

U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Assistant Secretary for Planning and Evaluation Office of Disability, Aging and Long-Term Care Policy



# Assessing the Potential of Subsidized Health and Retirement Savings Accounts

August 2008

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This report was prepared under contract #HHSP23320095654WC between HHS's ASPE/DALTCP and the Urban Institute. For additional information about this subject, you can visit the DALTCP home page at http://aspe.hhs.gov/\_/office\_specific/daltcp.cfm or contact the office at HHS/ASPE/DALTCP, Room 424E, H.H. Humphrey Building, 200 Independence Avenue, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20201. The e-mail address is: webmaster.DALTCP@hhs.gov. The Project Officer was Hunter McKay.

# ASSESSING THE POTENTIAL OF SUBSIDIZED HEALTH AND RETIREMENT SAVINGS ACCOUNTS

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# INTRODUCTION

Long-term care spending is expected to soar in coming decades as the population ages (Johnson, Toohey, & Wiener 2007). Because Medicaid and Medicare together finance about two-thirds of the nation's formal long-term care costs (Georgetown University Long-Term Care Financing Project 2007), the expected surge in usage could further strain government budgets that are already stretched thin. One solution might be to increase private saving for long-term care needs, thereby increasing the pool of funds that could finance future services and reducing reliance on public resources. Recent efforts to boost private saving for long-term care have focused on encouraging people to purchase private long-term care insurance, but they have not been very successful. Only about 9 percent of adults ages 55 and older had private coverage in 2002, the number of policies sold has declined steadily since 2002, and tax incentives do not appear to stimulate coverage rates very much (Congressional Budget Office 2008; Johnson, Schaner, Toohey, & Uccello 2007).

An alternative way of encouraging people to save for future long-term care costs might be to create special government-subsidized savings accounts to fund future long-term care needs. These so-called Health and Retirement Savings Accounts (HRSAs) would allow workers to make tax-advantaged contributions to investment accounts that could be used to purchase long-term care insurance. Because few workers contribute the maximum amount permitted under law to existing tax-favored savings vehicles such as individual retirement accounts (IRA) and defined-contribution (DC) pension plans, the government would likely need to offer additional incentives to spur participation, such as by matching worker contributions.

This report examines the potential for these government-subsidized savings accounts to fund future long-term care needs. It simulates long-term care account accumulations for today's young workers under various scenarios for government matching contributions. The study compares participation and accumulations by demographic group and projects Medicaid savings, lost tax revenue, and government spending on matching contributions.

# SPECIFYING HEALTH AND RETIREMENT SAVINGS ACCOUNTS

We simulate participation in HRSAs that would allow participants to accumulate savings tax-free to cover future long-term care expenses. The accounts we model have the following features:

- Participants would contribute pre-tax dollars.
- To limit the loss of tax revenue to the Federal Government, total contributions from participants and the government could not exceed \$1,000 per year in 2008.

The maximum annual total contribution would grow over time at the same rate as economy-wide average wages. This contribution ceiling would permit participants who contribute steadily beginning at age 25 to accumulate more than enough funds to cover the one-time cost of a comprehensive lifetime long-term care insurance policy at age 55 (which we estimate would cost about \$16,000 in today's dollars).

- Both participant and government contributions would accumulate tax-free.
- Participants accumulating enough funds to purchase a long-term care insurance policy at age 55 would be required to obtain coverage. Participants with an account balance that is insufficient to cover the full one-time cost of a lifetime policy could use their account balances only to cover future long-term care expenses. Participants with excess funds after purchasing long-term care insurance could use funds for selected other purposes (such as medical costs).

Under the baseline scenario the HRSA would not include a government match, and all adults, regardless of income level, could participate beginning at age 25. In alternative scenarios the government would match individual contributions, at rates of 20 percent, 50 percent, 100 percent, or 150 percent. Additionally, because policy makers may want to limit government matching contributions to low and moderate-income workers, we simulate additional scenarios in which participation is limited to individuals with income below either 200 percent or 400 percent of the federal poverty line (FPL).

## **METHODS**

We estimate participation rates in HRSAs and contribution amounts based on IRA contributions observed in the Survey of Income and Program Participation (SIPP) and on the results of an experiment measuring the impact of matching contributions (Duflo et al. 2005). We apply the estimated participation rates and contribution amounts to the Urban Institute's DYNASIM3 microsimulation model to project what adults turning age 25 between 2008 and 2013 might accumulate by age 55. First we identify adults in DYNASIM3 who would likely participate in HRSAs based on their characteristics at age 40. We base the lifetime participation decision on age 40 characteristics, even though individual circumstances change over time, to keep the analysis tractable, given the project's budget. This approach likely overstates participation, however. We then simulate contributions in each year for those predicted to participate.

One complication with this analysis is that many workers currently do not take full advantage of pre-tax retirement savings vehicles or even employer-matching contributions (Kawachi, Smith, & Toder 2006). Since workers would have less discretion over the use of funds in HRSAs than funds in IRAs and DC retirement accounts, we assume workers would not contribute to HRSAs in years in which they

could make contributions under the same terms (or better) to an existing savings vehicle.

We also assess the government budgetary implications of HRSAs. To estimate Medicaid savings, we simulate Medicaid long-term care expenditures in the absence of HRSAs based on published projections of future expenditures and recent estimates of the likelihood that adults experience Medicaid-financed nursing home stays (Johnson & Mermin 2008; Kemper, Komisar, & Alecxih 2005). To estimate the annual cost of subsidizing HRSAs we also simulate participation and contributions in 2008 among all adults in DYNASIM3 ages 25 and older (not just those turning age 25 between 2008 and 2013). All financial amounts are reported in inflation-adjusted 2008 dollars. See the appendix for further details on the methods.

