

REPORT 5 OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE (A-99)

Employer Purchasing Alliances: An Evolutionary Step Toward “Voluntary Choice Cooperatives”
Under Individually Selected and Owned Health Insurance
(Reference Committee A)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

At the 1998 Annual Meeting, the House of Delegates adopted the recommendations in Council on Medical Service Report 9, “Empowering Our Patients: Individually Selected, Purchased, and Owned Health Expense Coverage.” The report described the AMA’s long-range plan for reform of the health insurance system, which involves a preference for individually selected and owned health insurance. A key component of the AMA’s proposal involves changing the tax treatment of health insurance expenditures so that individually selected and owned health insurance is a viable alternative to employer selected insurance. A system that encourages individual ownership of health insurance through tax incentives, however, does not necessarily obviate the need for mechanisms to group risks. Hence, another key component of the AMA’s proposal is fostering the development of individual voluntary choice cooperatives to facilitate and expand patient choice. Recent press reports indicate that there is a misconception that the AMA proposal advocates nothing more than existing products from the individual insurance market, which are expensive and often unavailable for patients with pre-existing conditions. In order to dispel such misconceptions that might otherwise prevent serious consideration of the AMA’s proposal, the Council has developed a report on existing institutions that are similar to individual voluntary choice cooperatives.

This report presents available information on existing employer health insurance purchasing alliances that have already implemented various aspects of individual voluntary choice cooperatives. The report compares the experiences of employer purchasing alliances in terms of legislative and market environments, membership structure, standardization of benefit packages, contracting approaches, degree of consumer choice, and other design elements. Evidence suggests that the group size and bargaining power of employer purchasing alliances can achieve cost-savings and expand consumer choice. To date, employer purchasing alliances appear to have had variable but limited success in expanding access to the otherwise uninsured.

Although different in certain respects from individual voluntary choice cooperatives envisioned by the AMA, employer purchasing alliances represent market-based responses to the problems of high premium costs, the growth of the uninsured population, and limited choice of plans. The Council believes that existing employer purchasing alliances demonstrate the feasibility of individual voluntary choice cooperatives to address these problems. The Council also believes that more research is warranted on the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful employer alliances in order to offer further guidance in the design of voluntary choice cooperatives.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON MEDICAL SERVICE

CMS Report 5 - A-99

Subject: Employer Purchasing Alliances: An Evolutionary Step Toward “Voluntary Choice Cooperatives” Under Individually Selected and Owned Health Insurance

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Referred to: Reference Committee A
(Marilyn K. Laughead, MD, Chair)

1 The AMA’s long-range plan for reforming the health insurance system was presented in Council
2 on Medical Service Report 9 (A-98). The report proposed a number of measures to transform the
3 health care system from a system based primarily on employment-based health insurance to one of
4 individually selected, purchased, and owned health expense coverage (Policy H-165.920, AMA
5 Policy Compendium). The core of the AMA’s proposal involves revamping the tax treatment of
6 health insurance expenditures, thereby creating an enabling environment for alternative sources of
7 coverage and increased competition among health plans. A system that encourages individual
8 ownership of health insurance through tax incentives does not necessarily obviate the need for
9 mechanisms to group risks. Hence, another key component of the AMA’s proposal is fostering the
10 development of individual voluntary choice cooperatives to facilitate and expand patient choice.

11
12 Several recent press reports indicate that there is a misperception that the AMA proposal advocates
13 nothing more than existing products from the individual insurance market, which are expensive
14 and often unavailable for patients with pre-existing conditions. In order to dispel such
15 misconceptions that might otherwise prevent serious consideration of the AMA’s proposal, the
16 Council decided to develop a report on existing institutions that are similar to individual voluntary
17 choice cooperatives. The following report reviews available literature on existing employer
18 alliances that have already implemented various aspects of individual voluntary choice
19 cooperatives.

