

REPORT 5 OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE (A-00)
Benefits and Limitations of an Individual Mandate for Individually Owned Health Insurance
(Reference Committee A)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Council on Medical Service Report 5 responds to referred Resolution 105 (I-99), which calls on the AMA to expand Policy H-165.920 by supporting mechanisms to ensure that all individuals have health expense coverage through: (1) requiring all Americans to own a minimum level of health expense coverage, and (2) creation of a health care safety net for the uninsured funded by the federal government through block grants to the states and the District of Columbia. Further, Resolution 105 (I-99) specifies that (a) such funds only be spent on indigent health care in ways determined by each state and the District of Columbia working in concert with their local government and (b) the amount of such grants be proportional to the number of eligible individuals in each such geographic area who have not received refundable federal tax credits for the purchase of individually selected and owned health expense coverage.

The attached report reviews available literature on individual mandates; discusses the advantages and disadvantages of imposing an individual mandate to purchase health insurance; and presents alternatives to an individual mandate that could be used to compel individuals to voluntarily purchase coverage. The report also discusses the merits of establishing a new program to serve as a health care safety net; describes existing safety net programs; and discusses ways to assure that the poor have access to tax credits through the establishment of mechanisms to advance credits to those who cannot afford the monthly out-of-pocket premium costs.

Despite some potential advantages, imposing an individual mandate to purchase health insurance entails serious philosophical and logistical drawbacks that can be avoided by using tax-based incentives and other non-compulsory measures to promote expanded coverage. Besides lacking political viability, an individual mandate is undesirable because it would permit the government to renege on its commitment to subsidize health insurance, and would entail an unreasonable administrative burden to enforce. Rather, with appropriately structured tax credits, virtually all individuals will face powerful incentives to obtain and maintain coverage.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE

CMS Report 5 A-00

Subject: Benefits and Limitations of an Individual Mandate for
Individually Owned Health Insurance (Resolution 105, I-99)

Presented by: Eugene Ogrod, MD, Chair

Referred to: Reference Committee A
(Susan R. Wynn, MD, Chair)

1 At the 1999 Interim Meeting, the House of Delegates referred Resolution 105 to the Board of
2 Trustees. Introduced by the Colorado delegation, the resolution calls for the AMA to “expand
3 Policy H-165.920 by supporting mechanisms to ensure that all individuals have health expense
4 coverage through: (1) requiring all Americans to own a minimum level of health expense coverage,
5 and (2) creation of a health care safety net for the uninsured funded by the federal government
6 through block grants to the states and the District of Columbia requiring: (a) such funds to only be
7 spent on indigent health care in ways determined by each state and the District of Columbia
8 working in concert with their local governments, and (b) the amount of such grants to be
9 proportional to the number of eligible individuals in each such geographical area who have not
10 received refundable federal tax credits for purchase of individually selected and owned health
11 expense coverage.” The Board of Trustees referred Resolution 105 (I-99) to the Council on
12 Medical Service for a report back to the House at the 2000 Annual Meeting.

13
14 The following report provides background on the AMA’s proposal for individually selected and
15 owned health insurance; summarizes relevant AMA policy; reviews available literature on
16 individual mandates, including mandates for automobile insurance and mandates for health
17 insurance in other countries; discusses the advantages and disadvantages of imposing an individual
18 mandate to purchase health insurance; and presents alternatives to an individual mandate that could
19 be used to compel individuals to voluntarily purchase coverage. The report also discusses the
20 merits of establishing a new program to serve as a health care safety net; describes existing safety
21 net programs; and discusses ways to assure that the poor have access to tax credits.