## RESULTS

Table 1 shows the proportion of adults turning age 25 between 2008 and 2013 who would have better savings options than HRSAs at age 40. We identify someone as having a better saving option than the HRSA if they have not maxed out their taxdeferred DC plan contributions or IRA contributions (according to our projections), and the match (if any) on those contributions is at least as generous as the HRSA match. The results indicate that the government would have to match HRSA contributions to achieve any significant level of participation, particularly among low and moderateincome families. Without government matches, 94 percent of adults would have better savings options than HRSAs, including all adults in the bottom half of the income distribution, because few workers contribute the maximum to their IRAs or DC pensions. If the government were to offer matching contributions, however, HRSAs become a potentially viable option for most people. With a 20 percent and 50 percent government match, fewer than 10 percent of adults have better savings options, although the share increases with income because high earners are more likely to participate in DC retirement plans than low earners. Virtually no adults have better options than the HRSAs with a 100 percent or 150 percent government match rate. Of course, the requirement that some funds be used to purchase long-term care insurance might make HRSAs less appealing than other savings vehicles, even with high match rates, especially if workers believe that the government will pay for their long-term care if they do not save.

Table 2 describes outcomes under HRSAs with various match rates, assuming no income restriction on who can participate. Consistent with Table 1, very few people would contribute to HRSAs without government matching contributions. Only 1 percent of adults would participate if there were no match, and less than one-half of these participants would accumulate enough funds to purchase a private long-term care insurance policy at age 55.

Offering matching contributions would boost participation rates and generate significant account balances among participants. We project that almost 10 percent of

adults would participate if the match rate was 20 percent, and nearly all participants would accumulate enough funds to purchase a long-term care policy at age 55. Average account balances per participant--nearly \$70,000--and average individual contributions--about \$45,000--would exceed the combined cost of government matching contributions and lost federal tax revenue--about \$18,400. We estimate that account accumulations would reduce average Medicaid expenditures per participant by about \$19,100, resulting in net government savings of about \$700 per participant. On average participants' account balances would exceed \$53,000 after subtracting the cost of purchasing private long-term care policies.

Although accumulations per participant are substantial under a 20 percent match, higher match rates are necessary to induce more than 1 in 10 adults to participate. Participation rates increase to 15 percent, 26 percent, and 37 percent under the 50 percent, 100 percent, and 150 percent match scenarios. Account accumulations per participant increase only modestly with higher match rates because participants would contribute the maximum amount in most years under all of the matching scenarios, partly because we assume that participants contribute every year in which they do not have better savings options. Because total individual and government contributions are limited to \$1,000 and we estimate that participants generally contribute the maximum amount, increasing the match rate reduces individual contributions per participant. Individual contributions per participant fall from \$45,000 with a 20 percent match to \$23,500 with a 150 percent match, while the government's cost per participant increases from \$9,000 to \$35,000. Nonetheless, accumulations per participant exceed the cost to the government under the higher match scenarios, though government costs exceed Medicaid savings.

While accumulations *per participant* increase only modestly under higher match rates, the increase in participation results in greater accumulations *per adult* (regardless of HRSA participation). Accumulations per adult increase from less than \$7,000 with a 20 percent match to nearly \$28,000 with a 150 percent match.

Because government matches crowd out individual contributions, matching contributions become less efficient as match rates increase. With a 20 percent match \$1 of government spending increases total individual contributions by about \$2.5 and total accumulations by about \$3.8. Both of these figures decline as the match rate increases, with every additional dollar of government spending with a 150 percent match generating an additional \$0.6 in individual contributions and \$1.9 in total accumulations.

Table 3 and Table 4 present outcomes for scenarios in which individuals can contribute only in years in which their incomes fall below certain thresholds. The Table 3 threshold equals 400 percent of FPL in 2008, and then grows over time at the same rate as economy-wide wages. The Table 4 threshold is set at 200 percent of FPL in 2008.<sup>1</sup> Account accumulations per participant are significantly lower when only adults

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Because the FPL increases with the price level and wages grow faster than prices over the long run, the thresholds as a percentage of FPL will increase over time.

with incomes below 400 percent of FPL can contribute, and especially when only those with incomes below 200 percent of FPL can contribute. Average account accumulations at age 55 range from about \$69,500 to \$75,000 per participant when there are no income restrictions on contributions, from \$37,000 to \$42,000 when contributions are restricted to those below 400 percent of FPL, and from \$23,500 to \$25,000 when contributions are restricted to those below 200 percent of FPL. Net government savings per participant increase when annual contributions are income-restricted because the government spends less money subsidizing accumulations beyond levels necessary for purchasing long-term care policies. The government also saves more when high-income workers are excluded from the program because they are less likely to go on to use Medicaid-financed long-term care. The portion *ever* participating declines only slightly when contributions are limited to years in which income falls below 400 percent of FPL and declines modestly when participation is restricted to those with incomes below 200 percent of FPL.

Table 5 shows account participation by educational attainment and lifetime earnings quintile. Better educated individuals and those with higher lifetime earnings are more likely to participate than those with less education and lower earnings. Under the matching contribution scenarios participation rates are 5-7 percentage points higher for college graduates than those who did not complete high school and 8-12 percentage points higher for adults in the top lifetime earnings quintile than those in the bottom quintile.

