# **Annals of Internal Medicine**

# ORIGINAL RESEARCH

# Comorbidity-Adjusted Life Expectancy: A New Tool to Inform Recommendations for Optimal Screening Strategies

Hyunsoon Cho, PhD; Carrie N. Klabunde, PhD; K. Robin Yabroff, PhD, MBA; Zhuoqiao Wang, MS; Angela Meekins, BS; Iris Lansdorp-Vogelaar, PhD; and Angela B. Mariotto, PhD

**Background:** Many guidelines recommend considering health status and life expectancy when making cancer screening decisions for elderly persons.

**Objective:** To estimate life expectancy for elderly persons without a history of cancer, taking into account comorbid conditions.

Design: Population-based cohort study.

**Setting:** A 5% sample of Medicare beneficiaries in selected geographic areas, including their claims and vital status information.

**Participants:** Medicare beneficiaries aged 66 years or older between 1992 and 2005 without a history of cancer (n = 407749).

Measurements: Medicare claims were used to identify comorbid conditions included in the Charlson index. Survival probabilities were estimated by comorbidity group (no, low/medium, and high) and for the 3 most prevalent conditions (diabetes, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and congestive heart failure) by using the Cox proportional hazards model. Comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy was calculated based on comparisons of survival models with U.S. life tables. Survival probabilities from the U.S. life tables providing the most similar survival experience to the cohort of interest were used.

Results: Persons with higher levels of comorbidity had shorter life expectancies, whereas those with no comorbid conditions, including very elderly persons, had favorable life expectancies relative to an average person of the same chronological age. The estimated life expectancy at age 75 years was approximately 3 years longer for persons with no comorbid conditions and approximately 3 years shorter for those with high comorbidity relative to the average U.S. population.

**Limitations:** The cohort was limited to Medicare fee-for-service beneficiaries aged 66 years or older living in selected geographic areas. Data from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results cancer registry and Medicare claims lack information on functional status and severity of comorbidity, which might influence life expectancy in elderly persons.

**Conclusion:** Life expectancy varies considerably by comorbidity status in elderly persons. Comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy may help physicians tailor recommendations for stopping or continuing cancer screening for individual patients.

Primary Funding Source: None.

Ann Intern Med. 2013;159:667-676. For author affiliations, see end of text.

www.annals.org

ncertainty exists about the optimal use of cancer screening tests in elderly persons (1), particularly surrounding decisions to stop screening. The benefits associated with early detection and subsequent treatment of cancer decline sharply with age because elderly persons are more likely to die of comorbid conditions or other causes (2). Moreover, the long period typically required before benefits are realized from cancer screening can be an important consideration for elderly patients and their physicians. For many, a survival benefit from early detection of colorectal or breast cancer may only occur 5 or more years after screening (1). Those with a shorter life expectancy would probably not experience a survival benefit. The harms of screening are another consideration, including complications from screening or follow-up tests (for example, perforation and bleeding associated with colonoscopy), as well as the identification and treatment of a disease that may never otherwise become symptomatic during an elderly person's remaining years of life. In addition to the potential physical harms, screening and follow-up testing may contribute to physical discomfort and psychological distress (3). For all of these reasons, it is crucial to weigh potential benefits and harms of cancer screening in elderly persons in relation to life expectancy (4).

Some guidelines (5–7) and studies (8, 9) suggest that screening decisions in elderly persons be individualized and take into account health status, life expectancy, and patient

preferences rather than merely chronological age. For breast cancer screening, the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force concluded that evidence to access the balance of the benefits and harms of screening women aged 75 years or older is insufficient (10), whereas the American Cancer Society recommends continuing mammography as long as women are in good health (7). The U.S. Preventive Services Task Force does not recommend routine colorectal cancer screening in adults aged 75 years or older (11), whereas the American College of Physicians recommends that clinicians stop screening adults with a life expectancy of less than 10 years or those aged 75 years or older who have substantial comorbidity (6). In fact, heterogeneity of health status (for example, the existence of acute or chronic conditions) contributes to substantial variability in life expectancy among elderly persons (1, 12); hence, a single estimated life table based on basic demographic characteristics may not clearly inform physician recommendations for cancer screening. Although an individual's exact life expectancy is impossible to predict, incorporating

See also:

**Web-Only** 

Supplement

www.annals.org 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10 667

#### Context

Some experts recommend consideration of health status and life expectancy when deciding whether to screen for

#### Contribution

This population-based cohort study examined the life expectancy of Medicare beneficiaries with and without comorbid conditions. Persons with no comorbidity, including very elderly persons, had longer life expectancies than those with comorbidity. At age 75 years, life expectancies for persons with no comorbidity were about 3 years longer and those for persons with high comorbidity were about 3 years shorter than U.S. population-based estimates.

#### Caution

Functional status and severity of comorbid conditions were not examined.

#### **Implication**

Comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy could help physicians tailor cancer screening recommendations.

—The Editors

strong predictors of survival—namely age, sex, and comorbidity-may allow for better estimation of life expectancy in elderly persons (13).

The objective of this study is to develop life tables for elderly persons without a history of cancer, taking into account their comorbid conditions. We build on previous work in which life tables for the comorbidity of patients with cancer were adjusted for. Those tables were developed to aid treatment decision making at the time of diagnosis (14). However, health status related to noncancer life expectancy of patients with cancer vary by cancer type (15) and may not accurately reflect that of persons without cancer. Therefore, there is a need to calculate life expectancy for persons without a history of cancer, accounting for heterogeneities of their health status. Here, we estimate life expectancy adjusted by comorbid conditions to facilitate decisions about cancer screening among persons without cancer.

## **METHODS**

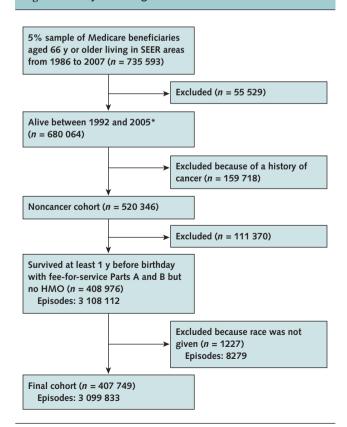
# **Data Sources and Study Population**

We identified a noncancer cohort from a random 5% sample of Medicare beneficiaries residing in the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) cancer registry areas (Atlanta, Georgia; Connecticut; Detroit, Michigan; Hawaii; Iowa; New Mexico; Seattle-Puget Sound, Washington; Utah; and San Franciso-Oakland, Los Angeles, and San Jose-Monterey, California) (for more information, see http://appliedresearch.cancer.gov /seermedicare/). We selected beneficiaries who were alive and aged 66 years or older between 1992 and 2005 and excluded beneficiaries who had a previous cancer diagnosis between 1975 and 2005 (16). We used Medicare Part A inpatient and Part B physician supplier and outpatient facility claims between 1991 and 2005 to identify comorbid conditions. To assess comorbidity, we included only beneficiaries enrolled in Parts A and B with fee-for-service coverage, not enrolled in HMOs, and having at least 1 year of complete entitlement before birthdays occurring between 1992 and 2005. A full 12-month entitlement that satisfies the inclusion criteria before a birthday constitutes 1 episode. Each episode is associated with an age. The final study cohort comprised 407 749 beneficiaries with 3 099 833 episodes. Further details on cohort assembly are shown in Figure 1.