22 23 BACKGROUND

24
25 The main focus of the AMA’s plan for reform of the private health insurance market, as described
26 in Policy H-165.920 (AMA Policy Database) involves expanding patient choice of health plans by
27 making individually selected insurance a viable alternative to employer-selected insurance. Two
28 key recommendations of this policy are: (1) eliminating the current tax exclusion of employer-
29 based health insurance benefits and replacing it with income-related, refundable tax credits; and (2)
30 fostering the development of “Voluntary Choice Cooperatives” as alternative risk-pooling
31 mechanisms that would facilitate and expand patient choice.
32

1 Recently, there have been a growing number of Congressional proposals that address the use of tax
2 credits for the purchase of health insurance. Further, there continue to be occasional calls for a
3 national health care system. Increased attention to health system reform has reinvigorated the
4 debate on the possible need for an individual mandate for the purchase of health insurance. At
5 issue is whether an individual mandate is needed to achieve health insurance coverage for all
6 Americans and to avoid the “free-rider” and adverse selection problems under a market-based
7 system.

8
9 Regarding a health care safety net, AMA policy on individually owned insurance would provide
10 tax credits for everyone who purchases insurance. Therefore, the only individuals who would not
11 receive refundable federal tax credits, and would be in need of a safety net as described in
12 Resolution 105 (I-99), would be those who choose not to purchase health expense coverage, or
13 those who are enrolled in a public sector health care program such as Medicare, Medicaid or the
14 Children’s Health Insurance Program (CHIP).

15
16 AMA POLICY

17
18 Individually Selected and Owned Health Insurance

19
20 At the 1996 Interim Meeting, the House of Delegates adopted policy supporting individually
21 selected and owned health insurance as the preferred method for people to obtain health insurance
22 coverage (Policy H-165.920[5]). To assist in the development of the policy, the Council on
23 Medical Service undertook the development of further recommendations as to how a system of
24 individually owned insurance should be structured.

25
26 At the 1998 Annual Meeting, the House of Delegates adopted the 17 recommendations in CMS
27 Report 9, thereby establishing the considerable policy base that underlies the AMA’s current health
28 system reform proposal. Among the key policies established by CMS Report 9 (A-98) were the
29 following:

- 30
31 • Preference for replacing the present exclusion from employees’ taxable income of employer-
32 provided health expense coverage with a tax credit for individuals equal to a percentage of the
33 total amount spent for health expense coverage by the individual and/or his/her employer, up
34 to a specified actuarial value or “cap” in coverage so as to discourage over-insurance (Policy
35 H-165.920[12]).
36
37 • Preference for relating the individual tax credit for all health expense coverage expenditures by
38 individuals and/or their employers to the individual’s income, rather than being a uniform
39 percentage of such expenditures (Policy H-165.920[13]).
40
41 • Support for strong tax incentives, such as making tax credits contingent on purchase of a
42 specified minimum level of coverage, as opposed to compulsory approaches (Policy
43 165.920[14]).
44
45 • Support for unions, trade associations, health insurance purchasing cooperatives, farm bureaus,
46 fraternal organizations, chambers of commerce, churches, religious groups, ethnic coalitions,
47 and similar groups serving as voluntary choice cooperatives for both children and the general

1 uninsured population, with emphasis on formation of such pools by organizations which are
2 national or regional in scope (Policy H-165.882[15]).

3

4 Mandates

5

6 AMA policy favors tax incentives over compulsory approaches as a method of expanding health
7 expense coverage (Policy H-165.920[14]). In addition, Policy H-180.978 supports expanding
8 access to health insurance through market mechanisms rather than through government mandates
9 and regulations. It should be noted that at the time the Council prepared CMS Report 9 (A-98), it
10 did not recommend an individual mandate because the Council believed that a voluntary approach
11 was preferable. Furthermore, the vast majority of state medical associations and national medical
12 specialty societies that provided input to the Council prior to the development of CMS Report 9
13 (A-98) were opposed to the concept of an individual mandate.