20
21 KEY COMPONENTS OF THE AMA’S PROPOSAL FOR INDIVIDUALLY SELECTED AND
22 OWNED HEALTH INSURANCE

23
24 Changing the Tax Treatment of Health Insurance Expenditures

25
26 The current tax code subsidizes health insurance only if it is obtained through an employer.
27 Compared to group insurance, individual policies are generally much more expensive because they
28 are not subsidized, and because they lack the substantial cost-savings of pooling risk and reducing
29 administrative overhead. For these reasons, employment-based coverage is effectively the only
30 choice most Americans have. Changing the tax code so that individuals receive tax benefits
31 regardless of whether they obtain health insurance through their employers or elsewhere is an
32 important first step in expanding individuals’ options for obtaining affordable coverage.

1 As described in Council on Medical Service Report 9 (A-98), the AMA proposes replacing the
2 existing tax exclusion for employer expenditures on health insurance with a refundable tax credit
3 Policy H-165.920[12]. Under the current system, individuals obtain tax benefits because their
4 employers' expenditure on health insurance is not reported as income. Under the proposed new
5 system, employer contributions to health insurance would be reported as taxable income, and an
6 individual or family would receive a tax credit equal to a portion of spending on health insurance,
7 up to some cap. The tax credit would be directly subtracted from the individual or family's tax bill.
8 Tax credits would be available only to those individuals with health insurance or other health
9 expense coverage, providing a strong incentive to purchase health insurance. The AMA proposal
10 also includes several features to ensure equitable access to health insurance. First, the percentage
11 of insurance expenditures credited towards an individual's tax liability would be inversely related
12 to income so as to increase access by lower-income persons and reduce the extent of
13 uncompensated care. Second, the tax credit would be a "refundable" tax credit. Persons whose
14 incomes are low enough that their tax liability is less than the credit to which they are entitled
15 would receive a refund for the difference. Council on Medical Service Report 2 (A-99) provides an
16 update on efforts to increase access to the uninsured.

17
18 Individual Voluntary Choice Cooperatives

19
20 The proposed tax change is expected to create new opportunities for individuals to pool risks
21 and obtain group insurance. The second major element of the AMA's vision for expanding
22 access to health insurance coverage is voluntary choice cooperatives through which individuals
23 could purchase insurance. As described in Council on Medical Service Report 9 (A-98), the
24 AMA supports federal legislation enabling the formation of voluntary choice cooperatives
25 (Policy H-165.882 [14]). Such groups could include coalitions of small employers, unions,
26 trade associations, health insurance purchasing cooperatives, farm bureaus, fraternal
27 organizations, chambers of commerce, churches and religious groups, and ethnic coalitions
28 (Policy H-165.882 [15]). Such groups would be encouraged to serve as voluntary choice
29 cooperatives by exempting the insurance plans they offer from selected state regulations
30 regarding mandated benefits, premium taxes, and small group rating laws, while safeguarding
31 state and federal patient protection laws (Policy H-165.882 [14]). It should be noted that grouping
32 individuals into voluntary choice cooperatives to purchase health insurance does not preclude
33 employment-based groups. The AMA proposal permits the continuation of employment-based
34 insurance to the extent that the market demands it, while opening up new sources of health
35 insurance for employees, children, and the general uninsured population.

36
37 OVERVIEW OF EXISTING EMPLOYER PURCHASING ALLIANCES

38
39 Under the existing health insurance system, employers have banded together in a variety of
40 arrangements to purchase health insurance. Although different in certain respects from individual
41 voluntary choice cooperatives envisioned by the AMA, employer purchasing alliances represent
42 market-based responses to the problems of high premium costs, the growth of the uninsured, and
43 limited choice of plans. Existing employer alliances demonstrate the feasibility of individual
44 voluntary choice cooperatives to address these problems, and offer lessons for designing voluntary
45 choice cooperatives.

46
47 State governments and employers have responded to the problem of purchasing affordable health
48 insurance by legislating a range of insurance reforms and creating a variety of employer health
49 insurance purchasing alliances. Employer alliances resemble benefits departments of large firms,

1 performing functions such as negotiating with health plans (or providers), screening plans for
2 inclusion in alliance offerings, marketing plans to members, providing comparative information
3 about plan benefits and performance, conducting patient satisfaction surveys, administering
4 enrollment and premium collection, and processing claims. Administration of policies is almost
5 always centralized with the alliance so that employers do not have to deal with multiple insurance
6 companies. For these reasons, employer alliances may threaten benefits administrators of firms
7 already offering health insurance. In addition to streamlined benefits administration, member
8 employers are attracted to alliances by the prospect of decreased health benefits costs, improved
9 access to insurance, and greater choice of plans and providers. The actual experience of employer
10 purchasing alliances has varied from state to state depending on factors such as the legislative
11 environment, membership structure, approaches to contracting with insurers or providers, other
12 design elements, and health insurance and health care market conditions.