Table 6 and Table 7 show participation rates and account accumulations by education and earnings group when annual contributions are restricted to those with incomes below 400 percent and 200 percent of FPL, respectively. When contributions are restricted to adults with incomes below 400 percent of FPL, accumulations decline with education and lifetime earnings. College graduates who participate accumulate between \$29,500 and \$33,500 on average by age 55, compared with about \$52,000-\$55,000 for adults without a high school diploma. Participants in the top lifetime earnings quintile accumulate only about \$12,500-\$13,500, on average, while those in the bottom guintile accumulate between \$66,500 and \$70,000. Although accumulations decline with education and lifetime earnings, the percentage ever participating does not fall, because few workers exceed the threshold in every year. When the income threshold falls to 200 percent of FPL the percentage ever participating is lower for those near the top of the income distribution than for those near the bottom. With 150 percent matching contributions, only 15.5 percent of adults in the top earnings quintile ever participate and they accumulate average balances of less than \$5,500, compared with more than 31 percent of adults in the bottom earnings guintile participating and final average account balances of nearly \$56,500.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The income restrictions have less impact on the portion ever participating than on accumulations primarily because of the way we simulate these outcomes. To keep the approach manageable, we simulate participation only once, based on age 40 characteristics, not at every age. Because family income varies over time and we do not wish to disqualify someone from ever participating based only on age 40 income, the income restriction does not affect the participation prediction. The income restriction does, however, affect contributions each year.

Table 8 shows total government outlays and tax expenditures in 2008 when we simulate HRSA participation and contributions among all adults ages 25 and older (as opposed to the cohort turning age 25 between 2008 and 2013). With no income restriction total government costs range from \$3.4 billion with a 20 percent match to \$28.8 billion with a 150 percent match. Government costs are substantially lower under the income-restricted scenarios. For instance, with a 150 percent match total costs are \$15.8 billion if contributions are restricted to adults with incomes below 400 percent of FPL and \$7.6 billion if the income cutoff is set at 200 percent of FPL.

## DISCUSSION

We find that HRSAs with government matching contributions could result in significant savings for long-term care expenses for a subset of the population. These accumulations could reduce Medicaid long-term care expenditures and, if matching contributions were income-restricted, HRSAs could actually save the government money. For instance, with 50-percent matching contributions restricted to adults with incomes below 400 percent of FPL, the government might save \$3,000 per participant.

Our conclusions, however, are somewhat tentative. The estimates hinge crucially on the results of a study of the impact of matching contributions on IRA contributions among H&R Block customers. Use of funds in HRSAs would be more restricted than funds in IRAs, suggesting that our estimates are likely upper bounds on participation. Another reason we would expect HRSA participation to be lower than in the H&R Block study is that tax-preparers asked individuals in the study if they would like to contribute and completed the necessary paperwork for them. Studies have shown that availability of information and ease of participation can spur participation in savings vehicles. Participation in HRSAs would likely require substantial initiative by consumers.

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## **TABLES**

TABLE 1. Percent of Adults Turning 25 Between 2008 and 2013 with Better Savings Options								
Than HRSAs at Age 40, by Government Matching Scenario								
	No Match         20 Percent Match         50 Percent Match         100 Percent Match         150 Percent Match							
All	93.5	9.1	8.1	1.0	0.1			
Income Quartile at Age 40								
Bottom	100.0	3.3	3.0	0.2	0.0			
Second	100.0	6.1	5.7	0.4	0.0			
Third	93.5	9.5	8.6	1.4	0.0			
Тор	85.4	14.2	12.3	1.5	0.2			
SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on DXNASIM3								

sed on DYNASIM3.

NOTE: Respondents have better savings options if they can contribute to IRAs or DC pension plans on terms at least as favorable as HRSAs.

TABLE 2. HRSA Outcomes, by Government Match Rate							
	No Match	20 Percent Match	50 Percent Match	100 Percent Match	150 Percent Match		
Pct. of Adults Ever Participating	1.0	9.7	15.2	26.3	37.1		
Pct. of Participants Accumulating Enough Funds to Purchase Private LTC Insurance	42.3	99.3	99.1	100.0	100.0		
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Participa	nt (2008 \$)						
Accumulations	19,048	69,655	69,724	74,663	74,120		
Excess Accumulations	7,627	53,379	53,454	58,373	58,830		
Individual Contributions	15,825	45,296	36,321	29,242	23,539		
Government Contributions		9,059	18,161	29,242	35,308		
Tax Expenditures	4,304	9,376	7,399	5,922	4,742		
Medicaid Savings	8,899	19,141	17,352	17,728	17,913		
Net Government Cost	-4,595	-705	8,208	17,435	22,138		
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Adult (20	08 \$)						
Accumulations	189	6,778	10,627	19,616	27,900		
Excess Accumulations	76	5,194	8,147	15,336	21,849		
Individual Contributions	157	4,408	5,536	7,683	8,742		
Government Contributions		882	2,768	7,683	13,114		
Tax Expenditures	43	912	1,128	1,556	1,761		
Medicaid Savings	88	1,863	2,645	4,658	6,653		
Net Government Cost	-46	-69	1,251	4,581	8,222		
Total Accumulations/(Total Government Contributions + Tax Expenditures)	4.4	3.8	2.7	2.1	1.9		
Total Individual Contributions/ (Total Government Contributions + Tax Expenditures)	3.7	2.5	1.4	0.8	0.6		

SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3. NOTE: Contributions and tax expenditures are expressed as future values at age 55 using a 3 percent real discount rate. Medicaid savings are expressed as the expected present value at age 55. A private long-term care insurance policy is assumed to cost \$16,000 at age 55 in today's dollars.

