

REPORT 6 OF THE REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE (I-05)
Policy Options for Addressing Medicaid Long-Term Care
(Reference Committee J)
(November 2005)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The Medicaid program faces a number of challenges to the provision of long-term care, such as, the aging “baby boom” generation, the growth in health care costs, and the impact of reduced federal and state revenues. In April 2005, Congress directed the House Energy and Commerce and Senate Finance committees to find \$10 billion in savings over fiscal years 2006-2011, the bulk of which may come from the Medicaid program. Due to the fact that long-term care accounts for over a third of Medicaid spending, the program has become a target for cost containment actions.

Over the years, the Council on Medical Service and the Board of Trustees have developed numerous reports on the uninsured and on various aspects of the Medicaid program. As an initial effort to explore Medicaid long-term care policy, Council on Medical Service Report 6 (I-05) reviews the current status of the Medicaid program, including the ongoing challenges facing the program; describes the program and financing of long-term care; summarizes federal and state Medicaid legislative developments; and highlights some selected strategies for improving the delivery and financing of long-term care.

In its review of the literature, the Council identified a series of proposed short- and long-term options for providing and financing long-term care that may lessen impact of current demographic and financial trends. Many of the options are based on the premise that individuals should be encouraged to privately finance their long-term care needs to the extent that personal income permits. These options include offering tax subsidies to purchase long-term care insurance products (LTCI); encouraging public and private partnerships to offer subsidized LTCI products; legislating more stringent eligibility criteria for homeowners; providing tax subsidies for caregivers; and increasing consumer-directed care programs.

The Council reaffirms that existing AMA policy should advocate for tax incentives for the purchase of LTCI. The Council realizes that for the middle to low-income individuals tax credits may not be enough to motivate purchase of LTCI. Therefore, the Council recommends encouraging further public/private partnerships that would offer alternative LTCI products. The Council also recommends encouraging states to continue to support the provision of medically appropriate treatment through programs similar to the Cash and Counseling program, and providing tax credits for caregivers to shift the burden from the Medicaid program and encourage those who are providing unpaid care to continue to provide care in the home.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE

CMS Report 6 - I-05
(November 2005)

Subject: Policy Options for Addressing Medicaid Long-Term Care

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Referred to: Reference Committee J
(Iffath A. Hoskins, MD, Chair)

1 The Medicaid program was originally created to provide health benefits to people receiving public
2 welfare assistance. Over the past two decades, however, the program has become the nation's
3 primary payer for long-term care services. Today, the Medicaid program faces a number of
4 challenges including: increases in enrollment, increases in health care costs, reduced federal and
5 state funding, demographic pressures, and the impact of the new Medicare prescription drug
6 benefit. In addition, due to the fact that long-term care accounts for more than a third of Medicaid
7 spending, the program has become a target for cost containment actions.

8
9 In April 2005, Congress directed the House Energy and Commerce and Senate Finance committees
10 to find \$10 billion in entitlement program savings over fiscal years 2006-2011, the bulk of which
11 most likely come from the Medicaid program. To provide advice in stabilizing and strengthening
12 the Medicaid program, the Secretary of the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS)
13 appointed a Medicaid Advisory Commission in July 2005, to offer short-term and long-term
14 recommendations regarding the future of the program. American Medical Association (AMA)
15 Immediate Past President John C. Nelson, MD, was appointed as a non-voting member of the
16 Commission. Concurrently, the National Governors Association produced an initial set of
17 Medicaid reform recommendations in June 2005.

18
19 Over the years, the Council on Medical Service and the Board of Trustees have developed
20 numerous reports on the uninsured and on various aspects of the Medicaid program. Council on
21 Medical Service Report 1 (I-03) established a long-term strategy for financing the provision of
22 medical care to patients with low incomes, including individuals currently receiving acute care
23 under the Medicaid program (Policy H-165.855, AMA Policy Database). The Council also
24 indicated that later reports would address the difficult issues related to providing long-term care
25 under the Medicaid program.

26
27 This report reviews the current status of the Medicaid program, including the challenges facing the
28 program; describes the program and financing of long-term care; summarizes federal and state
29 Medicaid legislative developments; and highlights some selected strategies for improving the
30 delivery and financing of long-term care.