13

14 Names

15

16 Various names are used to describe employer health insurance purchasing alliances. Different
17 names sometimes signify distinct types of employer alliances, although in some cases, there are no
18 clear differences between entities with different names. The most common names for employer
19 purchasing alliances are Multiple Employer Welfare Associations (MEWAs), Consumer-Choice
20 Health Purchasing Groups (CHPGs), and Health Insurance Purchasing Cooperatives (HIPCAs).
21 Unlike most other arrangements, MEWAs are set up to bear risk and have other distinct
22 characteristics described below. CHPGs, sometimes called Consumer-Choice Health Purchasing
23 Cooperatives (CHPCs) or Community Health Purchasing Alliances (CHPAs), represent small
24 employer groups, offer individuals a choice of competing health plans, and have standardized
25 benefits. Other names include Cooperatives for Health Insurance Purchasing (CHIPs), Voluntary
26 Health Care Purchasing Cooperatives, Voluntary Purchasing Pools, Health Purchasing Alliances,
27 and Health Purchasing Coalitions. Employer groups that purchase health insurance will herein be
28 called employer purchasing alliances or employer alliances. Other entities, such as the Vermont
29 Employers Health Alliance, are coalitions of employers who band together for activities other than
30 purchasing health insurance, for example, gathering and disseminating comparative information on
31 health care quality, lobbying state legislatures, and holding seminars on how to negotiate with
32 insurers.

33

34 Legislative Environment

35

36 More than 20 states have enacted legislation creating or authorizing the creation of employer health
37 purchasing alliances for private businesses, state or local government agencies, or both. Specific
38 laws vary considerably by state. A few states, such as Texas, have simply removed legislative
39 barriers such as restrictions on private groups joining together to seek insurance coverage. In other
40 states, such as California, Florida, and North Carolina, an alliance or series of non-competing
41 alliances with fixed geographic areas is chartered, funded, and run by the state government. State-
42 sponsored alliances typically gather and disseminate comparative information on plan or provider
43 quality, offer consumer support, and in some cases, negotiate with insurance plans. Many states
44 limit participation to groups of fewer than 50 or 100 employees. Employer alliances are usually
45 prohibited from excluding groups or individual employees on the basis of health status or risk.

46

47 Laws governing employer alliances are often accompanied by market-wide insurance reforms such
48 as community rating bands, guaranteed issue, guaranteed renewability, and limits on exclusions for
49 preexisting conditions. Community rating promotes the viability of alliances by checking adverse

1 selection against alliances. If community rating is used within an alliance but premium rating and
2 underwriting are used outside the alliance, high-risk groups will be penalized more outside than
3 within the alliance. Such a lack of uniformity in rating practices could cause the alliance to
4 become a high-risk pool, making it ultimately unviable. A 1996 article by the American College of
5 Physicians in The Annals of Internal Medicine states, “It is critical that health plans operate under
6 the same market and rating rules inside and outside of purchasing pools; otherwise, insurers will
7 seek out the healthiest people for nonpool plans.” Other reforms that make alliances more
8 attractive to prospective members are guaranteed issue, guaranteed renewability, and limits on
9 exclusions for preexisting conditions – either within insurance purchasing alliances or more
10 generally. Employer alliances in states with such reforms, such as California, Florida, and
11 Minnesota, appear to have been more successful than alliances in states without such reforms. A
12 1997 Urban Institute analysis by Blumberg and Nichols concludes that “[i]nsurance reforms define
13 the range of feasible options for HIPC design.... Guaranteed issue and similar premium rating
14 restrictions outside the HIPC are essential for long run HIPC survival.”