with Incomes Below 400 Percent of FPL							
	20 Percent	50 Percent	100 Percent	150 Percent			
	Match	Match	Match	Match			
Pct. Ever Participating	9.2	14.5	25.2	35.8			
Pct. of Participants Accumulating							
Enough Funds to Purchase Private LTC	76.3	77.2	81.1	81.3			
Insurance							
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Participant (2008	\$)	-					
Accumulations	37,036	38,495	41,456	41,938			
Excess Accumulations	22,545	23,842	26,543	27,009			
Individual Contributions	23,531	19,649	15,923	12,899			
Government Contributions	4,706	9,824	15,923	19,348			
Tax Expenditures	3,541	2,954	2,390	1,930			
Medicaid Savings	17,535	15,718	16,302	16,453			
Net Government Cost	-9,288	-2,940	2,011	4,825			
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Adult (2008 \$)							
Accumulations	3,391	5,575	10,467	14,996			
Excess Accumulations	2,064	3,453	6,702	9,658			
Individual Contributions	2,155	2,846	4,020	4,612			
Government Contributions	431	1,423	4,020	6,918			
Tax Expenditures	324	428	603	690			
Medicaid Savings	1,606	2,276	4,116	5,883			
Net Government Cost	-851	-426	508	1,725			
Total Accumulations/(Total Government	4.5	3.0	2.3	2.0			
Contributions + Tax Expenditures)		0.0					
Total Individual Contributions/(Total							
Government Contributions + Tax	2.9	1.5	0.9	0.6			
Expenditures)							

TABLE 3 HRSA Outcomes by Government Match Rate Contributions Restricted to Adults

**SOURCE**: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3.

**NOTE**: Contributions and tax expenditures are expressed as future values at age 55 using a 3 percent real discount rate. Medicaid savings are expressed as the expected present value at age 55. A private long-term care insurance policy is assumed to cost \$16,000 at age 55 in today's dollars.

with Incomes Below 200 Percent of FPL								
	20 Percent	50 Percent	100 Percent	150 Percent				
	Match	Match	Match	Match				
Pct. Ever Participating	6.7	11.1	20.1	28.5				
Pct. of Participants Accumulating								
Enough Funds to Purchase Private LTC	50.0	50.0	50.9	51.8				
Insurance								
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Participant (2008	<u>s</u> \$)		1					
Accumulations	23,438	23,628	24,684	25,046				
Excess Accumulations	11,705	11,981	12,846	13,097				
Individual Contributions	14,821	12,015	9,448	7,674				
Government Contributions	2,964	6,008	9,448	11,511				
Tax Expenditures	1,774	1,434	1,125	914				
Medicaid Savings	14,987	13,258	13,294	13,618				
Net Government Cost	-10,249	-5,816	-2,721	-1,192				
Mean Value at Age 55 Per Adult (2008 \$)								
Accumulations	1,575	2,626	4,953	7,142				
Excess Accumulations	786	1,331	2,578	3,735				
Individual Contributions	996	1,335	1,896	2,188				
Government Contributions	199	668	1,896	3,282				
Tax Expenditures	119	159	226	261				
Medicaid Savings	1,007	1,473	2,668	3,883				
Net Government Cost	-689	-646	-546	-340				
Total Accumulations/(Total Government	4.9	3.2	2.3	2.0				
Contributions + Tax Expenditures)								
Total Individual Contributions/(Total								
Government Contributions + Tax	3.1	1.6	0.9	0.6				
Expenditures)								

TABLE 4 HRSA Outcomes by Government Match Rate, Contributions Restricted to Adults

SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3.

NOTE: Contributions and tax expenditures are expressed as future values at age 55 using a 3 percent real discount rate. Medicaid savings are expressed as the expected present value at age 55. A private long-term care insurance policy is assumed to cost \$16,000 at age 55 in today's dollars.

TABLE 5. HRSA Participation by Education and Income								
	No Match	20 Percent Match	50 Percent Match	100 Percent Match	150 Percent Match			
All	1.0	9.7	15.2	26.3	37.1			
Education								
Less Than High School	0.0	7.2	13.5	23.9	34.8			
High School Graduate	0.4	7.3	12.5	23.4	34.1			
Some College	0.7	8.2	13.9	24.4	34.8			
College Graduate	1.9	13.2	18.7	30.2	41.5			
Lifetime Earnings Quintile								
Bottom	0.1	6.3	11.3	21.2	31.2			
Middle	0.8	9.4	14.6	25.4	36.7			
Тор	2.3	14.3	19.7	31.6	43.3			

SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3.

NOTE: Lifetime earnings guintiles are based on household earnings. Household earnings include an individual's entire value in years he or she is single and half of the couple's value in years he or she is married.

TABLE 6. HRSA Participation and Average Accumulations Per Participant at Age 55 by Education and Earnings Annual									
Contributions Are Restricted to Adults with Incomes Below 400 Percent of FPL									
	20 Perc	ent Match	50 Percent Match		100 Perc	cent Match	150 Per	150 Percent Match	
	Participation (percent)	Accumulations (real dollars)							
All	9.2	37,036	14.5	38,495	25.3	41,456	35.8	41,938	
Education									
Less Than High School	7.1	52,650	13.4	52,149	23.8	54,894	34.6	53,868	
High School Graduate	7.1	46,466	12.2	46,523	23.0	49,103	33.6	49,067	
Some College	8.0	38,580	13.6	40,447	23.7	42,613	33.8	43,177	
College Graduate	12.0	29,486	17.2	30,247	28.3	32,845	38.9	33,505	
Lifetime Earnings Quintile									
Bottom	6.3	66,786	11.3	66,663	21.2	69,609	31.2	69,774	
Middle	9.4	40,400	14.6	40,804	25.4	44,654	36.7	45,137	
Тор	11.5	12,918	16.1	12,599	26.6	13,441	36.6	13,186	
SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3. NOTE: Lifetime earnings quintiles are based on household earnings. Household earnings include an individual's entire value in years he or she is single and half of the couple's value in years he or she is married.									

