Competition, Incentives and Regulation in Health Insurance Markets

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Boston University Department of Economics October 19, 2012

Presentation prepared for the Korean Insurance Research Institute (KIRI)



Goals of talk

- Highlight key features of US 2010 Affordable Care Act (ACA)
- Draw parallels with Korea's challenges
 - Controlling costs
 - Offering choices that serve heterogeneous consumers
 - Promoting good health and quality health care
- Focus on health care service level models
 Services: office visits, specialist visits, pharmaceuticals, hospital care, prevention visits, home health, dental, alternative medicine
- Examine three strategies for controlling costs
- Ending thoughts and conclusions



US is a Complex Mixture of Many Insurance Programs

Public Insurance	% of people, 2010
 Medicare (elderly and disabled) 	15%
 Medicaid/children (poor/children/high co 	ost) 16%
 Military insurance (Active and Veterans) 	4%
Private insurance	
 Employment-based insurance 	55%
 Self employed or individuals 	10%
Uninsured	16%

Note: numbers sum to more than 100% since many people have multiple coverage.

Source: http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/hlthins/data/incpovhlth/2010/table10.pdf



US 2010 Affordable Care Act Overview

- Main goal was to expand coverage to All
- Includes support for many innovations and demonstrations to control costs/improve quality
- Implementation over seven years
- Key innovation was to create health insurance exchanges to enable individuals access to affordable insurance at individual level
- Health insurance exchanges already exist in state of Massachusetts, but are planned for the entire country in 2014

Korea is to be congratulated for moving to 100% insurance coverage in 1989 and largely achieving this in 2001!



US is a Complex Mixture of Many Insurance Programs

Public Insurance	% of people, 2010			
 Medicare (elderly and disabled) 	15%			
 Medicaid/children (poor/children/high co 	ost) 16%			
Military insurance	4%			
Private insurance				
• Employment-based insurance 55%				
Self employed or individuals 10%				
Uninsured Exchanges mostly will include these p	eople 16%			

Note: numbers sum to more than 100% since many people have multiple coverage.

Source: http://www.census.gov/hhes/www/hlthins/data/incpovhlth/2010/table10.pdf



US Health Insurance Exchanges

 Exchanges give individuals choice among four levels of health insurance generosity

Bronze: 60% benefit coverage

Silver: 70% benefit coverage

– Gold: 80% benefit coverage

– Platinum: 90% benefit coverage

Plans will differ more in what services they cover than in percentage of covered services to cover



Korea has a Different Set of Insurance Programs

Public Insurance

% of people, 2009

National Health Insurance Program

96%

Medical Aid Program

4%

Private insurance

Voluntary Health Insurance

64%

Uninsured

negligible

Note: numbers sum to more than 100% since private insurance is supplementary.

Source: http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0019/101476/E93762.pdf



Similarities

New US Health Exchanges and Korea's private health insurance have in common:

- Emphasize choice among competing alternatives
- Are allowed to decide what is covered and what is not
- Can offer a variety of benefit levels

Both countries are still trying to figure out how to control costs



How to control health care costs?

- 1. Make <u>consumers</u> responsible: use demand side cost-sharing (deductibles and copayments)
- 2. Make <u>health plans</u> responsible: ration availability of certain types of services
- 3. Make <u>providers</u> responsible: use supply side cost-sharing and provider payment incentives



Option 1: Make consumers responsible

- Make consumers pay a fraction of the cost out-ofpocket when they seek care (demand-side costsharing) which might vary by service: deductibles and copayments
- This imposes financial risk on consumers, which is undesirable, but reduces the "moral hazard" problems that consumers will use too many services and take too little preventive effort with full insurance
- Huge literature on Optimal Health Insurance
 Zeckhauser (1970); Goldman and Philipson (2007)



Ellis and Manning (2007) and Ellis, Jiang and Manning (EJM) (2012) expand the discussion by examining

How should optimal insurance coverage be modified in the presence of

- Prevention goods?
- Uncovered losses from poor health?
- Multiple health care goods with correlated errors?
- Cross price elasticities of demand?
- Multiple time periods when health care spending is serially correlated over time?