15

16 Membership

17

18 Only a few alliances offer insurance to individuals outside of employment groups, which is not
19 surprising given the existing tax subsidy for employer-based insurance. Federal employees make
20 up the largest health insurance purchasing pool, the Federal Employees Health Benefits Program
21 (FEHBP). Many states provide insurance to state and local government employees through similar
22 pools, for example the California Public Employees Retirement System (CalPERS) and the
23 Massachusetts Group Insurance Commission (GIC). At least one state, Minnesota, joined an
24 established private-sector alliance of large employers, the Buyers Health Care Action Group
25 (BHCAG). In the private sector, alliances were traditionally made up of large, private employers
26 that already offered health insurance prior to joining the alliance, e.g., in Cincinnati, OH and
27 Rochester, NY. Following the national health reform debate of the early 1990s, alliances of small
28 employers started forming, often with the help of state legislation. Compared to alliances of large
29 employers, those of small employers are more likely to extend insurance coverage to individuals
30 who were previously uninsured. Some employer alliances specify conditions of membership such
31 as minimum levels of employee participation and that all group coverage must be obtained through
32 the alliance. In a few cases, such as Ohio’s Council of Small Enterprises (COSE), employer groups
33 can be denied membership on the basis of the medical conditions of their employees. Also under
34 COSE, individual employees are subject to medical underwriting and may be denied coverage if
35 they do not enroll in a COSE plan within 90 days of being hired and did not have other coverage.

36

37 Standard Benefit Packages

38

39 Virtually all of the private employer alliances studied state that they have standard benefit
40 packages. Some public sector pools, including the FEHBP, do not specify a benefit package,
41 although there have been recurrent debates about whether the FEHBP should do so. Although the
42 FEHBP does not standardize benefits, it does limit variation in benefits across plans. The
43 rationales for standard benefit packages are to facilitate comparison on the basis of price and
44 quality, promote price and quality competition, limit risk segmentation within the alliance, and
45 prevent insurers from stripping down plans in order to attract only low risks. Standardization of
46 benefits means that the set of covered medical services is the same from plan to plan. However,
47 there is usually considerable variation and consumer choice along other dimensions such as type of
48 plan, level of cost sharing, and provider networks. Optional dental and vision plans are often

1 offered as well. North Carolina’s network of employer alliances, Caroliance, offers a standardized
2 benefit package through Health Maintenance Organizations (HMOs), Preferred Provider
3 Organizations (PPOs), Point of Service (POS) plans, and indemnity plans. Ohio’s COSE offers
4 these forms of insurance plus a Medical Savings Account (MSA) option. Most alliances offer at
5 least two levels of cost-sharing for each type of plan, with different cost-sharing structures across
6 plans types.

7
8 Approaches to Contracting and Choice
9

10 Some employer alliances seek to negotiate a restricted number of policies at the lowest price,
11 whereas others offer individuals a wide range of choice in plans and carriers. In some cases,
12 member employers can restrict the number of options available to employees. More commonly,
13 individuals can choose from the full range of plans contracting with the alliance. Among state-
14 operated employer alliances, individual rather than employer choice is mandatory in only a few
15 states, including California and Kentucky. A similarly small number of states, including Florida,
16 require employer alliances to contract with all qualified health plans, which increases consumer
17 choice but weakens the alliance’s bargaining power. At its inception, the Twin Cities’ BHCAG
18 adopted a “winner takes all” approach. BHCAG specified price and quality goals in requests for
19 proposals from plans and then signed a multiple year contract (1993-95) with the plan most closely
20 meeting its specifications. BHCAG has since moved to an approach in which individuals choose
21 among multiple provider networks. In California, the Pacific Business Group on Health (PBGH),
22 another privately operated alliance of large employers, permits employers to select which plans to
23 offer their employees. In contrast, the California Health Insurance Purchasing Cooperative (HIPC)
24 and CalPERS both emphasize individual choice. In the Colorado’s Cooperative for Health
25 Insurance Purchasing (CHIP), employers choose one of three benefit levels, while employees
26 choose a plan from four insurers. Employers belonging to Florida’s Community Health Purchasing
27 Alliances (CHPAs) may restrict the number of plans offered to employees but are required to offer
28 a minimum of two or three plans depending on the firm’s size.