TABLE 7. HRSA Participation and Average Accumulations Per Participant at Age 55 by Education and Earnings Annual									
Contributions Are Restricted to Adults with Incomes Below 200 Percent of FPL									
	20 Perc	ent Match	50 Perc	ent Match	100 Per	cent Match	150 Perc	150 Percent Match	
	Participation (percent)	Accumulations (real dollars)							
All	6.7	23,438	11.1	23,628	20.1	24,684	28.5	25,046	
Education									
Less Than High School	6.8	34.002	12.8	33,057	22.7	34,604	33.2	33,490	
High School Graduate	6.0	27,608	10.5	26,837	20.5	28,195	29.7	28,535	
Some College	5.7	23,551	10.6	23,906	19.1	24,019	27.5	24,092	
College Graduate	7.8	18,396	11.5	18,418	19.5	19,015	26.9	19,667	
Lifetime Earnings Quintile									
Bottom	6.3	53,947	11.3	53,682	21.2	56,497	31.2	56,429	
Middle	8.2	14,235	13.0	13,495	23.8	13,679	34.3	13,757	
Тор	4.4	6,291	6.4	5,810	10.9	5,446	15.4	5,418	
SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), and DYNASIM3. NOTE: Lifetime earnings quintiles are based on household earnings. Household earnings include an individual's entire value in years he or she is single and half of the couple's value in years he or she is married.									
value in years ne of sne is mamed.									

TABLE 8. Government Outlays and Tax Expenditures for HRSA by Match Rate, 2008							
(thousands of dollars)							
	No Match	20 Percent	50 Percent	100 Percent	150 Percent		
	NO Match	Match	Match	Match	Match		
No Income Restriction							
Outlays		1,678,277	5,282,474	14,787,591	25,391,943		
Tax Expenditure	89,841	1,717,539	2,111,427	2,963,958	3,371,952		
Totals	89,841	3,395,817	7,393,901	17,751,549	28,763,895		
Contributions Restricted,	Incomes < 400%	of FPL					
Outlays		888,940	2,967,445	8,280,958	14,375,892		
Tax Expenditure		658,219	876,922	1,227,915	1,419,580		
Totals		1,547,159	3,844,367	9,508,873	15,795,473		
Contributions Restricted, Incomes < 200% of FPL							
Outlays		421,779	1,442,100	4,013,856	7,014,550		
Tax Expenditure		252,068	343,984	478,971	557,150		
Totals		673,847	1,786,084	4,492,828	7,571,699		
SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in							
the H&R Block experiment (	Duflo et al. 2005),	and DYNASIM3.					

**NOTE**: Total government cost estimates based on simulating participation and contributions among all adults age 25 and older.

# METHODS APPENDIX

We assess the potential of HRSAs to increase private saving for future long-term care needs by simulating participation and account balances in DYNASIM3, the Urban Institute's microsimulation model. Simulated HRSA participation rates and contribution amounts are based on observed patterns of IRA contributions in the SIPP. We use results from an H&R Block random assignment experiment of the impact of matching contributions on IRA saving to account for government matching of HRSA contributions. The simulations project individual contributions, account accumulations, government spending, and Medicaid savings at age 55 for adults turning age 25 between 2008 and 2013. We project outcomes under different scenarios that vary by government matching contributions and whether higher income people would be allowed to participate. To estimate the annual cost of subsidizing HRSAs we also simulate participation and contributions in 2008 among all adults in DYNASIM3 ages 25 and older.

#### **Literature Review**

To gain insight into who might contribute to HRSAs and the impact of government matching contributions we reviewed the literature on the determinants of IRA and DC retirement plan participation and contribution amounts. Previous research shows that participation and contributions increase with earnings, income, education, and age (Andrews 1992; Bassett, Fleming, & Rodrigues 1998; Clark & Schieber 1998; Clark, Goodfellow, Schieber, & Warwick 2000; Hinz & Turner 1998; Holden & VanDerhei 2001; Kusko, Poterba, & Wilcox 1998; Munnell, Sundén, & Taylor 2003; Smith, Johnson, & Muller 2004). DC plan participation rates also increase when employers make enrollment easy or provide their workers with financial education (Bernheim & Garrett 2003; Choi, Laibsen, & Madrian 2004; Duflo & Saez 2003).

Matching contributions (usually by employers) appear to increase participation in savings vehicles, although the size of the impact is unclear. Estimates of the impact of matching contributions on DC plan participation range from 1 to 33 percentage points (Bassett, Fleming, & Rodrigues 1998; Clark & Schieber 1998; Clark, Goodfellow, Schieber, & Warwick 2000; Even & Macpherson 1994, 2004; Huberman, Iyengar, & Jiang 2007; Papke 1995; Papke, Petersen, & Poterba 1996). However, most of these studies fail to account for the potential endogoneity of employer match rates and employee savings behavior, potentially biasing their results (Even & Macpherson 2004). The best evidence of the impact of matching contributions comes from an experimental study that offered matching funds for IRA contributions to a random sample of H&R Block customers seeking tax-preparation assistance (Duflo et al. 2005). It finds that a 50 percent match would increase the likelihood of contributing by 10 percentage points.