## Comorbidity Measurement

Each Medicare claim contains diagnoses coded according to the International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification (ICD-9-CM) (17), and procedures coded according to the 4th edition of Current Procedural Terminology (18) or the ICD-9-CM. Comorbid conditions were identified from claims in each episode occurring between 1992 and 2005 by using standard methods and algorithms (19-21). The algorithm searches

Figure 1. Study flow diagram.



SEER = Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results.

668 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10

Includes claims between 1991 and 2005. National claims history and outpatient claims were not available before 1991 and cancer diagnosis data used were up to 2005 in the 2008 SEER-Medicare linkage.

for procedure and diagnosis codes in all claims during an episode to capture comorbid conditions identified by Charlson and colleagues (19), which are widely used in administrative claims-based studies and health services research (22). The ICD-9-CM and Current Procedural Terminology codes used to identify each condition and the types of diseases included are listed in Appendix Table 1 (available at www.annals.org). The conditions are AIDS, cerebrovascular disease, chronic renal failure, congestive heart failure (CHF), chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), dementia, diabetes, diabetes with sequelae, cirrhosis or chronic hepatitis, moderate or severe liver disease, acute myocardial infarction, history of myocardial infarction, paralysis, peripheral vascular disease, rheumatologic disease, and ulcer disease. In the analyses, diabetes and diabetes with sequelae were grouped together. We excluded the diagnostic codes corresponding to solid tumors and lymphoma or leukemia because the study population was cancer-free. Consistent with previous research (20, 21), a rule-out algorithm was applied in which only conditions appearing on more than 1 physician or outpatient claim were included to ensure that diagnoses recorded only in Part B claims were less likely to be rule-out procedures or transient episodes. The number of episodes and measured comorbid conditions varies by person (approximately 9% of beneficiaries had only 1 episode). For some persons, comorbidity measurements were missing for some years because of lack of eligibility. In the analysis, we imputed comorbidity for any missing entitlement years (n =368 474) with observed comorbid conditions in the closest previous episode available. The cohort used for data analysis had 3 468 307 episodes, with 10.6% of data imputed. Data characteristics are shown in Table 1 and Figure 2. For more details on data, see the Supplement (available at www.annals.org).

#### Overview: 3-Step Approach

We used a 3-step approach similar to that of Mariotto and colleagues (14) to estimate life expectancy by comorbidity. First, we estimated the effect of comorbid conditions on survival and constructed a comorbidity score. We then used these scores to classify comorbidity status into 1 of 3 groups: no, low/medium, or high comorbidity. Second, we estimated age-specific survival curves for each comorbidity group and for the 3 most common comorbid conditions (diabetes, COPD, and CHF). Third, we estimated comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy. We used Proc Phreg in SAS, version 9.2 (SAS Institute, Cary, North Carolina), for the statistical analysis. More details on methods and mathematical formulation of the models are provided in the Supplement.

#### Step 1: Summarizing Comorbidity Status

Estimating the Effect of Comorbid Conditions on Survival: Comorbidity Weights. We used the Cox proportional hazards model, in which indicators for comorbid condi-

tions were treated as time-dependent covariates, to estimate comorbidity weights reflecting the effects of comorbid conditions on the risk for death. Sex and race were included as covariates in the model, and the event of interest was death from any cause. We used age as a time scale to directly account for its effect on mortality and adjust for confounding (23, 24). In particular, we used the counting process formulation of the Cox model to allow for time-dependent comorbid conditions and left-truncated survival time (25, 26). The coefficient estimates of the condition indicators comprise the weights for the comorbid conditions.

Calculating Comorbidity Score and Defining Comorbidity Groups. The comorbidity score was calculated as the sum of the weights multiplied by their condition indicator (1 = has the condition; 0 = does not have the condition)(14, 20). If there was more than 1 condition, the score was calculated as the sum of the weights for all conditions present. A higher score represented a greater burden of comorbidity (that is, more or more severe comorbid conditions). We calculated a comorbidity score for each age after an episode.

We used the comorbidity scores to classify comorbidity status at each age in which an episode exists: no comorbidity (none) or having a low/medium or high comorbidity score. The groupings were based on estimated weights that reflect the effect of comorbidity on survival and clinical judgments (15). In particular, the high comorbidity group includes conditions that usually lead to organ failure or system dysfunctions. Episodes with several comorbid conditions or a comorbidity score more than 0.56 were included in the high comorbidity group. The comorbidity score was 0 for the no-comorbidity group. The conditions included in each group are listed in Table 2. Because of the small sample size in the low comorbidity group, the low and medium groups were combined.

# Step 2: Estimating Age-Specific Survival by Comorbidity Group

We estimated age-specific survival curves, 1 for each age between 66 and 90 years, stratified by sex and comorbidity group. We fit the Cox proportional hazards models to estimate survival at each age, conditional on being alive. An age-specific cohort was constructed for each age to estimate survival. Survival time was time to death or to the end of the study period (31 December 2005) at a given age. Race was included as a covariate. The estimated survival curve is the survival experience up to 10 years for the group of persons with similar levels of observed comorbidities at the given age.

## Step 3: Estimating Comorbidity-Adjusted Life Expectancy

Calculation of life expectancy requires reliable ageconditional probabilities of death until at least age 109 years. Our estimated survival models (step 2) were based on 10 years of follow-up. To calculate life expectancy and

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics and Prevalence of Comorbid Conditions in the Study Cohort of Medicare Beneficiaries in SEER Areas Without a History of Cancer Diagnosis, 1992–2005\*