29
30 Direct Contracting
31

32 Recently, a few employer alliances have contracted directly with networks of health care providers.
33 Direct contracting is usually done by alliances of large, self-insured employers (e.g., the Minnesota
34 BHCAG). In order not to jeopardize their Employee Retirement Income Security Act (ERISA)
35 exemptions from state regulations, they generally refrain from transferring risk to providers, paying
36 on a discounted fee-for-service basis. The networks of both the Madison, WI, Alliance and the
37 Colorado Health Care Purchasing Alliance include any hospital or physician willing to accept the
38 negotiated rates and credentialing requirements. Such inclusiveness maximizes individual choice
39 and curtails potential opposition from providers, but restricts the alliance’s purchasing power by
40 reducing the volume of patients going to any one provider.

41
42 Quality Initiatives
43

44 Some of the larger employer alliances have devoted resources to “value-based” purchasing
45 strategies. Such strategies entail measurement of quality and satisfaction indicators, efforts to
46 improve quality of care, and disseminating comparative cost and quality information to individuals
47 when individuals rather than employers play a large role in plan choice. The PBGH in California

1 requires participating plans to report Health Plan Employer Data Information Set (HEDIS) data,
2 but it also requires that plans' HEDIS records be audited independently. Minnesota's BHCAG
3 collaborated with the Institute for Clinical Systems Integration (ICSI) to develop more than 40
4 medical practice guidelines and to integrate the protocols into medical practices. Employer
5 alliances occasionally provide financial incentives to participating plans based on performance
6 indicators, or contract on the basis of quality. The PBGH places a proportion of premiums at risk,
7 making them available to plans that meet established quality goals. Alliances also may contract
8 selectively with plans or providers based on quality and price, or simply screen out those plans that
9 do not meet minimum standards. Providers may be reluctant to participate in quality measurement
10 if results are to be made public, especially if results are not adjusted for severity mix or are
11 considered unreliable for other reasons. In some cases, employer alliances have worked with
12 providers to monitor and improve quality without disseminating results. As mentioned earlier,
13 some employer coalitions have formed to undertake quality initiatives without purchasing as a
14 pool.

15

16 Employee Premiums

17

18 Most small-group alliances specify a minimum employer contribution to premiums, such as 50% of
19 each employee's premium or at 50% of the lowest premium. Many employer alliances including
20 Minnesota's BHCAG have defined contribution systems, whereby employees are responsible for
21 paying any difference in cost between the employer's fixed contribution and the premium of the
22 chosen plan. Defined contributions foster cost-consciousness by individual consumers and price
23 competition among plans. Although the California PBGH does not require defined contribution
24 systems, most member employers use them. Occasionally, the portion of premiums paid by
25 employees are adjusted for individual characteristics such as age and gender. In North Carolina's
26 network of alliances, Caroliance, employer groups demonstrating exceptional health status receive
27 preferred rates.

28

29 Risk Adjustment

30

31 Although insurance market reforms such as community rating can limit risk segmentation between
32 an alliance and the general market, risk segmentation among plans within an alliance can still be a
33 problem. In rare instances, large, well-funded employer alliances such as the California HIPC have
34 started risk adjusting payments to participating health plans in order to reduce or mitigate risk
35 segmentation within the alliance.

36

37 Market Conditions

38

39 Employer health insurance purchasing alliances appear to be most likely to succeed in densely
40 populated areas with high managed-care penetration. Alliances may also face challenges in very
41 large metropolitan areas. The small number of potential enrollees in sparsely populated areas fails
42 to attract numerous competing providers or plans. Experience from the California HIPC's six
43 regions confirms that there is less competition in rural areas. On the other hand, organizing small
44 employers is difficult in areas such as New York City, Los Angeles, and Chicago. Because of
45 geographic dispersion and ethnic and socio-economic diversity, employees and unions want to
46 maintain access to the broadest network of providers. In large metropolitan areas with no
47 employers dominating the market, employer alliances may have difficulty generating purchasing
48 leverage.