1 HISTORY OF THE MEDICAID PROGRAM

2
3 As previously discussed in Council on Medical Service Reports 8 (A-03), 1 (I-03), and 1 (A-05),
4 the Medicaid program was enacted as Title 19 of the Social Security Act (SSA) in 1965, as an
5 afterthought to the enactment of the Medicare program. Medicaid's establishment as a joint federal
6 and state venture, unlike Medicare's federal design, preserved state control over programs for the
7 poor. In 1997, the State Children's Health Insurance Program (SCHIP) program was created to
8 extend coverage to children in families with incomes too high for Medicaid eligibility, but too low
9 to purchase their own coverage.

10
11 More than 52 million individuals receive services provided under Medicaid. Of the 52 million
12 enrollees, 25 million are children, 13 million are low-income, uninsured adults (including pregnant
13 women and some of the parents of covered children), and 15 million are seniors and persons with
14 disabilities. The 15 million seniors and other individuals with disabilities (less than 30% of the
15 total Medicaid recipients) account for more than 70% of Medicaid spending (Congressional Budget
16 Office, March 2004 Baseline).

17
18 The federal, state, and in some cases county governments, finance Medicaid jointly, with the
19 federal government matching state Medicaid spending for specific categories of individuals and
20 benefits, based on a formula that compares each state's per capita income to the national average.
21 The federal share of Medicaid spending varies by state, known as the Federal Medical Assistance
22 Percentage (FMAP), and ranges from 50% to 83%, with an average of 57% of funding coming
23 from the federal government. The formula used to calculate the FMAP seeks to narrow the gap
24 between relatively wealthy and relatively poor states (measured as per capita income) by providing
25 higher rates to poorer states. In order to receive federal matching funds, states are required to
26 provide a set of mandatory benefits to a mandatory group of beneficiaries. Mandatory populations
27 include children through age 5 at or below 133% of the federal poverty level (FPL); children aged
28 6-19 in families with incomes at or below 100% of FPL; certain adults in families with eligible
29 children; pregnant women with incomes at or below 133% of FPL; disabled and elderly social
30 security income (SSI) beneficiaries; working disabled whose assets are below a certain level (e.g.
31 "medically needy" or those who "spend down" to state-set eligibility standards); and Medicare
32 beneficiaries who are also eligible for Medicaid (i.e. dual eligibles).

33
34 Medicaid benefits vary widely from state to state. Within states, benefits also vary depending on
35 age and other eligibility categories. The Medicaid statute requires participating states to provide
36 certain mandatory benefits in order to receive federal matching funds. The statute also permits
37 states to receive matching funds for statutorily defined optional benefits. Roughly two-thirds of all
38 Medicaid spending is for optional benefits. Optional benefits include prescription drugs;
39 intermediate care facilities for individuals with mental retardation (ICFs/MR); personal care
40 services authorized by a physician; case management services; prosthetics; rehabilitative services;
41 physical therapy; clinic services; and diagnostic, screening, and preventive services. More than
42 half (56%) of the elderly who qualify for Medicaid, and thus long-term care, qualify through
43 optional eligibility groups (Kaiser Commission on Medicaid and the Uninsured, March 2005).

44
45 States have wide discretion to determine which benefits to offer Medicaid beneficiaries, and they
46 can institute "nominal" cost-sharing for beneficiaries other than children, pregnant women, any
47 terminally ill patients receiving hospice care, and the medically needy who had to "spend down" to
48 qualify for Medicaid.

1 KEY TRENDS IMPACTING MEDICAID

2
3 Enrollment and Demographic Changes

4
5 For the first time, total Medicaid spending in 2003 surpassed spending for primary and secondary
6 education as the largest single state budget item, on average accounting for 22% of state budgets.
7 The National Governors Association (NGA) and National Association of State Budget Officers
8 Survey report that enrollment increases have played a major role in the increase in Medicaid
9 spending. They indicate that the elderly and the disabled are the groups contributing the most to
10 the increased costs from enrollment changes (The Fiscal Survey of States, June 2005). It should be
11 noted, however, that they also found that the recent increase in expenditures is primarily
12 attributable to the increased cost of providing acute care services, including prescription drugs and
13 hospital inpatient services, not long-term care.