14

15 Health Care Safety Nets

16

17 AMA policy supports the expansion of public sector safety net programs in a manner that is
18 consistent with the goal of increasing choice through individually selected insurance. Specifically,
19 Policy H-290.982(7) supports Medicaid and CHIP expansions, including providing Medicaid
20 premium subsidies or a buy-in option for individuals in families with income between their state's
21 Medicaid income eligibility level and a specified percentage of the poverty level; providing some
22 form of tax credits; providing vouchers for recipients to use to choose their own health plans; and
23 using Medicaid funds to purchase private health insurance coverage. The policy also supports
24 additional funding for CHIP earmarked to enroll children to higher percentages of the poverty
25 level. In addition, Policy H-165.871(1) states that in the absence of private sector reforms that
26 would enable persons with low incomes to purchase health insurance, the AMA supports eligibility
27 expansions of public sector programs, such as Medicaid and CHIP, with the goal of improving
28 access to health care coverage to otherwise uninsured groups.

29

30 INDIVIDUAL MANDATES

31

32 Most of the literature on mandated health insurance addresses employer mandates rather than
33 individual mandates. Aaron (1994) notes that in principle, an employer mandate is easier to
34 administer than an individual mandate because the government need only deal with employers
35 rather than the relatively large number of employees. On the other hand, Tobin (1994) argues that
36 an individual mandate is preferable to an employer mandate because of the difficulties that arise in
37 considering the unemployed, the self-employed, part-time workers, people who hold multiple jobs,
38 and families with more than one worker working for different employers. In any case, employer
39 mandates and individual mandates can exist simultaneously, as they do in many Western European
40 countries.

41

42 For either type of mandate, the rationales are to: (a) achieve universal coverage; (b) avoid the "free-
43 rider" problem, whereby care for the uninsured is ultimately paid for by the rest of society through
44 higher taxes and higher premiums; and (c) avoid adverse selection, whereby low-risk individuals
45 opt out of insurance, driving up costs and premiums for those who are insured.

46

1 Individual Mandates for Automobile Insurance

2
3 Over half of all states have an individual mandate for some form of automobile insurance, and
4 other states have some form of financial responsibility law, though typically with very low liability
5 limits (Smith and Wright 1992). In practice, there are substantial numbers of uninsured drivers
6 despite mandates to purchase automobile insurance. One reason cited for the ineffectiveness of
7 individual mandates is that they are not accompanied by premium subsidies for low-income
8 drivers.

9
10 In the absence of effective individual mandates, markets for automobile insurance can suffer from
11 the “free-rider” and adverse selection market failures. The presence of safety nets leads some
12 people to “free-ride” by driving uninsured. Two factors make it more attractive to drive uninsured:
13 first, low-income uninsured drivers have few resources against which to collect when they are at
14 fault; and second, if the at-fault party is unable to pay for damages, the insurance of the damaged
15 party often pays. These safety nets are analogous to health sector safety nets such as charity care
16 and the Emergency Medical Treatment and Active Labor Act (EMTALA). Further, compared to
17 people with low incomes, those with higher incomes have greater motivation to be insured because
18 they have more wealth at risk before safety nets become available.

19
20 Smith and Wright (1992) found that the presence or absence of adverse selection was responsible
21 for the large geographic variability in automobile insurance premiums. They found that the
22 premium differences for comparable policies were too large to be explained by differences in driver
23 risk alone. Rather, premium differences could be explained, in large part, by differences in the
24 proportion of low-income uninsured drivers in different areas. Where there are large numbers of
25 low-income uninsured or underinsured drivers, premiums are higher because damaged parties with
26 insurance are more likely to be forced to collect from their own policies. Even if all drivers were
27 of uniform risk, the presence of uninsured drivers would create a type of adverse selection by
28 forcing up the expected costs and premiums of those with insurance. In turn, high premiums
29 discourage some drivers from purchasing insurance, thereby exacerbating the problem of the
30 uninsured. This negative cycle is an example of the adverse selection market failure, which can
31 affect health insurance markets as well.

32
33 Individual Mandates for Health Insurance in Other Countries

34
35 Approaches to universal coverage fall into two broad categories: (a) single-payor systems; and
36 (b) mandated coverage. Single-payor systems may involve public financing of health services,
37 as in Canada, or public financing and delivery of health services, as in Great Britain. The issue
38 of mandated purchase of health insurance is not relevant to single-payor systems since under such
39 systems, universal coverage is provided by the government.