Variable	Beneficiaries, n (%)†	Episodes, n (%)‡							
		Study Cohort	Imputed Data§						
Age									
66–69 y	232 049 (56.9)	673 786 (21.7)	703 350 (20.3)						
70–74 y	76 423 (18.7)	821 570 (26.5)	922 829 (26.6)						
75–79 y	47 533 (11.7)	689 356 (22.2)	798 017 (23.0)						
80–84 y	29 031 (7.1)	486 045 (15.7)	558 834 (16.1)						
85–89 y	14 770 (3.6)	273 705 (8.8)	310 827 (9)						
≥90 y	7943 (2)	155 371 (5)	174 450 (5)						
Sex									
Female	247 413 (60.7)	1 966 271 (63.4)	2 194 227 (63.3)						
Male	160 336 (39.3)	1 133 562 (36.6)	1 274 080 (36.7)						
Race									
White	350 090 (85.9)	2 713 051 (87.5)	3 025 566 (87.2)						
Black	31 463 (7.7)	223 353 (7.2)	250 942 (7.2)						
Other	26 196 (6.4)	163 429 (5.3)	191 799 (5.5)						
Life status									
Alive	285 456 (70)	2 249 854 (72.6)	2 531 252 (73)						
Dead	122 293 (30)	849 979 (27.4)	937 055 (27)						
Total	407 749 (100)	3 099 833 (100)	3 468 307 (100)						
Comorbid conditions									
Diabetes	_	421 279 (13.6)	451 861 (13.0)						
COPD	_	277 638 (9.0)	296 444 (8.6)						
CHF	_	207 307 (6.7)	216 412 (6.2)						
Cerebrovascular disease	_	159 874 (5.2)	169 184 (4.9)						
Peripheral vascular disease	_	101 248 (3.3)	106 286 (3.1)						
Dementia	_	60 806 (2.0)	62 538 (1.8)						
Rheumatologic disease	_	59 259 (1.9)	63 072 (1.8)						
History of myocardial infarction	_	44 584 (1.4)	47 421 (1.4)						
Chronic renal failure	_	43 948 (1.4)	45 119 (1.3)						
Ulcer	_	37 923 (1.2)	40 828 (1.2)						
Acute myocardial infarction	_	30 653 (1.0)	32 702 (0.9)						
Paralysis	_	19 456 (0.6)	20 776 (0.6)						
Cirrhosis and chronic hepatitis	_	7475 (0.2)	7949 (0.2)						
Moderate/severe liver disease	_	2407 (0.1)	2532 (0.1)						
AIDS	-	430 (0.01)	455 (0.01)						
Number of conditions									
None	_	2 125 944 (68.6)	2 426 170 (70.0)						
1		649 227 (20.9)	702 265 (20.3)						
2		207 401 (6.7)	218 341 (6.3)						
2 ≥3		117 261 (3.8)	121 531 (3.5)						
Total			3 468 307 (100)						
lotal	-	3 099 833 (100)	3 468 307						

CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; SEER = Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results.

extrapolate survival beyond the data and to older ages, we compared each survival model to several age-specific U.S. life tables until we found the best matching age-specific U.S. life table. More specifically, for each age and comorbidity group, we compared our estimated survival probabilities with those calculated from several age-specific U.S. life tables and measured the distance between the 2 curves (absolute difference between cumulative survival probabilities) over 10 years. The table that minimizes the distance,

called "the best matching U.S. life table," provides the closest survival experience for the cohort of persons of a given age, sex, race, and comorbidity status and is used to estimate life expectancy for the cohort of interest. The life expectancies estimated on the basis of the U.S. life table may provide more stable results, especially for the groups with a small sample size. In this study, we used decennial 2000 U.S. life tables (27) by sex and race because they correspond most closely to the study period. More

670 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10

<sup>\*</sup> Demographic characteristics and prevalence of comorbid conditions (in percentages) were similar to the study cohort after imputing missing entitlement.

<sup>†</sup> Age of beneficiaries at the first episode in the study period is displayed.

<sup>#</sup> Age of beneficiaries at each episode is displayed.

<sup>§</sup> Missing entitlements were imputed.

details on life expectancy calculations are provided in the Supplement.

The best matching U.S. life table identifies the age of an average U.S. population that provides similar survival experiences to those of persons with a given comorbidity of interest. We refer to the U.S. life table age as the "healthadjusted age" (14). Figure 3 illustrates an example of identifying health-adjusted age.

#### Role of the Funding Source

This study received no external funding.

## **RESULTS**

#### Demographic Characteristics and Prevalence of **Comorbid Conditions**

The study cohort comprised predominantly women (60.7%) and white persons (85.9%). At least 1 comorbid condition was identified in 31.4% of the episodes. More details about demographic characteristics and the prevalence of comorbid conditions are shown in Table 1.

Comorbidity became more common as age increased. The proportion with no comorbidity decreased, and the proportion with high comorbidity increased (Figure 2,

top). Diabetes, COPD, and CHF were prevalent across all ages, although CHF became more prevalent with increasing age (Figure 2, bottom).

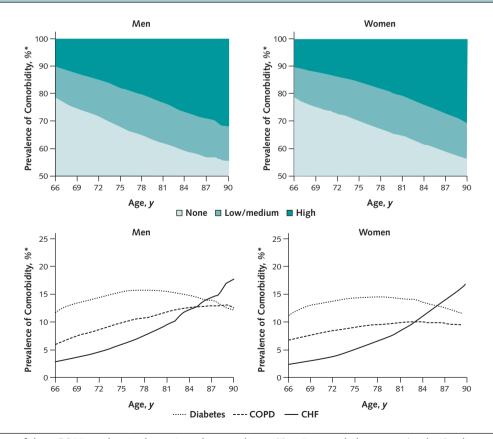
#### The Effect of Comorbid Conditions on the Risk for Death

Of all comorbid conditions examined, AIDS was associated with the highest risk for death (hazard ratio, 3.66 [95% CI, 2.72 to 4.92]). Persons with diabetes, COPD, and CHF had, respectively, at least a 1.45, 1.76, and 2.27 times greater hazard of dying compared with those with no comorbidity. The hazard of death for persons in the high comorbidity group was at least 1.76 times greater than that of persons in the no-comorbidity group (Table 2).

#### Life Expectancy by Comorbidity

Estimated life expectancies were longer for persons in the no-comorbidity group, shorter for the high group, and similar for the low/medium group when compared with life expectancies in the U.S. life table matched by age, race, and sex (Table 3). Relative to the life expectancy of the average U.S. population, the estimated life expectancy for persons aged 75 years with no comorbidity was approximately 3 years longer, but for persons with high comorbidity, it was approximately 3 years shorter. As age increases,

Figure 2. Prevalence of comorbidity in the study cohort, by age.



CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Top. By comorbidity groups (no, low/medium, or high comorbidity). Bottom. Diabetes, COPD, and CHF

www.annals.org 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10 671

The prevalence of comorbid conditions (in percentages) in the imputed data were similar.