1 SELECTED CASE STUDIES

2
3 Multiple Employer Welfare Arrangements

4
5 First formed in the late 1970s, Multiple Employer Welfare Arrangements (MEWAs) are risk-
6 bearing entities created to offer one or more insurance plans to a group of small employers. In the
7 late 1990s, a proliferation of fraudulent MEWAs gained media attention by closing down in the
8 wake of mounting unpaid health claims. Some MEWAs are operated by sham unions that attract
9 small businesses with underpriced premiums that cannot cover claims costs. When an
10 unscrupulous MEWA goes out of business in one state, it may simply repeat the process in another
11 state, operating under a different name. Thirteen states, including West Virginia, are currently
12 investigating the activities of defunct MEWAs run by the same sham union. It is important to note,
13 however, that not all MEWAs are operated unscrupulously, and that some have successfully
14 secured health insurance coverage for members.

15
16 Because MEWAs are set up as risk-bearing entities composed of employer groups, they claim to be
17 exempt from state regulations under ERISA. State regulations from which MEWAs claim to be
18 exempt include solvency requirements, coverage mandates, rating requirements, premium taxes,
19 and high risk pool assessments. There has been ambiguity and lack of agreement about whether
20 MEWAs are actually entitled to ERISA exemptions. In 1983, Congress amended ERISA so that
21 states could regulate MEWAs with certain exceptions, including plans established under collective
22 bargaining agreements. Until recently, the Labor Department has resisted issuing a determination
23 on whether ERISA applies to MEWAs generally. In late 1998, the Labor Department undertook a
24 negotiated rulemaking process to develop rules enabling state regulators to regulate all MEWAs.
25 At the time that this report was prepared, the negotiated rulemaking process was ongoing.

26
27 California Health Insurance Purchasing Cooperative

28
29 The California Health Insurance Purchasing Cooperative (HIPC) operates in a state with legislation
30 conducive to employer health insurance purchasing alliances and some of the country's most
31 prominent alliances. The California Public Employees Retirement System (CalPERS) is the
32 purchasing pool for state and municipal employers. The Pacific Business Group on Health
33 (PBGH) is an alliance of large employers. Both CalPERS and PBGH conduct enrollee satisfaction
34 surveys and have extensive programs of quality measurement, reporting, and improvement. One of
35 the first alliances for small businesses in the U.S., the HIPC started offering insurance in 1993.
36 The HIPC competes with a newer, smaller alliance of small employers, California Choice.
37 Although the HIPC and California Choice are very similar, California Choice is privately operated
38 and offers different plan options than the HIPC.

39
40 The HIPC was established by state legislation that also introduced reforms of the small group
41 market: guaranteed issue and renewal, limits on exclusions for preexisting conditions, annual open
42 enrollment, and community rating bands of plus-or-minus 10% of average premiums. A state
43 agency with a staff of 13 manages the HIPC, subcontracting basic administration to a private firm
44 chosen through competitive bidding (currently the PBGH). Employers interact directly with the
45 HIPC rather than with multiple insurers, and there is a standardized application form for all plans.
46 Participating insurers are prohibited from offering plans with similar or richer benefits at lower
47 premiums outside the HIPC.

1 The HIPC is open to private firms of 2 to 50 employees and to larger firms that join through
2 qualifying trade associations. Only full-time employees are eligible, and at least 70% of a firm's
3 eligible employees must elect coverage. Benefits are standardized, and employees have a choice of
4 18 HMOs and two POS plans, each with a high and low cost-sharing option. There is also optional
5 dental coverage offered by seven different insurers. Employers must pay at least 50% of the lowest
6 single-coverage premium. Premiums paid by employees vary by age (seven categories), family
7 size (four categories), and geographic region (six categories). Although the HIPC emphasizes
8 consumer choice, plan participation is not automatic. The HIPC negotiates with plans, and
9 participating plans are required to report HEDIS and cost data. Plans are not required to offer
10 coverage in all six regions but must be available throughout their licensed service areas.

11
12 In its first year, 2,500 firms with a total of 44,000 employees joined the HIPC. Membership is now
13 7,500 firms with 140,000 employees, representing 2% to 3% of all eligible firms. The mean
14 number of full-time employees of firms in the HIPC is 10, and nearly 95% have fewer than 25
15 employees. Eighty percent of member firms offered insurance before joining the HIPC. However,
16 few offered employees a choice of health plans.