40
41 Nations that have instituted individual or employer mandates to purchase health insurance
42 generally approach but do not achieve 100% universal coverage. Most Western European
43 countries mandate that insurance be purchased through a system of “sickness funds.” Typically,
44 employers and employees bear the costs of health insurance in agreed proportions, and the
45 government may subsidize the funds as well as regulate them. Governments usually contribute
46 toward coverage of groups who are difficult to insure (Center for Health Policy Research, AMA,
47 1989). Ballard and Goddeeris (1998) note that mandated-type proposals having the goal of
48 universal coverage must include some system of subsidies for the poor, regardless of whether the

1 mandate is on the individual or the employer. Germany, France, and Japan are examples of
2 countries that have achieved near-universal coverage through individually mandated insurance.

3 In Germany, health insurance is provided by non-profit, non-governmental “sickness funds”
4 regulated by the government. Membership in a sickness fund is determined by occupation,
5 employer or location. In general, Germans have no choice of fund and are required to purchase
6 insurance from their assigned funds, although some occupation groups have choice between a
7 regional fund and an occupational fund. Employers are required to contribute to premiums but
8 there is little government subsidization of premiums. Government regulations require premiums to
9 be community rated or on a sliding-scale basis. Only those above an income threshold are exempt
10 from the mandate to join a fund; they are permitted but not required to purchase private insurance
11 outside the fund system. Only about 100,000 people are uninsured in Germany (White, 1995).
12 Although health insurance is not mandated in Switzerland, 96% of the population is insured
13 through more than 500 sickness funds. The high rate of coverage is due largely to generous
14 government subsidization of health insurance (AMA, 1984).

15

16 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF AN INDIVIDUAL MANDATE

17

18 As previously noted, potential advantages of an individual mandate to purchase health insurance
19 include: (a) universal coverage; (b) avoidance of the “free-rider” problem; and (c) avoidance of
20 adverse selection. Some policy analysts believe that under a voluntary system, a significant
21 number of people will not purchase coverage, particularly among those who are currently
22 uninsured (e.g., those with low incomes, the young, and the healthy). They cite the erosion of
23 coverage under the current, voluntary system as evidence that a mandatory approach is needed to
24 guarantee health insurance coverage for all Americans, and to ensure that risk pools include low-
25 risk individuals. According to this view, without either mandated coverage or a national health
26 care system, there will be too many uninsured “free riders” whose care will ultimately be paid for
27 by the rest of society through higher taxes and higher premium prices. Proponents of an individual
28 mandate are skeptical that a voluntary system based on tax incentives will be able to expand
29 coverage appreciably, especially if implemented in a budget-neutral manner. Further, an individual
30 mandate coupled with tax subsidies for the poor would require less tax revenue than a single-payor
31 system, thereby reducing the disincentives to work that go along with taxation.

32

33 Despite these potential advantages, there are serious philosophical and logistical drawbacks to
34 imposing an individual mandate to purchase health insurance. Philosophically, an individual
35 mandate can be viewed as coercive, particularly in the context of tax credit proposals to increase
36 individual choice. An individual mandate could also permit the government to renege on its
37 commitment to support health insurance through tax credits and other subsidies.

38

39 Further, a variety of logistical challenges would seriously limit the effectiveness of an individual
40 mandate, as is the case with automobile insurance. Considerable resources which could be used to
41 provide additional tax credits, health care or other goods and services would need to be devoted to
42 identifying the uninsured, and then somehow compelling them to purchase health insurance. This
43 would be especially problematic for certain sectors of the population, such as those with low
44 incomes and seasonal laborers. Because of these philosophical and practical problems, an
45 individual mandate would probably be politically unpalatable and could jeopardize the political
46 viability of a tax credit proposal.