Table 2. Hazard Ratios and Comorbidity Weights Estimated From the Cox Proportional Hazards Model of Medicare Beneficiaries in SEER Areas Without a History of Cancer Diagnosis, 1992-2005\*

Variable†	Hazard Ratio (95% CI)	Coefficient‡	SE	P Value
Sex and race				
Male	1.45 (1.43–1.46)	0.369	0.006	< 0.001
Black	1.04 (1.02–1.06)	0.038	0.010	< 0.001
Other	0.90 (0.88–0.93)	-0.101	0.014	< 0.001
Comorbid conditions				
Low/medium comorbidity				
History of myocardial infarction	1.11 (1.08–1.15)	0.105	0.016	< 0.001
Ulcer	1.13 (1.09–1.17)	0.123	0.018	< 0.001
Acute myocardial infarction	1.28 (1.24–1.32)	0.247	0.017	< 0.001
Rheumatologic disease	1.31 (1.26–1.35)	0.269	0.018	< 0.001
Peripheral vascular disease	1.44 (1.42–1.47)	0.367	0.010	< 0.001
Diabetes	1.45 (1.43–1.47)	0.372	0.007	< 0.001
Paralysis	1.48 (1.43–1.54)	0.394	0.020	< 0.001
Cerebrovascular disease	1.52 (1.50–1.55)	0.420	0.009	< 0.001
High comorbidity				
COPD	1.76 (1.74–1.79)	0.567	0.008	< 0.001
CHF	2.27 (2.23–2.30)	0.818	0.007	< 0.001
Moderate/severe liver disease	2.30 (2.09-2.53)	0.832	0.049	< 0.001
Chronic renal failure	2.30 (2.25–2.36)	0.834	0.012	< 0.001
Dementia	2.35 (2.31-2.40)	0.855	0.010	< 0.001
Cirrhosis and chronic hepatitis	2.82 (2.63–3.01)	1.035	0.035	< 0.001
AIDS	3.66 (2.72–4.92)	1.298	0.151	< 0.001

CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; SEER = Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results.

the effect of comorbidity on life expectancy decreases. For example, compared with the life expectancies of the average U.S. white male population, the life expectancy of a white man in the high comorbidity group was about 6 years shorter at age 66 and 1 year shorter at age 90.

The life expectancy of persons with CHF was shorter and that of persons with COPD was shorter or similar (for example, black women) compared with that of the average U.S. population of the same chronological age (Table 3). For example, the life expectancy of a white woman at age 75 years with CHF was 5 years less than that of the average U.S. white woman. When compared with a white woman with no comorbid conditions at age 75 years, the life expectancy for women with diabetes, COPD, and CHF was about 4, 5, and 8 years shorter, respectively. In the analyses stratified by diabetes, COPD, and CHF, we assumed that serious conditions overrode others. For example, persons with CHF and COPD or diabetes were included in the CHF group. Results for those with only diabetes or COPD or CHF without other conditions showed similar trends, but the magnitudes were smaller (data not shown).

The results for "other" race were unstable because of the small sample size and the heterogeneity of populations in that category. Results from all races combined could be used instead. The estimated survival probabilities and health-adjusted ages are also shown in Appendix Tables 2 and 3 (available at www.annals.org).

#### DISCUSSION

In this study, we estimated life expectancies for elderly persons without a history of cancer, taking into account their comorbid conditions. We found substantial variation between estimated life expectancies for healthy persons without comorbidity and those with high levels of comorbidity or specific conditions, such as diabetes, CHF, and COPD. Those with higher levels of comorbidity had shorter life expectancies relative to an average person of the same chronological age. Persons with no comorbid conditions, even in their 80s, had longer life expectancies relative to an average person of the same age.

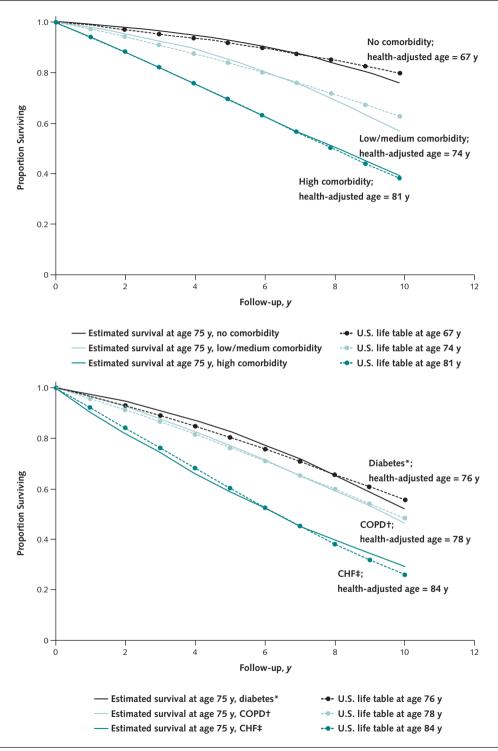
Life expectancy rather than chronological age could be used to inform cancer screening guidelines (1) to ensure that patients live long enough to benefit from early detection. As shown in this study, there is considerable heterogeneity of life expectancy by comorbidity status. Therefore, maximizing the potential benefits of cancer screening while minimizing potential harms requires attention to comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy. Subjective estimation of life expectancy has been shown to be inaccurate (28-31). The comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy developed here may facilitate clinical decision making and recommendations tailored to individual patients. For example, some men and women at a younger chronological age with high levels of comorbidity might not benefit from cancer screening (for example, white men aged 70 years

The Cox proportional hazards model was used with time-dependent comorbid conditions using age as a time scale and accounted for left-truncated and right-censored survival time. Comorbid conditions in the missing entitlement were imputed.

<sup>†</sup> The reference category comprised white females with no comorbid conditions.

<sup>#</sup> Coefficient estimates of the comorbid conditions are comorbidity weights. Comorbid conditions are listed by increasing comorbidity weights.

Figure 3. Estimated survival probabilities for white women aged 75 years, by comorbidity group, compared with the average U.S. white woman: an example of identifying health-adjusted age.



Solid lines represent survival probabilities estimated from the model for white women at age 75 years, by comorbidity, and dashed lines represent survival probabilities from the best matching U.S. life table. CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Top. Comorbidity groups (no, low/medium, or high comorbidity). Bottom. Diabetes, COPD, and CHF.

Includes diabetes only or diabetes with other conditions except COPD and CHF.

www.annals.org 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10 673

<sup>†</sup> Includes COPD only or COPD with other conditions except CHF.

<sup>‡</sup> Includes CHF only or CHF with other conditions.