14
15 Nevertheless, future demographic trends are likely to alter the current cost drivers of the Medicaid
16 program. The Government Accountability Office recently reported that the number of elderly 85
17 years and older – the age group most likely to need long-term care services – is projected to
18 increase more than 250% from 4.3 million in 2000, to 15.4 million in 2040. Further, the total
19 number of disabled elderly is estimated to increase to as high as 12.1 million by 2040 (Government
20 Accountability Office, April 2005). With the aging of the baby boom generation, increasing life
21 expectancy, and the rising costs of nursing home and home health care, there will likely be an
22 increase in demand for long-term care that threatens to overwhelm Medicare and Medicaid, and
23 may leave millions of Americans unprepared for both the heavy financial and non-financial
24 burdens of providing long-term care for themselves or family members.

25
26 Growing Health Care Costs and Reduced State Revenues

27
28 In the aggregate, the cost of meeting acute and long-term care needs of the poor, elderly, and
29 disabled under Medicaid is growing faster than current state tax revenues. A study by the Kaiser
30 Commission on Medicaid and the Uninsured (KCMU) indicated that in Fiscal Year (FY) 2004
31 overall Medicaid spending increased on average by 9.5%, while tax revenue increased 3.4%. In
32 response to pressure to control Medicaid costs, every state in the nation, including the District of
33 Columbia, implemented at least one new Medicaid cost containment strategy in 2004. In FY 2005
34 more states planned to implement cost containment strategies directed at the elderly and disabled
35 through disease management programs and long-term care initiatives (Kaiser Commission, March
36 2005).

37
38 The KCMU study also reported that between FY 2002 and FY 2005:

- 39
40 • All 50 states froze or reduced health care provider payment rates and implemented prescription
41 drug cost controls;
42
43 • 38 states imposed eligibility restrictions;
44
45 • 34 states reduced benefits; and
46
47 • 20 states imposed new or higher beneficiary co-payments.

1 FINANCING LONG-TERM CARE

2
3 Long-term care is the assistance, whether medical, personal, or both, that people require when they
4 are unable to manage common activities of daily living due to frailty, chronic illness, or mental
5 incapacity. Many Americans are unaware that nearly one of every two individuals age 65 or older
6 is likely to spend at least some time in a nursing home, and the cost of one year of this care could
7 entirely deplete personal savings. Medicaid has become the primary payer of long-term care
8 services. In FY 2003, federal and state Medicaid spending totaled \$275.5 billion. Total spending
9 on long-term care services was over \$97 billion (36% of total Medicaid spending).

10
11 The likelihood that a person over the age of 85 will require long-term care is about 55%
12 (Congressional Budget Office, Financing Long-Term Care for the Elderly, April 2004). The 2004
13 average daily rate for a private room in a nursing home is \$192 or \$70,080 annually (MetLife
14 Mature Market Institute, 2005). According to a recent Kaiser Family Foundation (KFF) poll, 30%
15 of respondents indicate that insurance would be the main source of funds if they or a family
16 member needed nursing home care. Few reported that personal savings (16%) or government
17 programs such as Medicare or Medicaid (13%) would be the main source of financing such care
18 (Kaiser Health Poll Report, May/June 2005). Yet, Medicaid accounted for 46% of national nursing
19 home care spending in 2003.

20
21 Private long-term care insurance (LTCI), which was thoroughly addressed in Council on Medical
22 Service Report 5 (I-04), is a small, but growing source of coverage for nursing and home-based
23 care costs. In 1989, LTCI was offered to 3% of full-time employees in private industry with 100 or
24 more employees; by 2003, 19% of full-time workers in private industry were offered this benefit
25 (Department of Labor, 2004). Despite the increased availability, fewer than 10% of Americans age
26 65 and older have purchased LTCI, and pre-retiree penetration rates are even lower (Office of
27 Personnel Management, 2004).

28
29 Nonetheless, LTCI is proving to relieve some of the pressure on public programs. In 1995, private
30 insurance paid \$700 million or 0.8% of long-term care services for seniors. It is estimated that in
31 2004, LTCI covered \$6 billion or 4% of long-term care services (Congressional Budget Office,
32 2004).