47

1 Perhaps the strongest argument against an individual mandate is that it might not be necessary to
2 achieve a reasonable level of health insurance coverage. Income-related, refundable tax credits
3 will give low-income individuals unprecedented market power, and the market will respond by
4 providing more insurance products to fill their needs. Thus, tax-based incentives to purchase
5 insurance, coupled with a greater tax credit to the low-income to assist them in obtaining health
6 insurance could lead to virtual universal coverage. Tolerating the relatively small number of people
7 choosing to forgo insurance under such a voluntary system is preferable to resorting to a
8 compulsory approach.

9
10 ALTERNATIVES TO AN INDIVIDUAL MANDATE

11
12 In addition to an individual mandate, there are a variety of other policy options that can be used to
13 expand health insurance coverage. One can think of policies to promote coverage as lying on a
14 continuum between purely voluntary policies at one end and purely compulsory policies at the
15 other, with mandated coverage lying at the compulsory end. Within this framework, policies to
16 expand insurance coverage have various degrees of volunteerism or compulsion. Policies can be
17 used alone or in combination with other policies. It should be noted that no approach, even a
18 compulsory one, will achieve 100% universal coverage.

19
20 A variety of tax-based incentives can be used to encourage the purchase of health insurance. One
21 tax-based approach would make the tax credit contingent on the purchase of health insurance, so
22 that if insurance is not purchased, the credit is not provided. Although this would have no effect on
23 persons who prefer to go uninsured, it would encourage the majority of the population who
24 recognize the value of health insurance to obtain coverage in order to qualify for the tax credit.
25 Tax credits could be structured so that the size of the credit is large enough at each income level to
26 induce virtually everyone to voluntarily purchase health insurance. Should this approach prove too
27 costly to finance, other incentives or other policies could be instituted along with the tax credits in
28 order to encourage the purchase of health insurance. CMS Report 4 (A-00), which is before the
29 House of Delegates at this meeting, recommends the adoption of a number of principles for
30 structuring a health insurance tax credit.

31
32 It is possible to have a penalty without having a mandate. Under this approach, individuals who do
33 not obtain coverage would be assessed a tax penalty. Tax penalties could be a flat amount or they
34 could increase with income. This tax-based approach is more compulsory than positive tax
35 incentives to purchase insurance described above but less compulsory than an outright mandate.
36 Tax credits coupled with tax penalties could constitute a powerful “carrot and stick” approach to
37 inducing the purchase of health insurance.

38
39 Individuals who do not choose to purchase health insurance on their own could be enrolled in “fall-
40 back” plans or randomly assigned plans not of their choosing. Enrollment could occur
41 automatically or only at such time as an uninsured person seeks (uncompensated) health care.
42 Although automatic enrollment is compulsory, it *per se* is not punitive.

43
44 Financing coverage for the otherwise uninsured could be linked to revenue generated by unclaimed
45 tax credits and/or tax penalties. Several proposals suggest that tax credits not used by the
46 uninsured be channeled to state and local governments to finance safety net care for the indigent
47 (Goodman, 1999 and Etheredge, 1999). Revenues from unclaimed tax credits could be used to
48 fund a “fall-back” insurance plan, high risk pools, Medicaid expansions or the direct provision of
49 care. Similarly, tax penalties could be equal to the premium of some minimal insurance, with the

1 penalty funds used to enroll such individuals in the fall-back plan. Designing the fall-back plan to
2 be less desirable than privately purchased insurance would encourage the voluntary purchase of
3 insurance.

4
5 Etheredge (1999) proposes that under a tax credit system, employers continue to facilitate the
6 purchase of insurance. Regardless of whether insurance is purchased through the employer or
7 elsewhere, there would be workplace sign-up and automatic payroll deduction for employees'
8 premium payments. Employers would submit withheld premium payments to the plan chosen by
9 the employee. If the employee did not specify a health plan, enrollment and premium payments
10 would go to a plan assigned by the government. In order for employees to decline health insurance
11 altogether, they would have to sign a statement explaining the tax credits and the benefits of basic
12 health insurance. This approach would make the purchase of health insurance convenient and
13 would reduce administrative costs. In the Medicare program, such automatic enrollment and
14 deductions from Social Security checks have produced over 95% sign-up rates.