Use a simple linear demand structure with two health care goods, constant absolute risk aversion, and additive errors

EJM (2012)

Optimal cost share in a linear demand model

$$X_i = A_i + B_i c_i + \theta_i$$

Optimal cost share on service i, $0 < c_i^* < 1$, is

$$c_i^* = \frac{B_i}{B_i + R^A \sigma_i^2}$$

Where B_i is the absolute value of the slope of the demand curve for service i, R^A is the constant absolute risk aversion parameter, and σ_i^2 is the standard deviation of the error θ_i affecting service i.

Summary of what EJM paper shows

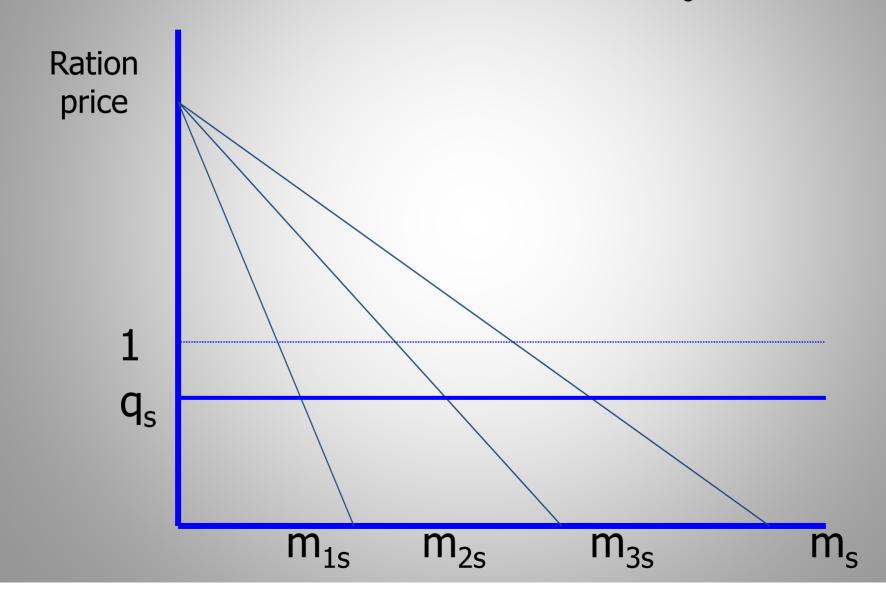
- 1. Full insurance coverage is not in general optimal
- 2. Cover preventive services generously.
- 3. Cover more random services more generously
- 4. Cover more inelastic services more generously
- 5. Services that are positively correlated with other health spending should be more generously covered
- 6. Services that are substitutes should be covered more generously than complements.
- 7. Cover services generously that are positively correlated with uncompensated losses
- 8. Services that are positively serially correlated over time should be covered more generously than those that are uncorrelated

Demand side cost sharing can never achieve the first best, because consumers bear financial risk.

Option 2: Make health plans responsible

- Health plans allowed to selectively ration services that are offered, by selectively contracting with certain providers (e.g., "HMOs")
- A single payer can do this by choosing how many hospitals to build, doctors to train, imaging centers to license, etc.
- Ellis and McGuire (2007) build a model in which competing health plans efficiently ration each service with an objective of maximizing profits.
- Difficult or impossible for plans to perfectly ration services in the real world, but still a useful benchmark

Demand curves for service s by three consumers given rationing at price q_s



Ellis and McGuire Model, 2007

Maximize expected profits $\pi(q)$ by efficiently rationing care

Choose the rationing price q for each service s, $q = \{q_s\}$, where are

$$\pi(q) = \sum_{i} n_i(\hat{m}_i(q)) \left[r_i - \sum_{s} m_{is}(q_s) \right]$$

 $m_i()$ = number of people choosing plan $m_{is}(q_s)$ = spending on service s by person I r_i = premium charged to person i Hats denote *expected* levels

The first order condition for the maximum can be rearranged to show the elasticity of health plan profits with respect to one additional dollar spent on a given health care service s. After normalizations, the derivative can be written as