33
34 For the individual, the primary benefit of LTCI is that it minimizes the use of personal savings to
35 pay for long-term care needs. LTCI provides protection of retirement savings, reduces financial
36 hardships for spouses and other family members, and promotes greater financial independence.
37 From a societal perspective, the primary appeal of private LTCI coverage is that it may fund a
38 substantial portion of the long-term care needs for many Americans. Furthermore, widespread
39 LTCI coverage has the potential to shift a substantial share of the funding responsibility from the
40 Medicaid program to individuals.

41
42 POLICY OPTIONS FOR PROVIDING LONG-TERM CARE

43
44 In its review of the literature, the Council identified a series of proposed short- and long-term
45 options for providing and financing long-term care. Many of the options are based on the premise
46 that individuals should be encouraged to privately finance their long-term care needs to the extent
47 that personal income permits. These options include offering tax subsidies to purchase LTCI
48 products; encouraging public and private partnerships to offer subsidized LTCI products;
49 legislating more stringent eligibility criteria for homeowners; providing tax subsidies for care-
50 givers; and increasing consumer-directed care programs. The options presented in this report are
51 by no means comprehensive, especially given that the Medicaid Advisory Commission and the
52 NGA will be continuing to develop and refine Medicaid reform proposals. Rather, it is the intent

1 of the Council that this report serve as a beginning of a more comprehensive effort to explore
2 Medicaid long-term care policy.

3
4 Tax Subsidies for LTCI Premiums

5
6 A large portion of Medicaid beneficiaries, especially those receiving long-term care benefits, are
7 not on welfare (e.g. Temporary Assistance for Needy Families or Supplemental Security
8 Insurance), but are individuals who have high medical bills. These individuals can be described
9 under the Medicaid category of “medically needy,” but may have the means to pay for at least a
10 portion of their long-term care. According to the Center for Long-Term Care Financing, nearly
11 one-third of Medicaid long-term care costs — \$20 billion annually — is for seniors who could
12 have purchased their own insurance to pay for their care (National Center for Policy Analysis,
13 July 12, 2005).

14
15 The cost of LTCI is a considerable barrier for many middle- and low-income individuals. It was
16 recently reported that “only 10% of people over 65 own policies, with many holdouts saying that
17 they are intimidated by high costs and the bewildering array of benefit levels, deductible periods
18 and other features” (The New York Times, July 24, 2005). Further, a recent KFF study found that
19 nearly one third (32%) of people without LTCI indicate that it is not something they have ever
20 thought about (Kaiser Health Poll Report, May/June 2005).

21
22 Some federal tax deductions are currently available for those who have purchased LTCI. To
23 qualify for a federal tax deduction, an individual must possess a LTCI contract that provides
24 coverage for qualified long-term care services; is guaranteed renewable; provides that refunds
25 (except refunds due to death or complete cancellation of the policy) and dividends are used only to
26 reduce premiums or increase benefits; does not provide for a cash surrender value or money that
27 can be borrowed; and does not pay items already reimbursed under Medicare. State tax incentives
28 are also offered in 23 states (National Governors Association, Center for Best Practices, June
29 2004).

30
31 Tax incentives provide two critical incentives to encourage the purchase of LTCI. The American
32 Academy of Actuaries contends that the tax savings that long-term care subsidies achieve increase
33 the affordability of the product. Equally important, the existence of a tax subsidy provides another
34 opportunity for the federal government to publicize and educate the public about their option to
35 pre-fund their own long-term care (American Academy of Actuaries, 2001).

36
37 In general, supporters of federal tax subsidies argue that promoting the purchase of LTCI earlier in
38 life will both protect consumers against financial losses and ultimately save the federal government
39 money by reducing Medicaid outlays. Opponents argue that the current structure for tax
40 deductions provides little or no assistance to most low- and middle-income families, while
41 disproportionately assisting high-income individuals who already would have been inclined to buy
42 LTCI.