15
16 Another strategy for expanding health insurance coverage would be to impose a mandate only on
17 individuals above a certain income level. Although this approach has the desirable goals of forcing
18 those who can afford to purchase health insurance to do so without placing an undue financial
19 burden on the poor, it would pose political and administrative difficulties similar to a general
20 individual mandate. Further, people with large enough incomes to “go bare” or self-insure do not
21 pose a “free-rider” problem.

22 23 HEALTH CARE SAFETY NET

24
25 The health care safety net recommended in Resolution 105 (I-99) has similarities to the existing
26 Medicaid program and CHIP. Under both programs, the federal government provides grants to the
27 states and the District of Columbia, as well as US territories to provide health care to the poor.
28 Within federal guidelines, states are given broad authority in designing their individual programs in
29 terms of eligibility and covered services. The amount of federal funding received by states for their
30 Medicaid programs is inversely related to a given state’s per capita income, with the richest states
31 receiving a federal contribution of 50% of their total Medicaid expenditures, and the poorest
32 receiving 73%. CHIP provides states even greater flexibility in program design and enhanced
33 funding relative to Medicaid, so that federal match funding for CHIP ranges from 65% to 85% for
34 the poorest states.

35
36 All states, the District of Columbia, and the U.S. territories have CHIP plans that provide coverage
37 to children in families with incomes too high to be eligible for Medicaid and too low to afford
38 private insurance. States may receive CHIP funds by expanding their existing Medicaid programs
39 to children living in families with higher levels of income than allowed under Medicaid. Other
40 states may establish entirely separate programs, which allows them to provide less comprehensive
41 benefits and to require cost-sharing on the part of beneficiaries. Still other states may establish
42 programs that combine elements of Medicaid expansion and stand-alone program techniques. For
43 example, a state could expand Medicaid for children up to a higher percentage of the federal
44 poverty level than offered under Medicaid alone, as well as enroll children at even higher levels of
45 poverty, such as 250% of the federal poverty level, in another stand-alone program.

46
47 Labeling a state’s plan as an expansion, separate program or combination approach can be difficult
48 because of the wide variation in plan structures. For example, some states with stand-alone plans
49 offer the same benefits as Medicaid, making them look like expansions. In addition, some states

1 with expansion programs may impose cost sharing for enrollees covered with CHIP funding
2 because their existing Medicaid programs operate under a special waiver that allows them to do so.
3 Therefore, there is some discrepancy in the relative number of each type of plan, but in general
4 state CHIP programs are distributed into 21 Medicaid expansions, 16 separate programs, and 13
5 combination programs. The District of Columbia and the U.S. territories all have plans designed as
6 Medicaid expansions. The preponderance of Medicaid expansions can be largely attributed to the
7 fact that states had a limited amount of time to design their programs and expansion of an existing
8 program presented the fewest administrative complexities. Over time, it is expected that more
9 states will develop stand-alone or combination programs to maximize their impact in providing
10 coverage to more children, while providing them greater budgetary control relative to Medicaid
11 expansions.

12
13 Whereas AMA policy supports that tax credits be available to everyone, and there are existing
14 safety net programs, the Council believes that the creation of a new safety net program for the poor
15 is unwarranted. However, the Council does believe additional policy is needed to assure that those
16 without means to purchase coverage receive their tax credit in advance of year's end. The AMA
17 proposal to expand health insurance coverage, as articulated in Policy H-165.920, could be
18 administered as a voucher system that provides recipients with a choice of health insurance.
19 Vouchers can take many forms, and all essentially allow some level of recipient choice through
20 government funding of specific goods and services, rather than unrestricted direct cash assistance.
21 A popular form of government assistance, vouchers are currently used to provide a variety of
22 services, including food and nutrition through food stamps, child care via the Child Care and
23 Development Block Grant program, housing through Section 8 rental certificates, and education
24 through the Pell Grant program for higher education and through several state demonstration
25 projects for primary and secondary private education.