Table 3. Estimated Life Expectancy, by Comorbidity Groups\*

Age, y		Life Expectancy in Men, y							Life Expectancy in Women, y										
Average U.S.				Cor	norbidity			Average U.S.	Comorbidity										
	Population†	None	Low/ Medium	High	Diabetes‡	COPD§	CHF	Population†	None	Low/ Medium	High	Diabetes‡	COPD§	CHF					
All races																			
66	15.4	18.5	15.7	9.9	14.7	12.2	7.4	18.4	22.5	18.4	12.0	16.1	15.4	8.0					
70	12.8	16.3	13.5	8.9	13.1	11.0	7.0	15.4	19.3	15.7	10.8	14.7	13.3	8.0					
75	9.9	12.7	11.0	7.4	10.3	8.9	5.8	12.0	15.3	12.4	8.5	11.4	10.8	7.1					
80	7.4	9.8	8.2	5.8	7.4	7.0	4.8	9.0	11.6	9.4	6.6	8.5	8.0	5.8					
85	5.5	7.2	5.8	4.2	5.5	5.1	3.7	6.6	8.7	7.0	5.1	6.2	6.2	4.7					
90	3.9	5.1	3.9	3.0	3.7	3.7	3.0	4.7	5.7	4.7	3.5	4.4	4.4	3.5					
White persons																			
66	15.5	18.6	16.1	9.9	14.8	12.2	7.9	18.5	22.6	18.5	12.0	16.2	14.7	8.5					
70	12.9	16.3	13.9	8.9	13.2	11.0	7.0	15.5	19.4	15.8	10.8	14.0	12.7	8.0					
75	9.9	12.8	10.7	7.4	10.3	8.9	5.8	12.0	15.3	12.4	8.5	11.4	10.2	7.0					
80	7.4	9.9	8.2	5.4	7.4	6.6	4.8	9.0	11.7	9.0	6.6	8.5	8.0	5.8					
85	5.4	7.2	5.8	4.2	5.4	4.8	3.6	6.6	8.2	6.6	5.0	6.2	6.2	4.7					
90	3.9	5.0	3.9	3.0	3.6	3.6	3.0	4.7	5.7	4.7	3.8	4.3	4.3	3.5					
Black persons																			
66	13.5	16.3	14.2	9.1	13.5	11.9	7.1	17.0	21.3	17.8	10.9	17.0	17.0	8.1					
70	11.4	14.7	12.4	7.9	11.4	9.5	6.4	14.4	18.7	15.3	9.9	14.7	13.8	8.1					
75	9.1	11.9	10.0	6.4	9.4	7.9	5.2	11.5	15.3	12.5	8.5	11.5	11.8	7.2					
80	7.1	9.8	8.0	5.2	7.7	6.8	4.5	9.0	12.1	10.0	6.9	9.3	9.0	6.1					
85	5.5	7.3	6.3	4.5	5.5	5.2	3.8	6.9	9.0	7.5	5.5	6.5	6.9	5.2					
90	4.2	5.7	4.7	3.6	4.5	3.1	3.4	5.2	6.7	5.7	4.1	5.2	5.2	4.1					

CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease.

with high comorbidity may experience a remaining life expectancy of 9 years, which is similar to that of 77-yearold men in the average U.S. population), whereas others with older chronological age but no comorbid conditions might continue to benefit from cancer screening as their life expectancy exceeds that of the average, age-matched U.S. population. In addition, cervical cancer screening is recommended until the chronological age of 65 years (32). Our findings suggest that women without comorbid conditions might continue to benefit from screening until age 70 years because their life expectancy is similar to that of average women aged 65 years or younger.

Our life tables can be used in simulation modeling to evaluate the effectiveness and cost-effectiveness of different stopping ages for cancer screening based on health status. For example, they have been used by the Cancer Intervention and Surveillance Modeling Network investigators in comparative modeling to quantify the balance of benefits and harms of screening older persons for breast, colorectal, and prostate cancer by comorbidity level (33). Results indicate that ages of screening cessation based on comorbidity level differ from those recommended for the entire population. Moreover, our approach to developing estimates of comorbidity-adjusted life expectancy can be applied to screening for other conditions or to treatment decisions for

patients in which benefits and risks vary by life expectancy. For example, the American Geriatrics Society has issued general guidance that older adults' life expectancy be considered in decisions about asymptomatic health screening (34), and the U.S. Preventive Services Task Force now recommends that life expectancy be taken into account when deciding whether to screen older women for osteoporosis (35). Ongoing evaluation of this tool for use in clinical practice will be important. In the context of cancer care, a related tool, the Cancer Survival Query System (36), has been developed for use by physicians to better understand patients' prognosis and is currently undergoing testing at a clinical center to assess health care providers' views of its content, usability, and implementation potential.

Our study has several limitations. The study population was a subset of a national random sample of Medicare beneficiaries with fee-for-service coverage who reside in SEER areas and who do not have cancer. This population is not necessarily representative of the entire U.S. elderly population. However, by including only Medicare beneficiaries in SEER areas, we definitively established the lack of a history of cancer from high-quality cancer registry data. Claims-based algorithms for identifying a history of cancer generally have poor performance (37). Because we used

<sup>\*</sup> Rounded to the nearest tenth. † From the 2000 U.S. decennial life table at the chronological age.

<sup>‡</sup> Includes diabetes only or diabetes with other conditions except COPD and CHF.

<sup>§</sup> Includes COPD only or COPD with other conditions except CHF.

<sup>|</sup> Includes CHF only or CHF with other conditions.

data from Medicare claims in elderly persons, life tables by comorbidity were estimated only for the population aged 66 years or older. Developing estimates of comorbidityadjusted life expectancy for younger populations will be an important extension of this method. Our measure of comorbidity was based on the Charlson index and includes 16 comorbid conditions that have been shown to predict survival, treatment choice, cost, and other outcomes, but may not capture all conditions that contribute to life expectancy in elderly patients. Further, administrative claims databases have been shown not to fully ascertain patients' comorbid conditions relative to medical records and patient reports (38). Our estimates do not incorporate differences in the severity within the comorbid conditions because this information is generally not available in Medicare data. The absence of information on functional status in the SEER and Medicare claims data is also a limitation because it might substantially contribute to an estimation of life expectancy, if available (39). Another limitation concerns the uncertainty of comorbidity measurement when information about the duration of comorbid illnesses is lacking. We conducted a sensitivity analysis that assumed that once identified, comorbid conditions are permanent and carry forward into subsequent years; it showed an increase in the prevalence of comorbid conditions (for example, 2-fold for COPD and CHF) but an attenuated influence on survival, resulting in slightly higher estimated life expectancies (for example, a maximum of 1.3 years in white persons). Additional work is needed to systematically investigate the effects of measurement error and varying approaches to longitudinal comorbidity assessment on life expectancy modeling. Finally, in the present study, we used comorbidity scores to group patients and estimated life tables stratified by comorbidity groups. One might consider using different groupings or the comorbidity score as a continuous measure (14) or categorical variable that assumes proportional hazards among groups. For more discussion, see the Supplement.

Despite these limitations, our study findings and method of calculating health-adjusted age and corresponding life expectancy may aid physicians and other health practitioners in individualizing recommendations for cancer screening in elderly persons (that is, to continue screening in persons with sufficient life expectancy who might benefit or to stop screening among those for whom benefits are unlikely). Even with additional information about life expectancy, discussions about continuing or stopping screening are complex and will need to be informed by patient preferences.

From the National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, Maryland; Information Services Management, Calverton, Maryland; and Erasmus Medical Center, Rotterdam, the Netherlands.