17
18 The rapid growth in the HIPC's enrollment has been attributed to lower premiums and greater
19 choice than in the outside market. In its first four years, the HIPC achieved 5% to 15% savings in
20 premium costs. Administrative costs were about 3% of premiums, compared to 25% to 40% for
21 small groups and individuals. Further, between 1993 and 1996, competing plans aggressively
22 reduced premiums, and plans with the lowest premiums gained market share accordingly. In
23 contrast to other areas, rural regions attracted fewer participating plans, experienced less price
24 competition, and faced higher premiums. Observers believe that the HIPC might have had
25 spillover effects in the outside small-group market, lowering prices and increasing coverage by 2%.
26 However, it is difficult to separate the effects of competition within the HIPC, insurance market
27 reforms, and fierce price competition in the California managed care market during the mid-1990s.

28
29 It does not appear that the HIPC has attracted an adverse selection of enrollees compared to the
30 general small-group market. However, despite a standardized benefit package and age-adjusted
31 premiums, substantial risk segmentation occurred within the HIPC. PPOs attract a disproportionate
32 share of higher-risk enrollees. During the first two years of the HIPC, the ratio of PPO to HMO
33 premiums rose sharply, and two PPOs withdrew. The state spent approximately a half a million
34 dollars to develop a rudimentary risk adjustment mechanism, introduced in 1996-97. Plans with a
35 disproportionately high number of enrollees with certain high-cost conditions receive payments
36 from plans with disproportionately few such enrollees. In the first year of risk adjustment, the
37 seven plans with the most favorable selection (all HMOs) paid into a fund compensating the two
38 plans with the most adverse selection (PPOs). The transfer was equal to slightly more than 1% of
39 total HIPC premiums.

40
41 Texas Insurance Purchasing Alliance
42

43 The Texas Insurance Purchasing Alliance (TIPA) is a private, non-profit employer alliance. TIPA
44 started offering insurance to employer groups of two to 50 in 1995. Although TIPA was created
45 through state legislation, it operates in a relatively unregulated insurance market. Texas has
46 guaranteed issue but is essentially a risk-rated market because of wide community rating bands.

1 Employees choose a standardized benefit package with two levels of cost-sharing. The lower cost-
2 sharing option is available only if at least 40% of an employer group chooses it. Premiums paid by
3 employees vary by age, gender, and type of coverage (individual or family). After starting with 20
4 insurance carriers, TIPA has experienced severe carrier attrition. Currently, only Blue Cross/Blue
5 Shield offers insurance through TIPA, defeating the intent of consumer choice and carrier
6 competition. At its peak, TIPA insured 13,000 individuals compared to 8,000 currently. In
7 contrast to the California HIPC, 50% of employers belonging to TIPA did not previously offer
8 health insurance. TIPA currently faces the prospect of closing down in the year 2000. In an effort
9 to avert this possibility, TIPA is trying to attract new insurers and is lobbying the state to develop
10 incentives for insurers to participate.

11
12 TIPA's difficulties can be attributed to a variety of factors, including unfavorable legislative and
13 market environments. Limited community rating led to the perception, and possibly the reality that
14 TIPA had become a high-risk pool, driving away participating insurers. Compared to the HIPC,
15 TIPA has a much smaller membership base and a lack of resources for activities such as quality
16 reporting, risk adjustment, and outreach to prospective members. According to a TIPA official, the
17 alliance also experienced resistance from insurers who were not operationally equipped to handle a
18 group of smaller groups. Rather than treating all TIPA enrollees in a plan as one large group,
19 insurers reportedly insisted on maintaining records for each small member group as well as for
20 individuals, thereby preventing cost savings. Insurers' claims and information systems were also
21 not designed to process information from multiple age/sex/type-of-coverage cells. Additionally, in
22 1998, HMOs in Texas experienced losses equal to approximately 5% of revenue.