26
27 The issuance of tax credits as supported in Policy H-160.920[12] would most efficiently go directly
28 to entitled individuals at the end of a given year for which such credits applied. A voucher
29 mechanism to distribute tax credits for the purchase of health insurance would enable individuals
30 with low incomes to secure coverage despite their lack of sufficient funds to purchase insurance
31 without the immediate assistance of the tax credit due to them. The structure of such a voucher
32 mechanism should be allowed sufficient flexibility to accommodate political and financing
33 considerations. In general, however, welfare agencies and/or other entities should be authorized to
34 verify income eligibility for such vouchers, and either the same or different appropriate agencies
35 could issue vouchers for the amount of tax credit due the individual. Depending on the level of
36 public commitment to expanding health insurance coverage and the budget environment in any
37 given year, it should not be necessary for entities to wait until year's end to receive the credit due
38 the individuals to whom they issue vouchers.

39
40 Accordingly, the Council believes AMA policy on individually owned insurance should be
41 augmented by supporting the creation of a mechanism or mechanisms whereby tax credits could be
42 made available as advanced payments through organizations such as local welfare agencies and/or
43 other appropriate entities, which could verify income status and issue vouchers immediately for the
44 amount of credit due individuals. The entities could then receive the tax credit due the individuals
45 to whom they provided vouchers. Such mechanisms for assuring that tax credits are a feasible
46 option for those with low incomes is necessary to ensure that individually owned insurance is
47 viable for everyone.

48

1 DISCUSSION

2
3 The Council continues to believe that an individual mandate has serious drawbacks that can be
4 avoided by using tax-based incentives and other policies to promote health insurance coverage.
5 Besides lacking political viability, an individual mandate is undesirable because it would permit the
6 government to renege on its commitment to subsidize health insurance, and would entail an
7 unreasonable administrative burden to enforce. Rather, with appropriately structured tax credits,
8 virtually all individuals will face powerful incentives to obtain and maintain coverage. Income-
9 related, refundable tax credits will give low income individuals unprecedented market power, and
10 the market will respond by providing more insurance products to fill their needs.

11
12 Regarding the safety net modification recommended in Resolution 105 (I-99), the Council notes
13 that the AMA proposal would apply to individuals who are uninsured, but who would purchase
14 coverage if they received tax credits for doing so and had affordable options, as well as those who
15 currently have employer-sponsored benefits. Although there may be some indigent individuals
16 who may not purchase coverage, public safety net programs exist for the poor, and AMA policy
17 favors expanding eligibility for these programs in the absence of private sector reform. In addition
18 to the existing safety net programs for the low income, EMTALA assures that acute emergency
19 conditions will be treated regardless of ability to pay. Assuming the continuation of public sector
20 programs such as Medicaid and CHIP, and the continuation of efforts to expand eligibility and
21 enrollment in these programs, supporting the establishment of an additional and separate safety net
22 for an unknown population of individuals who do not receive the tax credit would seem a
23 premature commitment of public funds. The Council does believe, however, that there is a need
24 for additional policy to assure that low income individuals are able to access the tax credits in
25 advance of year's end so that they are able to purchase coverage.

26 RECOMMENDATIONS

27
28 The Council on Medical Service recommends that the following be adopted in lieu of Resolution
29 105 (I-99), and that the remainder of the report be filed:

- 30
31 1. That the AMA amend Policy H-165.920 by addition of the following principle:
32
33 The AMA supports the use of tax incentives, and other non-compulsory measures, rather
34 than a mandate requiring individuals to purchase health insurance coverage.
35
36 2. That it is the policy of the AMA that organizations such as local welfare agencies and/or
37 other appropriate entities be authorized to verify income status and issue vouchers
38 immediately for the amount of tax credits due individuals; thus advancing funds to
39 purchase the coverage for low-income persons who could not afford the monthly out-of-
40 pocket premium costs.

References for this report are available from the AMA Division of Health Care Financing Policy.