1 Public-Private Partnerships for LTCI

2
3 The Partnership for Long Term Care provides an alternative to “spending down” or transferring
4 assets to meet Medicaid eligibility by forming a partnership between Medicaid and private long
5 term care insurers. Currently, four states (California, Connecticut, Indiana, and New York) operate
6 a public-private effort with the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation to sell affordable long-term care
7 policies. Consumers in these states are able to purchase private insurance policies to cover the first
8 one to three years of long-term care benefits and still have a level of asset protection. When their
9 private coverage expires, individuals can apply for Medicaid coverage, but they do not have to
10 spend down all of their assets. For instance, if an individual buys a policy that covers \$100,000 of
11 expenses, he or she can protect an extra \$100,000 in assets and still be eligible for Medicaid.
12

13 By design, the Partnership policies are Medicaid budget-neutral. While states must forgive part of
14 the insured’s potential spend-down, the insurance companies absorb costs for long-term care that
15 would have been the responsibility of the Medicaid program. The effectiveness of the Partnership
16 is illustrated by the extremely small percentage of policy-holders accessing Medicaid because they
17 have exhausted their long-term care through these plans (National Program Office, University of
18 Maryland, 2004).
19

20 The Partnership for Long-Term Care is a model that is considered ripe for expansion by state
21 legislatures. Federal law currently prohibits the expansion of the Long-Term Care Partnerships
22 beyond the four states currently in the program. However, the Bush Administration has proposed
23 eliminating the expansion ban, and according to the NGA, 17 states have passed legislation to
24 enable them to begin similar programs in case federal law is repealed.
25

26 Reverse Mortgages and Delayed Medicaid Eligibility

27
28 A home is the principal financial asset for many older Americans. The National Council on Aging
29 estimates that about half of the nation’s households 62 and older could access an average of
30 \$72,128 from reverse mortgages. In total, the National Council on Aging estimates that \$953
31 billion could be available from reverse mortgages for immediate long-term needs and to promote
32 aging at home (National Council on Aging, “Use your Home to Stay at Home,” April 2004).
33

34 A reverse mortgage, or home-equity conversion, pays the homeowner a fixed sum each month.
35 The amount of money disbursed each month is dependent on the homeowner’s age at the time the
36 loan is applied for, the equity of the home, the type of loan, and current interest rates. Eligibility is
37 based on the age of the borrower (usually 60 or older) and the type of residence (i.e., single-family
38 homes, including condominiums, but not co-operatives). A feature called “life tenure” can be
39 added so that the equity conversion does not exceed the value of the home when it is sold.
40

41 The Center for Long-Term Care Financing has suggested that by replacing the home equity
42 exemption with a requirement that people first use the equity in their homes prior to applying for
43 Medicaid, the federal government could potentially save the Medicaid program billions of dollars
44 per year. Currently, there is little incentive for individuals to use reverse mortgages because
45 regardless of the value, a home is an excluded resource for determining Medicaid eligibility. Not
46 only would a requirement for people to use the equity in their homes prior to accessing the
47 Medicaid program potentially save money, it also would potentially provide a disincentive for
48 individuals to transfer assets and “spend down” to meet Medicaid eligibility criteria.

49 An alternative to privately financed reverse mortgages is the Home Equity Conversion Mortgage
50 Program (HECM), which provides federally insured reverse mortgages backed by the Federal
51 Housing Administration (FHA). The FHA insures HECM loans to protect lenders against loss if
52 amounts withdrawn exceed equity when the property is sold. One disadvantage of a federal

1 government loan is that although it may offer more protection, it does not have the flexibility of
2 providing larger loan amounts.

3
4 There are potential disadvantages for accessing home equity, especially for elderly women. In
5 general, women live longer than men. When a woman has used the equity in the family home to
6 finance long-term care services for a spouse, she may not only need to access Medicaid, but she
7 could possibly lose the family home.

8 9 Tax Credits for Caregivers

10
11 It is difficult to quantify the amount of assistance that the elderly with long-term care needs receive
12 from family and friends. In terms of financial cost, it has been estimated that caregivers typically
13 spend \$12,500 annually on expenses related to their care-giving responsibilities (NGA, 20 Actions
14 Governors Can Take, 2004). These expenses are usually uncompensated. A tax credit for
15 caregivers is one way to shift the burden from the Medicaid program and encourage those who are
16 providing unpaid care to continue to provide care in the home.

17
18 Although some states offer a deduction for expenses, usually up to \$2,400, most offer a credit
19 instead. According to the NGA, at least 28 states and the District of Columbia have refundable or
20 nonrefundable dependent care tax credits. Tax credits generally benefit low-income taxpayers and
21 are often viewed as the most equitable way of providing caregiver tax incentives. State caregiver
22 tax credits generally range from \$500 to \$1,500.