Matching contributions' impact on contribution amounts for those who contribute is even less certain than the impact on the likelihood of contributing. Some studies find that employer-matching reduces worker contributions to DC plans (because matches allow participants to reach a given target account balance by contributing less money than they could without the match), whereas others find opposite effects (Andrews 1992; Clark & Schieber 1998; Munnell, Sundén, & Taylor 2003). Again, the best evidence comes from the H&R Block study, which finds that a 50 percent match increases contributions by nearly \$350 (Duflo et al. 2005).

We base our analysis on IRA contributions rather than on DC plan contributions because, like IRAs, HRSAs would not be administered by employers. Additionally, the H&R Block's IRA study provides the most convincing evidence on the impact of matching contributions on savings behavior.

#### **Estimating IRA Participation and Contributions**

We begin by estimating the likelihood of contributing to an IRA and contribution amounts among contributors in Wave 7 of the 2001 SIPP panel. The SIPP is a nationally representative longitudinal survey administered by the U.S. Census Bureau. The core survey collects basic information on demographics, employment, income, and program participation, and special modules collect additional information on various topics, including assets and IRA contributions. The reference period for Wave 7 is February-May 2003.

We estimate a probit model of the likelihood of contributing to an IRA and an ordinary least squares (OLS) model of contributions among contributors. We restrict the probit sample to 9,128 respondents ages 35-45 because we base HRSA participation on age 40 characteristics. The OLS sample consists of 714 respondents ages 25-55--the group eligible to contribute to the HRSA--who contribute to IRAs. About 4 percent of adults in our probit sample contribute to IRAs, and the average contribution among contributors in our OLS sample is \$2,200. The models control for gender, age, marital status, race, education, employment status, homeownership, defined-benefit pension coverage, household income, and household wealth.<sup>3</sup> We measure contribution amounts, as well as household income and wealth, relative to average Social Security-covered earnings, because that is how we measure them in the simulations.

Table A1 reports the model results. The likelihood of contributing to IRAs at ages 35-44 increases with education and household income, and is higher among employed adults and homeowners than other groups. African Americans and Hispanics are less likely to contribute than Whites, and married and (especially) divorced adults are less likely to contribute than never married adults. Among contributors, contribution amounts increase with household income and wealth, and are lower among African Americans and Hispanics than among Whites.

To account for the impact of government matching contributions on HRSA participation, we use results from the H&R Block study to adjust our SIPP estimates. Regression coefficients from Duflo et al. (2005) show the impact of 20 percent and 50 percent match rates on the likelihood of contributing to an IRA by income quintile,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Household wealth includes bank accounts, stocks, bonds, housing, other real estate, vehicles, and businesses, net of mortgage and other debt.

marital status, homeownership, receipt of investment income, and DC pension participation. We extrapolate impacts for 100 percent and 150 percent match rates based on the 50 percent match rate coefficients. We then apply these differentials effects, reported in Table A2, to our simulations. For instance, under the 50 percent matching scenario we increase the participation rate for married homeowners in the top income quintile by 11.8 percentage points (8.3 + 4.5 + 2.3 - 3.2).

#### Simulating HRSAs in DYNASIM

We next apply participation and contribution rates based on the SIPP and the H&R Block study to the Urban Institute's DYNASIM3 microsimulation model to project longterm care account accumulations at age 55. DYNASIM3 starts with the 1990-1993 panels of the SIPP and forecasts future demographic, social, and economic characteristics of the population by simulating births, deaths, marriages, divorces, work decisions, disability, and earnings.<sup>4</sup> Our simulation sample consists of adults turning age 25 in 2008-2013.

When simulating HRSAs we first predict whether individuals in DYNASIM3 would participate based on their characteristics at age 40 and the estimated parameters from our SIPP model, adjusted by the H&R Block experiment results. We then simulate contributions in each year for those we identify as participants. One complication with this analysis is that many workers do not now take full advantage of pre-tax retirement savings vehicles or even employer-matching contributions. Since workers would have less discretion over the use of funds in HRSAs than funds in IRAs and DC retirement accounts, we assume that individuals predicted to participate would not in fact contribute to the new accounts in years in which they could contribute to an existing savings vehicle on equal or better terms. For instance, we assume individuals would not contribute in years in which they belonged to DC pension plans with employer match rates at least as generous as what the government would provide for HRSAs, unless they contribute enough to their pensions to maximize employer-matching contributions. Similarly, we assume individuals would not contribute to HRSAs in years in which they are eligible for IRAs but contribute less than the maximum amount, unless the HRSA includes a government match.

We also simulate outcomes when contributions are restricted to low-income adults. Under these scenarios, we predict participation based on characteristics at age 40 in the same manner as the non-restricted scenarios but do not allow participants to contribute in years in which their incomes exceed the specified threshold. The income restrictions reduce participation rates only for cases in which individuals predicted to participate exceed the income threshold in all years. Consequently the income restrictions have larger impacts on account accumulations than on participation rates.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> See Favreault & Smith (2004) for more information on DYNASIM3.

#### **Rate of Return**

We assume HRSA participants would invest 50 percent of their portfolio in stockindex funds and 50 percent in bond-index funds, yielding a real return of 4.6 percent. These are the same assumptions used by the Social Security actuaries when evaluating personal account reform proposals (Social Security Administration 2002). We assume an annual discount rate of 3 percent in our present and future value calculations.

#### **Cost of Long-Term Care Policy**

We estimate the cost of a long-term care policy at age 55 in 2037 to be \$16,000 in today's dollars. The estimate is based on the expected present value of insurance premiums for a plan from the Federal Long-Term Care Insurance Program which currently provides benefits of \$100 per day for up to 3 years, with maximum lifetime benefits of \$109,500. In 2008 this policy charges a new 55-year-old policy holder annual premiums of \$912 (Federal Long Term Care Insurance Program 2008). We assume that real long-term care costs, and hence the inflation-adjusted price of private long-term care insurance, will grow at the same rate as average real wages, because long-term care services are quite labor intensive. We use the Social Security trustees' assumption that real wages increase each year by 1 percent.