Disclaimer: The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health, the National Cancer Institute, or the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention.

Grant Support: This study received no external funding. Dr. Lansdorp-Vogelaar was supported by the National Cancer Institute at the National Institutes of Health and the Centers for Disease Control (grants U01-CA-152959 and U01 CA152926.

Potential Conflicts of Interest: None disclosed. Forms can be viewed at www.acponline.org/authors/icmje/ConflictOfInterestForms.do?msNum

Reproducible Research Statement: Study protocol: Detailed in the Methods section and Supplement (available at www.annals.org). Statistical code: Available on request. Data set: Restricted. SEER-Medicare data are available to investigators for research purposes through request (see http://appliedresearch.cancer.gov/seermedicare/obtain/).

Requests for Single Reprints: Hyunsoon Cho, PhD, Data Modeling Branch, Surveillance Research Program, Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, National Cancer Institute, 9609 Medical Center Drive, Bethesda, MD 20892; e-mail, hyunsoon.cho@nih.gov or hvunsoon.cho@gmail.com.

Current author addresses and author contributions are available at www.annals.org.

#### References

- 1. Walter LC, Covinsky KE. Cancer screening in elderly patients: a framework for individualized decision making. JAMA. 2001;285:2750-6. [PMID: 11386931
- 2. Howard DH. Life expectancy and the value of early detection. J Health Econ. 2005;24:891-906. [PMID: 16129128]
- 3. Wardle J, Pope R. The psychological costs of screening for cancer. J Psychosom Res. 1992;36:609-24. [PMID: 1403996]
- 4. Reuben DB. Medical care for the final years of life: "When you're 83, it's not going to be 20 years." JAMA. 2009;302:2686-94. [PMID: 20040557]
- 5. American College of Obstetricians-Gynecologists. Practice bulletin no. 122: Breast cancer screening. Obstet Gynecol. 2011;118:372-82. [PMID: 21775869] 6. Qaseem A, Denberg TD, Hopkins RH Jr, Humphrey LL, Levine J, Sweet DE, et al; Clinical Guidelines Committee of the American College of Physicians. Screening for colorectal cancer: a guidance statement from the American College of Physicians. Ann Intern Med. 2012;156:378-86. [PMID: 22393133]
- 7. Smith RA, Saslow D, Sawyer KA, Burke W, Costanza ME, Evans WP 3rd, et al; American Cancer Society High-Risk Work Group. American Cancer Society guidelines for breast cancer screening: update 2003. CA Cancer J Clin. 2003;53:141-69. [PMID: 12809408]
- 8. Lantz PM, Ubel PA. The use of life expectancy in cancer screening guidelines. Moving with caution from model-based evidence to evidence-based guidelines [Editorial]. J Gen Intern Med. 2005;20:552-3. [PMID: 15987335]
- 9. Mandelblatt JS, Schechter CB, Yabroff KR, Lawrence W, Dignam J, Extermann M, et al; Breast Cancer in Older Women Research Consortium. Toward optimal screening strategies for older women. Costs, benefits, and harms of breast cancer screening by age, biology, and health status. J Gen Intern Med. 2005;20: 487-96. [PMID: 15987322]
- 10. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for breast cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. Ann Intern Med. 2009; 151:716-26. [PMID: 19920272]
- 11. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for colorectal cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. Ann Intern Med. 2008;149:627-37. [PMID: 18838716]
- 12. Walter LC, Lewis CL, Barton MB. Screening for colorectal, breast, and cervical cancer in the elderly: a review of the evidence. Am J Med. 2005;118: 1078-86. [PMID: 16194635]
- 13. Gill TM. The central role of prognosis in clinical decision making [Editorial]. JAMA. 2012;307:199-200. [PMID: 22235093]

- 14. Mariotto AB, Wang Z, Klabunde CN, Cho H, Das B, Feuer EJ. Life tables adjusted for comorbidity more accurately estimate noncancer survival for recently diagnosed cancer patients. J Clin Epidemiol. 2013. [PMID: 24035494]
- 15. Cho H, Mariotto AB, Mann BS, Klabunde CN, Feuer EJ. Assessing noncancer-related health status of US cancer patients: other-cause survival and comorbidity prevalence. Am J Epidemiol. 2013;178:339-49. [PMID: 23825168] 16. Warren JL, Klabunde CN, Schrag D, Bach PB, Riley GF. Overview of the SEER-Medicare data: content, research applications, and generalizability to the United States elderly population. Med Care. 2002;40:IV-3-18. [PMID: 12187163]
- 17. U.S. Public Health Service. International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision. Washington, DC: US Gov Pr Office; 2003.
- 18. American Medical Association. CPT 2005: Current Procedural Terminology. Chicago: American Med Assoc; 2004.
- 19. Charlson ME, Pompei P, Ales KL, MacKenzie CR. A new method of classifying prognostic comorbidity in longitudinal studies: development and validation. J Chronic Dis. 1987;40:373-83. [PMID: 3558716]
- 20. Klabunde CN, Legler JM, Warren JL, Baldwin LM, Schrag D. A refined comorbidity measurement algorithm for claims-based studies of breast, prostate, colorectal, and lung cancer patients. Ann Epidemiol. 2007;17:584-90. [PMID: 17531502]
- 21. Klabunde CN, Potosky AL, Legler JM, Warren JL. Development of a comorbidity index using physician claims data. J Clin Epidemiol. 2000;53:1258-67. [PMID: 11146273]
- 22. Klabunde CN, Warren JL, Legler JM. Assessing comorbidity using claims data: an overview. Med Care. 2002;40:IV-26-35. [PMID: 12187165]
- 23. Korn EL, Graubard BI, Midthune D. Time-to-event analysis of longitudinal follow-up of a survey: choice of the time-scale. Am J Epidemiol. 1997;145:72-80. [PMID: 8982025]
- 24. Lamarca R, Alonso J, Gómez G, Muñoz A. Left-truncated data with age as time scale: an alternative for survival analysis in the elderly population. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci. 1998;53:M337-43. [PMID: 9754138]
- 25. Andersen PK, Gill RD. Cox's regression model for counting processes: a large sample study. Annals of Statistics. 1982;10:1100-20.
- 26. Therneau TM, Grambsch PM. Modeling Survival Data: Extending the Cox Model. New York: Springer; 2000.
- 27. Arias E, Curtin LR, Wei R, Anderson RN. U.S. decennial life tables for 1999-2001, United States life tables. Natl Vital Stat Rep. 2008;57:1-36. [PMID: 18972722]