23
24 CONCLUSION

25
26 The AMA's long-range proposal for health care reform is to transform the current health system
27 from one relying primarily on employment-based coverage to a system of individually selected,
28 purchased, and owned health insurance. Policy H-165.920 [12] recommends replacing the existing
29 tax exclusion for employer expenditures on health insurance with a refundable tax credit equal to a
30 portion of individual or family expenditures on health insurance. Under this proposal, individuals
31 would not be restricted to obtaining insurance through their employers in order to obtain a subsidy.
32 Further, since tax credits would be inversely related to income, subsidies would be targeted to those
33 most likely to be uninsured, creating a greater impact on access than untargeted subsidies.
34 Changing the tax treatment of health insurance expenditures in this manner would have a profound
35 effect on the economic environment regarding the financing, provision, and organization of health
36 insurance. The tax change would create new opportunities for entrepreneurship, and individual
37 voluntary choice cooperatives would be likely to emerge as a natural market response to the
38 changed environment. Policy H-165.882 [14] supports federal legislation enabling the formation
39 of voluntary choice cooperatives through which individuals could purchase insurance.

40
41 This report examined existing employer health insurance purchasing alliances as potential
42 prototypes of individual voluntary choice cooperatives. Evidence suggests that the group size and
43 bargaining power of employer purchasing alliances can achieve cost-savings and expand consumer
44 choice. Often, a key element in success is support from the state, particularly for alliances of small
45 employers. State support includes small-group insurance market reforms and funding for
46 administration, risk adjustment, quality initiatives, and marketing to small employers. However,
47 alliances of small, private-sector employers have succeeded without active state intervention (e.g.,
48 the Ohio Council of Small Enterprises).

1 To date, employer alliances appear to have had limited success in expanding access to the
2 otherwise uninsured, although this varies by state. For instance, only 18% of Colorado's Health
3 Care Purchasing Alliance member groups did not previously offer health insurance, whereas 55%
4 of individuals covered through Florida's CHPAs were previously uninsured. According to
5 Blumberg and Nichols (1997), "Without substantial subsidies,... HIPCs and insurance reforms
6 alone will not reduce the rate of uninsurance very much." The Administration's budget proposal
7 for FY 2000 includes a \$44 million tax credit for businesses with fewer than 50 employees
8 purchasing insurance through nonprofit alliances. Tax credits would equal 10% of the employer's
9 contribution to health insurance with a cap of \$200 for an individual policy and \$500 for a family
10 policy. In contrast to the AMA's more comprehensive proposed tax changes, the Administration's
11 proposal would benefit only employees of small firms and would not facilitate purchase of
12 insurance outside the context of employment.

13

14 Existing employer health insurance purchasing alliances have contained premium costs, expanded
15 individual choice of plans, and extended insurance coverage in some cases. In these respects,
16 employer alliances serve as models for individual voluntary choice cooperatives. However,
17 individual voluntary choice cooperatives envisioned by the AMA may have certain characteristics
18 not shared by all employer alliances. For example, under the AMA proposal, individuals would
19 not be limited to insurance options offered by their employers, and individuals, not employers,
20 would purchase and own their insurance policies. Individuals would be able to choose from
21 multiple plans, and perhaps multiple voluntary choice cooperatives, thus spurring greater
22 competition among plans. The formation of voluntary choice cooperatives, in conjunction with the
23 proposed tax changes, is likely to have a greater impact on access to health insurance than previous
24 employer purchasing alliances. Finally, in contrast with most existing employer alliances,
25 voluntary choice cooperatives could be designed along the lines of the Federal Employees Health
26 Benefit Program (FEHBP), which does not restrict plans to a single standard benefit package, and
27 which includes plans from any insurer that is willing to conform to established standards such as
28 solvency requirements.

29

30 The Council on Medical Service believes that existing employer alliances demonstrate the viability
31 of individual voluntary choice cooperatives. The Council also believes that more research is
32 warranted on the characteristics of successful and unsuccessful employer alliances in order to offer
33 further guidance in the design of voluntary choice cooperatives. The Council will continue to
34 study issues related to institutions resembling voluntary choice cooperatives, and will work toward
35 further refinements, as needed, in the AMA's long-range plan for reform.

36

37 RECOMMENDATION

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39 The Council on Medical Service recommends that the following be adopted and that the remainder
40 of this report be filed:

41

42 That the AMA continue to study existing employer health insurance purchasing alliances
43 that resemble individual "voluntary choice cooperatives" envisioned in the AMA's
44 proposal for individually selected and owned health insurance.