#### **Medicaid Savings**

To estimate how much money HRSAs could save Medicaid, we first simulate the present value at age 55 of Medicaid long-term expenditures in the absence of HRSAs for each adult in our sample. Kemper, Komisar, & Alecxih (2005) project the average distribution of future Medicaid long-term care expenditures for all older adults. Johnson & Mermin (2008) estimate how the likelihood of any Medicaid long-term care expenditures vary by lifetime earnings for men and women. We combine these two sources of information and our assumption about long-term care cost inflation to estimate expected Medicaid long-term care expenditures by lifetime earnings quintile, as reported in Table A3. The estimates assume that lifetime earnings affect the likelihood of ever using Medicaid-financed long-term care expenditures, but not the level of costs incurred by recipients.

We then simulate Medicaid savings for each individual based on their expected Medicaid long-term care expenditures in the absence of HRSAs, whether the individual has enough funds to purchase long-term care insurance, and the size of any remaining account balance. We assume insurance benefits and HRSA balances reduce Medicaid expenditures dollar-for-dollar, and that adults with account balances that exceed the cost of a long-term care policy would spend half of their excess funds on non-long-term care expenses before they use any long-term care services. For adults with long-term care insurance, Medicaid savings equal expected Medicaid long-term care expenditures in the absence of HRSAs if these expenses are less than the policy's maximum lifetime benefits plus half the excess funds in the HRSA; otherwise Medicaid savings equals the policy's maximum lifetime benefits plus half the remaining HRSA funds. For adults without insurance, savings equal expected Medicaid long-term care expenditures if they fall short of the account balance; otherwise savings equal the account balance. Table A4 shows Medicaid savings under alternative assumptions about the use of excess funds--that participants save all exceed funds for long-term care expenses or that they spend all of the funds on other expenses.

#### Lost Tax Revenue

We assume that HRSA participants would have paid federal income taxes on their annual account contributions if HRSAs did not exist. We estimate these foregone tax payments using the marginal tax rate that the individual would face, based on family income and number of dependents, assuming that 2008 tax rates continued indefinitely. Our estimate of lost tax revenue equals the discounted value of this stream.

#### Limitations

There are a number of important limitations to this analysis which together imply that our results should be interpreted as upper bounds on HRSA participation and accumulations.

#### Restricted Use of Funds May Limit Participation

The most speculative aspect of this analysis is basing participation and contributions on IRAs that have far fewer restrictions on the use of account balances than the HRSAs we modeled. We partially address this issue by assuming that participants do not contribute in years in which they can contribute to IRAs and DC pension plans on terms that are at least as favorable. But some people may actually prefer contributing to existing pre-tax retirement accounts with less-favorable financial terms than HRSAs because they can use IRA and DC plan account balances however they choose in retirement. Additionally, people may be reluctant to invest in HRSAs if they believe that the government will cover their future long-term care costs.

#### Participation Should be Dynamic

We assume participants contribute to HRSAs in all years between ages 25 and 55, when in fact participation would almost assuredly vary over time. We partially address this issue by assuming that participants do not contribute in years in which they would have better savings options or in years in which their incomes exceed the specified thresholds in income-tested scenarios. Estimating fully dynamic participation models is beyond the scope of this project. If we had simulated participation each year, the proportion ever participating would be higher than our current estimates, and the average accumulations per participant would be lower.

#### H&R Block Experiment Made Contributing Easy

In the H&R Block experiment tax-preparers asked individuals seeking taxpreparation help if they wanted to contribute to an IRA, thus simplifying the participation process. Research suggests that access to information and ease of participation can significantly boost participation rates in DC pension plans, so our simulations may overstate HRSA participation.

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#### Tables

TABLE A1. Coefficients from HRSA Participation and Contribution Models							
	Likelihood of Contributing	Contribution Amount					
Female	-0.077 (0.051)	-0.003 (0.003)					
Age							
25-34 spline		0.001 (0.001)					
35-44 spline		0.073 (0.048)					
45-54 spline		-0.001 (0.001)					
35-44 indicator		0.048 (0.035)					
45-54 indicator		0.000 (0.000)					
Marital Status							
[Reference: Never married]							
Married	-0.192 *** (0.076)	-0.006 (0.004)					
Widowed	-0.458 (0.440)	-0.002 (0.019)					
Divorced	-0.336 *** (0.109)	-0.005 (0.006)					
Education							
Did not complete high school	-0249 * (0.142)	-0.006 (0.010)					
[Reference: High school							
graduate]							
Some college	0.153 ** (0.072)	0.001 (0.004)					
College graduate	0.467 *** (0.072)	0.000 (0.004)					
Graduate degree	0.540 *** (0.084)	0.004 (0.005)					
Race and Ethnicity							
[Reference: White]							
African American	-0.313 *** (0.108)	-0.017 *** (0.007)					
Hispanic	-0.329 *** (0.113)	-0.020 *** (0.008)					
Other race	-0.109 (0.112)	-0.011 (0.007)					
Employed	0.242 *** (0.076)	-0.005 (0.004)					
Homeowner	0.308 *** (0.072)	0.002 (0.004)					
Defined-Benefit Pension	-0.069 (0.060)	-0.005 (0.003)					
Family Income	0.044 *** (0.012)	0.002 *** (0.001)					
Household Wealth	0.0005 (0.0005)	0.001 *** (0.0001)					
Constant	-2.198 *** (0.110)	0.021 (0.034)					
Ν	9,128	714					
R <sup>2</sup>		0.1265					
SOURCE: Authors' estimates, ba	sed on data from the 6th and 7th Wa	aives of the 2001 SIPP.					
<b>NOTE</b> : Standard errors are in parentheses. Participation is based on a probit model for adults ages 35							

**NOTE**: Standard errors are in parentheses. Participation is based on a probit model for adults ages 35 and 44. Contributions are based or an OLS model for participants ages 25-55. Contributions, family income, and household wealth are expressed as fractions of average earnings covered by Social Security. Social Security average earnings in 2002 were \$33,252.