- 28. Chow E, Davis L, Panzarella T, Hayter C, Szumacher E, Loblaw A, et al. Accuracy of survival prediction by palliative radiation oncologists. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2005;61:870-3. [PMID: 15708268]
- 29. Christakis NA, Lamont EB. Extent and determinants of error in doctors' prognoses in terminally ill patients: prospective cohort study. BMJ. 2000;320: 469-72. [PMID: 10678857]
- 30. Forster LE, Lynn J. Predicting life span for applicants to inpatient hospice. Arch Intern Med. 1988;148:2540-3. [PMID: 3196122]
- 31. Jeldres C, Latouff JB, Saad F. Predicting life expectancy in prostate cancer patients. Curr Opin Support Palliat Care. 2009;3:166-9. [PMID: 19553817]
- 32. Moyer VA; U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for cervical cancer: U.S. Preventive Services Task Force recommendation statement. Ann Intern Med. 2012;156:880-91. [PMID: 22711081]
- 33. Lansdorp-Vogelaar I, Gulati R, Mariotto AB, Schechter CB, de Carvalho Delgado Marques TM, Knudsen AB, et al. Personalizing age of screening cessation based on comorbidity level: results of collaborative modeling of breast, colorectal, and prostate cancer. Presented at the International Cancer Screening Network meeting, Sydney, Australia, 23-25 October 2012.
- 34. American Geriatrics Society Ethics Committee. Health screening decisions for older adults: AGS position paper. J Am Geriatr Soc. 2003;51:270-1. [PMID:
- 35. U.S. Preventive Services Task Force. Screening for osteoporosis: U.S. preventive services task force recommendation statement. Ann Intern Med. 2011; 154:356-64. [PMID: 21242341]
- 36. Feuer EJ, Lee M, Mariotto AB, Cronin KA, Scoppa S, Penson DF, et al. The Cancer Survival Query System: making survival estimates from the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results program more timely and relevant for recently diagnosed patients. Cancer. 2012;118:5652-62. [PMID:
- 37. McBean AM, Warren JL, Babish JD. Measuring the incidence of cancer in elderly Americans using Medicare claims data. Cancer. 1994;73:2417-25. [PMID: 8168045]
- 38. Klabunde CN, Harlan LC, Warren JL. Data sources for measuring comorbidity: a comparison of hospital records and medicare claims for cancer patients. Med Care. 2006;44:921-8. [PMID: 17001263]
- 39. Keeler E, Guralnik JM, Tian H, Wallace RB, Reuben DB. The impact of functional status on life expectancy in older persons. J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci. 2010;65:727-33. [PMID: 20363833]

# **Annals of Internal Medicine**

**Current Author Addresses:** Drs. Cho and Mariotto: Data Modeling Branch, Surveillance Research Program, Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, National Cancer Institute, 9609 Medical Center Drive, Bethesda, MD 20892.

Drs. Klabunde and Yabroff: Health Services and Economics Branch, Applied Research Program, Division of Cancer Control and Population Sciences, National Cancer Institute, 9609 Medical Center Drive, Bethesda, MD 20892.

Mr. Wang and Ms. Meekins: Information Management Services, 3901 Calverton Boulevard, Suite 200, Calverton, MD 20705.

Dr. Lansdorp-Vogelaar: Department of Public Health, Erasmus MC, University Medical Center Rotterdam, PO Box 2040, 3000 CA Rotterdam, the Netherlands.

**Author Contributions:** Conception and design: H. Cho, C.N. Klabunde, K.R. Yabroff, A.B. Mariotto.

Analysis and interpretation of the data: H. Cho, C.N. Klabunde, Z. Wang, I. Lansdorp-Vogelaar, A.B. Mariotto.

Drafting of the article: H. Cho, K.R. Yabroff, A.B. Mariotto.

Critical revision of the article for important intellectual content: H. Cho, C.N. Klabunde, K.R. Yabroff, I. Lansdorp-Vogelaar, A.B. Mariotto.

Final approval of the article: H. Cho, C.N. Klabunde, K.R. Yabroff, Z.

Wang, I. Lansdorp-Vogelaar, A.B. Mariotto.

Statistical expertise: H. Cho, Z. Wang, A.B. Mariotto.

Administrative, technical, or logistic support: H. Cho.

Collection and assembly of data: H. Cho, A. Meekins.

www.annals.org 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10

# Appendix Table 1. ICD-9-CM and CPT Codes That Correspond in Each Comorbid Condition

Condition	Diagnosis ICD-9-CM Code	Surgical ICD-9-CM Code	HCPCS CPT Code
Acute myocardial infarction	410.xx	_	-
History of myocardial infarction	412	_	_
CHF	428.xx	-	<b>-</b>
Peripheral vascular disease: includes intermittent claudication, aortic aneurysm, gangrene, prosthetic blood vessels, and resection and replacement of lower limb arteries	441.xx, 443.9, 785.4, and v43.4	38.13, 38.14, 38.16, 38.18, 38.43, 38.44, 38.46, 38.48, 38.33, 38.34, 38.36, 38.38, 39.22–39.26, 39.28, and 39.29	35011, 35013, 35045, 35081, 35082, 35091, 35092, 35102, 35103, 35111, 35112, 35616, 35621, 35623, 35626, 35631, 35636, 35641, 35122, 35131, 35132, 35141, 35142, 35151, 35152, 35153, 35311, 35321, 35331, 35341, 35351, 35506, 35507, 35511, 35516, 35518, 35521, 35526, 35531, 35533, 35536, 35541, 35548, 35549, 35551, 35556, 35558, 35560, 35563, 35565, 35566, 35571, 35582, 35583, 35585, 35560, 35621, 35623, 35631, 35636, 35641, 35646, 35650, 35651, 35636, 35641, 35646, 35665, 35666, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 35666, 356671, 356665, 356665, 356666, 356671, 356956, 356651, 356666, 356671, 356995, and 35355–35381
Cerebrovascular disease	430–437.x and 438	38.12 and 38.42	35301, 35001, 35002, 35005, 35501, 35508, 35509, 35515, 35642, 35645, 35691, and 35693
COPD: includes COPD, pneumoconiosis, and chronic respiratory conditions due to fumes and vapors	490.xx-496, 500-505, and 506.4	-	-
Dementia: includes senile and presenile dementia	290.xx	-	-
Paralysis (hemiplegia or paraplegia)	342.xx and 344.1	_	-
Diabetes: includes diabetes with or without acute metabolic disturbances and diabetes with peripheral circulatory disorders	250, 250.0x–250.3x, and 250.7x	-	-
Diabetes with sequelae: includes diabetes with renal, opthalmic, or neurologic manifestations	250.4x–250.6x and 250.8x–250.9x	-	-
Chronic renal failure: includes chronic glomerulonephritis; nephritis and nephropathy; chronic renal failure; renal failure, unspecified; and disorders resulting from impaired renal function	582.xx, 583.xx, 585.x, 586, and 588.xx	-	-
Cirrhosis and chronic hepatitis: includes hepatic coma, portal hypertension, other sequelae of chronic liver disease, and esophageal varices	571.2 and 571.4x–571.6	-	-
Moderate/severe liver disease	456.0-456.21 and 572.2-572.8	39.1 and 42.91	37140, 37145, 37160, 37180, 37181, 75885, 75887, 43204, and 43205
Peptic ulcer disease: includes gastric, duodenal, and gastrojejunal ulcers and chronic forms of peptic ulcer disease	531.xx–534.xx	-	-
Rheumatologic disease: includes systemic lupus erythematosus, systemic sclerosis, polymyositis, adult rheumatoid arthritis, rheumatoid lung, and polymyalgic rheumatica	710.0, 710.1, 710.4, 714.0–714.2, 714.81, and 725	-	-
AIDS: includes AIDS, AIDS-like syndrome, AIDS-related complex, and symptomatic HIV infection	042.x-044.x	-	-