23 24 Consumer-Directed Care Waivers

25
26 Traditionally, disability-related support services at home have been restricted to human assistance
27 with personal care and homemaking provided by licensed agencies. Waiver programs have offered
28 additional limited services; however, a case manager typically is responsible for deciding if these
29 services are needed. In recent years, states increasingly are offering beneficiaries and their families
30 the opportunity to obtain “consumer-directed care” services from individual providers.

31
32 The “Cash and Counseling” project is an expanded model of consumer-directed support services.
33 It provides a flexible monthly allowance for consumers to hire their choice of workers, including
34 family members, and to purchase long-term care goods and services. Cash and Counseling
35 requires that consumers develop spending plans that show how they would use the allowance to
36 meet their needs for disability-related services. These spending plans are based on the consumer’s
37 personal care plan or previous claims history for personal care and homemaking provided by
38 licensed agencies. Consumers who are unable to manage their allowance or hiring responsibilities
39 may designate a representative, such as a family member, to assist them.

40
41 From 1998 to 2000, The Robert Wood Johnson Foundation and HHS began to implement the Cash
42 and Counseling Demonstration and Evaluation Project in the states of Arkansas, New Jersey, and
43 Florida. According to a research study by Mathematica Policy Research, “the state of Arkansas
44 demonstrated that states can design a cash and counseling program that meets recipients’ needs
45 better at no greater cost per month of service than historically incurred under the traditional agency
46 approach” (Stacey Dale, et al, Health Affairs, November 2003).

47
48 In 2002, the Bush Administration announced a new Medicaid waiver initiative called Independence
49 Plus. Independence Plus is a method of funding that allows available funds to move with the
50 individual to the most appropriate and preferred setting as needs and preferences of the individual
51 change. The intent of the program is to give states the flexibility to offer people with disabilities
52 and the elderly greater control and choice in identifying, accessing, and managing certain long-term

1 care services and supports. As an alternative to long-term care services managed by the Medicaid
2 program, participants receive an individual budget that is tied to a plan of care that is tailored to the
3 needs of the Medicaid beneficiary. At the time that this report was written, Independence Plus
4 waivers had been approved for the states of Florida, Louisiana, New Hampshire, and South
5 Carolina.

6
7 FEDERAL AND STATE MEDICAID LEGISLATIVE DEVELOPMENTS
8

9 In September 2005, the Medicaid Advisory Commission submitted its first report to the Secretary
10 of HHS. Among its key recommendations were the following:

- 11
- 12 • Reform the Medicaid prescription drug reimbursement formula to more accurately reflect the
13 actual price for drugs;
 - 14
 - 15 • Extend the Medicaid drug rebate program to Medicaid managed care;
 - 16
 - 17 • Provide states with the flexibility to define co-payment requirements for prescription drugs;
 - 18
 - 19 • Change the start date of the penalty period for persons transferring assets for Medicaid
20 eligibility; and
 - 21
 - 22 • Extend the asset transfer look back period from three to five years.
 - 23

24 Specific to long-term care, the Bush Administration's FY 2006 budget also included a proposal to
25 reform existing rules regarding asset transfer. Other Administration proposals affecting the elderly
26 population receiving long-term care included a federally financed 5-year demonstration project to
27 allow individuals to move from institutional care to at-home care, and a proposal to allow states to
28 presume that individuals who are discharged from hospitals are eligible for community care, as
29 well as nursing home care. In addition, the Administration proposed to eliminate the ban on new
30 partnership programs to allow any state in the nation the option of implementing a LTCI
31 partnership program.