\* p < 0.10; \*\* p < 0.05; \*\*\* p < 0.01.

TABLE A2. Impact of Match Rates on Participation Probabilities								
	20 Percent 50 Percent 100 Percent							
Base Impact on All Adults	3.0	8.3	16.6	24.8				
Additional Impact								
Income Quartile								
Second	2.5	2.6	5.3	7.9				
Third	0.0	3.6	7.2	10.8				
Тор	3.0	4.5	9.0	13.5				
Married	2.3	2.3	4.5	6.8				
Homeowner	-0.3	-3.2	-6.4	-9.6				
Contributes to 401(k)	-1.6	1.5	2.9	4.4				

SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on Duflo et al. (2005).

**NOTE**: We adjust participation probabilities by the base impact for all adults in our sample. Participation probabilities are further adjusted for adults in higher income quartiles, married adults, homeowners, and adults contributing to 401(k)s. Impacts for 20 percent and 50 percent match rates are based on a linear probability model of participation from Duflo et al. (2005). Base impacts combine the effect of match rate dummies and their interactions with adult receives a tax refund, has investment income, and is a return H&R Block customer. Additional impacts are coefficients from the interactions of income quartile, marital status, homeowner, and contributes to 401(k) with match rate dummies. We extrapolate impacts for 100 percent and 150 percent match rates based on the 50 percent match rate coefficients.

TABLE A3. Probability Distribution of the Present Value of Medicaid Long-Term Care Expenditures at Age 55, by Gender and Lifetime Earnings Quintile									
	Expenditure Level (2008 Dollars)								
	0	6,850	23,975	86,625	222,625	342,500			
Men's Lifetime Earnings Quintile									
Bottom	59.2	13.6	5.4	12.2	6.8	2.7			
Second	84.0	5.3	2.1	4.8	2.7	1.1			
Third	81.2	6.3	2.5	5.7	3.1	1.3			
Fourth	87.4	4.2	1.7	3.8	2.1	0.8			
Тор	92.0	2.7	1.1	2.4	1.3	0.5			
Women's Lifetime Earnings Quintile									
Bottom	33.0	22.3	8.9	20.1	11.2	4.5			
Second	55.3	14.9	6.0	13.4	7.4	3.0			
Third	61.3	12.9	5.2	11.6	6.5	2.6			
Fourth	79.4	6.9	2.7	6.2	3.4	1.4			
Тор	83.6	5.5	2.2	4.9	2.7	1.1			
SOURCE: Authors' calculations based on published projections of future Medicaid long-term care expenditures									

**SOURCE**: Authors' calculations based on published projections of future Medicaid long-term care expenditures (Kemper, Komisar, & Alecxih 2005) and recent analysis of how the likelihood that adults experience Medicaid-financed nursing home stays varies by lifetime earnings (Johnson & Mermin 2008).

**NOTE**: Expenditure levels are mid-points of ranges projected by Kemper, Komisar, & Alecxih, adjusted for expected growth in long-term care costs to 2038, the year our sample begins to reach age 55. Lifetime earnings quintiles are based on household earnings. Household earnings include the individual's full value in years he or she is single and half of the combined value of the individual and spouse in years he or she is married.

TABLE A4. Medicaid Savings Per Participant by Match Rate									
	No Match	20 Percent	50 Percent	100 Percent	150 Percent				
No Income Restriction									
Spend all excess	8,798	17,702	16,086	16,307	16,452				
Spend 1/2 of all excess	8,899	19,141	17,352	17,728	17,913				
Save all excess	9,000	20,580	18,618	19,150	19,374				
Contributions Restricted to Those with Incomes < 400% of FPL									
Spend all excess		16,727	15,003	15,441	15,550				
Spend ½ of all excess		17,535	15,718	16,302	16,453				
Save all excess		18,343	16,433	17,163	17,356				
Contributions Restricted to Those with Incomes < 200% of FPL									
Spend all excess		14,494	12,819	12,807	13,119				
Spend ½ of all excess		14,987	13,258	13,294	13,618				
Save all excess		15,480	13,697	13,782	14,116				
COLIDCE: Authors' calculations based on IDA participation in the SIDD, the impact of matching contributions in									

**SOURCE**: Authors' calculations based on IRA participation in the SIPP, the impact of matching contributions in the H&R Block experiment (Duflo et al. 2005), DYNASIM3, published projections of the share of adults with various levels of Medicaid long-term care expenditures (Kemper, Komisar, & Alecxih 2005), and recent estimates of the likelihood of adults experiencing Medicaid-financed nursing home stays by lifetime earnings (Johnson & Mermin 2008).

**NOTÉ**: Contributions and tax expenditures are expressed as future values at age 55 using a 3 percent real discount rate. Medicaid savings are expressed as the expected present value at age 55 in 2008 dollars.

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Office of Disability, Aging and Long-Term Care Policy (DALTCP) Home <u>http://aspe.hhs.gov/\_/office\_specific/daltcp.cfm</u>

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