations, e.g., *non-monetary* (*non-cash*) forms of *utility*, including the *avoidance of cost* and the generation of *social benefit*, and more generally, FMV and *commercial reasonableness*.

This may lead analysts, regulators, legislators, and legal professionals to lose sight of the benefits of vertical integration; in essence, they are misled by a myopic fixation on red ink, such that they "*cannot see the forest for the trees.*" This potential impediment to sound decisions on policy and case law is particularly troubling, given the acute need to improve the quality, accessibility, and efficiency of the U.S. healthcare delivery system.¹⁵⁹ If there was ever a time for the legal and economic communities to collaborate to address these important issues impacting the U.S. economy, and more particularly the U.S. healthcare delivery system, it would be now.

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