32

33 Federal legislation introduced during 2005 has emphasized rebalancing the long-term care
34 framework by shifting nursing home care to home and community based care. For example, a key
35 provision of the Ronald Reagan Breakthrough Act of 2005 (H.R. 1262), introduced by Reps.
36 Edward Markey (D-MA), Chris Smith (R-NJ), and Michael Burgess (R-TX), and its Senate
37 companion bill (S.602) introduced by Sen. Barbara Mikulski (D-MD), would increase the amount
38 of assistance under a demonstration project to provide tax-credits of up to \$3,000 for family
39 members caring for Alzheimer's patients. Similarly, a key provision of the Long-Term Care
40 Retirement and Security Act of 2005 (H.R. 1244), introduced by Rep. Nancy Johnson (R-CT),
41 would provide eligible caregivers tax credits for providing care to family members with long-term
42 care needs. A provision of the Long-Term Care Financing Act (S. 1602), introduced by Sens.
43 Charles Grassley (R-IA) and Hillary Clinton (D-NY), would provide an above-the-line tax credit
44 for LTCI premiums, which would be phased in over the next 4 years, for up to \$3000.

45

46 Governors and state lawmakers also have proactively worked to develop proposals and
47 recommendations to address Medicaid. In a draft Medicaid reform proposal developed in June
48 2005, the National Governors Association included several policy options for addressing Medicaid
49 long-term care, including:

- 50
- 51 • Federal tax incentives for LTCI, such as targeted tax credits to low-income individuals and
52 deductions for higher-income individuals in higher tax brackets for purchasing LTCI.

- 1 • A requirement that all employers who provide 401(k) and other pensions provide an option to
2 convert a portion of an annuity into LTCI.
3
- 4 • Encouraging long-term care partnerships between Medicaid and the LTCI industry. As
5 previously stated, four states (California, Connecticut, Indiana, and New York) currently allow
6 individuals who have purchased and exhausted benefits under their LTCI to access Medicaid
7 and still protect their assets equal to the benefits paid by the policy.
8
- 9 • Rebalancing the long-term care system by improving access to home and community based
10 care. As previously discussed, the states of Arkansas, Florida, and New Jersey have
11 implemented a demonstration project know as “Cash and Counseling.” In contrast to a one-
12 size-fits-all approach, Medicaid beneficiaries who are eligible for personal care services are
13 encouraged to exercise greater consumer choice and flexibility.
14
- 15 • Supporting several proposals regarding asset transfer such as changing the rules regarding
16 penalties for individuals who transfer assets, increasing the look-back period for asset transfer
17 from three to five years, limiting the amount and types of funds that can be sheltered in an
18 annuity, trust or promissory note, and allowing some threshold below which asset transfers
19 would be exempted (e.g. \$50,000).
20

21 At the time that this report was written, it was unclear if Congress would act on its instruction to
22 find \$10 billion in entitlement program savings by the end of 2005. In September 2005, Congress
23 allocated over \$60 billion in aid to assist in the Hurricane Katrina relief efforts.
24

25 AMA POLICY

26

27 The AMA has established several policies that address the future need for long-term care services.
28 Policy H-165.985[9] promotes the development of improved methods of financing long-term care
29 expenses through a combination of private and public resources, including encouragement of
30 privately pre-funded long-term care financing to the extent that personal income permits, assurance
31 of access to needed services when personal resources are inadequate to finance needed care, and
32 promotion of family care giving.
33

34 Policy D-280.990 encourages the American public to become better informed about the possible
35 future need of long-term care services, including the importance of early preparation through
36 saving, investing, and the option to purchase long-term care insurance; supports legislative
37 proposals that provide targeted tax incentives that encourage individuals and families to save,
38 invest and insure for their future long-term care needs; encourages the insurance industry to
39 continue to develop innovative programs and insurance products to cover the provision of long-
40 term care services; and encourages the American public to consider using health savings accounts
41 as a supplemental savings mechanism to cover the future provision of long-term care services.
42

43 Policy H-280-991[9] advocates that programs to finance long-term care should create tax
44 incentives to allow individuals to deduct the cost of long-term care coverage from income tax...and
45 [10] authorize a tax deduction or credit to encourage family care giving. Policy H-165.871
46 advocates that any tax treatment applied to health insurance for the purpose of encouraging
47 individual ownership also apply to long-term care insurance.