CHF = congestive heart failure; COPD = chronic obstructive pulmonary disease; CPT = Current Procedural Terminology; HCPCS = Healthcare Common Procedure Coding System; ICD-9-CM = International Classification of Diseases, Ninth Revision, Clinical Modification.

19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10 www.annals.org

# Appendix Table 2. Estimated Cumulative Survival Probabilities, by Comorbidity Groups

Age				Μ	len			Women												
		ge U.S. lation*			Como	rbidity†				ge U.S. ation*	Comorbidity†									
	.,		None		Low/ Medium		High				No	one		ow/ dium	High					
	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y	5 y	10 y				
All races																				
66 y	0.88	0.72	0.95	0.84	0.91	0.72	0.73	0.49	0.92	0.81	0.98	0.92	0.94	0.78	0.81	0.60				
70 y	0.83	0.62	0.93	0.78	0.88	0.64	0.70	0.42	0.89	0.73	0.97	0.87	0.91	0.71	0.77	0.52				
75 y	0.74	0.46	0.88	0.65	0.81	0.50	0.61	0.30	0.82	0.59	0.93	0.76	0.86	0.57	0.70	0.38				
80 y	0.62	0.29	0.79	0.44	0.69	0.30	0.50	0.15	0.72	0.41	0.86	0.56	0.76	0.38	0.57	0.24				
85 y	0.47	0.15	0.64	0.23	0.53	0.13	0.33	0.07	0.57	0.23	0.73	0.33	0.61	0.21	0.42	0.11				
90 y	0.31	0.05	0.45	0.10	0.33	0.04	0.20	0.02	0.40	0.09	0.54	0.13	0.43	0.09	0.28	0.04				
White persons																				
66 v	0.88	0.72	0.95	0.85	0.91	0.73	0.74	0.50	0.92	0.81	0.98	0.92	0.94	0.79	0.82	0.61				
70 y	0.83	0.62	0.93	0.79	0.88	0.65	0.71	0.42	0.89	0.73	0.97	0.88	0.91	0.71	0.78	0.53				
75 y	0.74	0.46	0.88	0.65	0.82	0.51	0.62	0.31	0.82	0.59	0.93	0.76	0.85	0.56	0.70	0.38				
80 y	0.62	0.29	0.79	0.44	0.69	0.30	0.49	0.15	0.72	0.41	0.86	0.56	0.75	0.38	0.57	0.24				
85 y	0.47	0.14	0.64	0.23	0.53	0.13	0.32	0.06	0.57	0.23	0.73	0.33	0.60	0.20	0.42	0.11				
90 y	0.30	0.05	0.44	0.10	0.33	0.04	0.19	0.01	0.40	0.09	0.54	0.13	0.42	0.08	0.27	0.04				
Black persons																				
66 y	0.82	0.62	0.91	0.74	0.87	0.62	0.66	0.39	0.89	0.74	0.96	0.87	0.92	0.74	0.76	0.52				
70 y	0.77	0.53	0.89	0.68	0.83	0.53	0.64	0.33	0.85	0.67	0.95	0.82	0.91	0.69	0.72	0.44				
75 y	0.68	0.40	0.84	0.55	0.76	0.40	0.54	0.22	0.78	0.54	0.92	0.71	0.84	0.54	0.68	0.36				
80 y	0.58	0.27	0.77	0.41	0.66	0.26	0.48	0.14	0.69	0.39	0.86	0.56	0.77	0.42	0.58	0.25				
85 y	0.46	0.16	0.64	0.23	0.56	0.15	0.38	0.10	0.57	0.25	0.74	0.34	0.63	0.22	0.46	0.14				
90 y	0.34	0.07	0.50	0.14	0.33	0.04	0.25	0.03	0.44	0.13	0.61	0.19	0.53	0.16	0.32	0.06				

<sup>\*</sup> Estimated from 2000 U.S. life tables.

www.annals.org 19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10

<sup>†</sup> Estimated by the Cox proportional hazards model for white and black persons (Kaplan–Meier estimates for all races combined).

Appendix Table 3. Health-Adjusted Age (Years), by Comorbidity Groups

		High	92	77	77	78	78	79	79	80	81	81	82	83	83	84	85	98	87	88	88	68	90	91	92	93	94
	Black Persons	Low/Medium				99																					
		None	53	54	55	57	28	59	61	62	63	65	99	89	69	70	72	73	75	9/	78	79	80	82	83	84	85
		High	75	75	92	77	77	78	79	79	80	81	82	82	83	84	85	98	87	87	88	89	06	91	92	93	93
Women	White Persons	Low/Medium	99	29	89	69	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	92	77	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	98	87	88	68	06
		None	53	55	99	58	59	61	63	64	99	29	69	70	72	73	74	92	77	78	79	81	82	83	84	85	87
		High	75	75	92	77	77	78	79	79	80	81	82	82	83	84	85	98	87	87	88	68	90	91	92	93	94
	All Races	Low/Medium				89																					
		None				57 (																					
		High				78 5																					
	ersons		7		7		1	1	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	ω	Oi	Oi	Oi	Oi	O1
	Black Persons	Low/Medium	64	9	99	29	29	89	69	20	71	72	73	74	75	9/	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	85	98	87	88
		None	58	29	69	09	61	62	63	9	99	29	89	69	20	71	72	73	75	9/	77	79	80	81	82	83	84
		High	75	75	92	92	77	77	78	79	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	98	87	87	88	68	90	91	92	93	94
Men	White Persons	Low/Medium	64	65	99	29	29	89	69	70	71	73	74	75	92	77	78	79	81	82	83	84	85	98	87	88	06
		None	57	58	59	09	61	62	64	65	99	89	69	70	71	73	74	75	77	78	79	80	82	83	84	85	98
		High				9/																					
	All Races	Low/Medium				29																					
		None				09																					
Age*			99	29	89	69	20	71	72	73	74	75	9/	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	98	87	88	68	06

\* Chronological age.

19 November 2013 Annals of Internal Medicine Volume 159 • Number 10