1 DISCUSSION

2
3 Medicaid has become the largest payer of long-term care services in the United States, accounting
4 for more than 42% of such care (Kaiser Commission on Medicaid and the Uninsured, 2004). Over
5 the past several years, virtually all state Medicaid programs have faced considerable financial
6 challenges due to a decline in state revenues and the continued growth in the number of older
7 Americans, which is expected to reach 70 million by 2030. The Council on Medical Service is
8 encouraged, however, that more states have become engaged in addressing the growth in long-term
9 care. According to the National Academy for State Health Policy, in FY 2005, 17 states were
10 focusing on long-term care Medicaid costs, a significant increase from only 10 states in 2003
11 (Council on Health Care Economics and Policy, April 2005).

12
13 As Americans age, early awareness of the possible need for long-term care and its potential costs is
14 critical to helping individuals adequately prepare for future long-term care needs. As a result, the
15 Council believes that the AMA should continue to encourage Americans to become better informed
16 about their potential need for long-term care and its associated costs. As discussed within this
17 report, LTCI protects retirement savings, reduces financial hardships for family and friends, and
18 promotes financial independence.

19
20 However, the cost of LTCI is prohibitive for many elderly and disabled. Consistent with AMA
21 Policy H-280.991[9], the Council continues to believe that the AMA should support legislative
22 proposals that provide tax incentives to purchase LTCI. The Council believes, however, that policy
23 should be broadened to include tax credits as well as deductions, thereby allowing for a full range
24 of tax incentives.

25
26 The Council also is aware that for the “medically needy,” tax credits may not be enough to
27 motivate purchase of LTCI. Therefore, the Council believes that the most politically viable
28 solution for achieving some level of progress may be to encourage further public/private
29 partnerships that would offer alternative LTCI products.

30
31 At the same time, the Council believes that states should be encouraged to continue to support the
32 provision of medically appropriate treatment through programs, similar to the Cash and Counseling
33 program. The Council believes that such programs allow those who are receiving Medicaid
34 services the opportunity to individualize the services which, in turn, may have the potential to
35 improve the quality of patient care.

36
37 Finally, it has been estimated that caregivers typically spend \$12,500 annually on expenses related
38 to their long-term caregiving responsibilities. The majority of these expenses are usually
39 uncompensated. The provision of a tax credit for caregivers would be one way to shift some of the
40 financial burden from the Medicaid program and encourage those who are providing unpaid care to
41 continue to provide care in the home. The Council believes that the AMA should support the
42 provision of tax credits to eligible caregivers for providing care to family members with long-term
43 care needs. In supporting this recommendation, however, the Council is cognizant of the need for
44 some level of documentation to show that a physician or other health care provider has significant
45 input in the development of plan for providing such care.

1 RECOMMENDATIONS

2
3 The Council on Medical Service recommends that the following be adopted and that the remainder
4 of the report be filed:

- 5
6 1. That the American Medical Association reaffirm Policy D.280.990[1], which encourages the
7 American public to become better informed about the possible future need for long-term care
8 services, including the importance of early preparation through saving, investing, and the
9 option to purchase long-term care insurance. (Reaffirm HOD Policy)
10
11 2. That the AMA modify Policy H-280.991[9] by addition and deletion to read as follows:
12
13 The AMA believes that programs to finance long-term care should...(9) create tax incentives
14 to allow individuals to ~~deduct~~ prospectively finance the cost of LTC coverage ~~from income tax~~,
15 encourage employers to offer such policies as a part of employee benefit packages and
16 otherwise treat employer-provided coverage in the same fashion as health insurance coverage,
17 and allow tax-free withdrawals from IRAs and Employee Trusts for payment of LTC insurance
18 premiums and expenses. (Modify HOD Policy)
19
20 3. That the AMA support legislation that encourages partnerships between public and private
21 entities for the purpose of providing long-term care insurance products. (Directive to Take
22 Action)
23
24 4. That the AMA encourage states to support consumer-directed care programs within Medicaid,
25 such as the Cash and Counseling demonstration project. (Directive to Take Action)
26
27 5. That the AMA support legislation that provides tax subsidies to family caregivers of long-term
28 care. (Directive to Take Action)
29
30 6. That our AMA support federal demonstration projects that would allow nursing home residents
31 to be moved to home- and community-based care programs with approval of the patient or
32 patient surrogate, attending physician and under protocols approved by the facility medical
33 director.

References for the report are available from the AMA Division of Socioeconomic Policy
Development.

Fiscal Note: Support legislation that facilitates the provision of long-term care at an estimated total
cost of \$1,859.