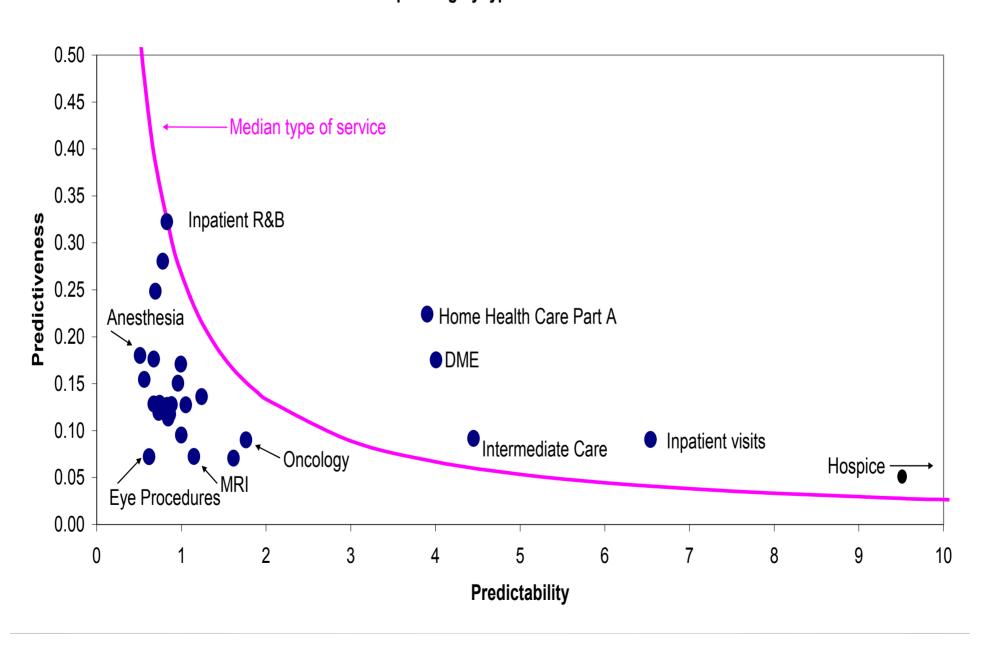
$$I_{s} = \eta_{s} \left(\phi \cdot \sigma_{\Pi} \frac{\sigma_{\hat{m}_{s}}}{\overline{m}_{s}} \rho_{\hat{m}_{s},\Pi} + C \right).$$

EM Index captures two key components of the profit elasticity

Ellis-McGuire Index:
$$\frac{\sigma_{m_s}}{m_s} \cdot \rho_{m_s M}$$

- **Predictability:** $P_{\hat{m}_s,M}$ measures how well spending on certain services can be anticipated
- Predictiveness: $\frac{\overline{m_s}}{\overline{m}}$ measures how well the predicted levels of each service contemporaneously co-vary with total actual health care spending
- The higher $rac{\sigma_{\hat{m}_s}}{\overline{m}_{_{\mathrm{S}}}}\cdot
 ho_{\hat{m}_{_{\!S}},M}$, the stronger incentives to ration

Figure 2
Plot of predictability versus predictiveness
Spending by type of service



Fast- and slow-growing Private Health Insurance service benefits in Australia, 1996-2003

	% change
Coverage of deductibles, copayments	775%
Fitness & Lifestyle Courses/Equipment	608%
Natural Therapies	457%
Acupuncture / Acupressure	361%
Average, All Ancillaries	88%
Prostheses, Aids and Appliances	43%
Dietetics	33%
Accidental Death / Funeral Expenses	-7%
Travel and Accommodation	-19%
Community, Home, District Nursing	-66%

Option 3: Make <u>providers</u> responsible: Use supply side incentives

- Change how providers are paid
- Using DRGs to pay hospitals is the best known example, more recently ACOs and PCMH
- Ellis and McGuire (1986) described how supply side cost-sharing is superior to demand side cost-sharing
- "Mixed system": replace fee-for-service payment with a fixed cost payment, R, together with a low variable cost payment, r.



Classic EM model of provider payment (fixed panel size)

Solutions restricted to linear reimbursement systems

Altruistic providers care about their patients

U=Provider utility = Profits + α Benefits

$$= \Pi(q) + \alpha B(q)$$

$$= R + (r-c) q + \alpha B(q)$$

Where:

 α = agency index = weight assigned to B relative to Π

q = quantity of services

R = lump sum payment, r = per service payment

Classic EM model result

Social optimum requires

$$B_q = c$$
 (Marginal Benefit = Marginal Cost)

First best can be implemented by

$$r = (1 - \alpha)c < c$$

 $r = (1 - \alpha)c$ < c partial cost-based payment

$$R = \alpha c E(q)$$

lump sum payment

Weaknesses of classic EM result

1. Ignores demand side cost sharing

Solution examined in Ellis and McGuire (1990).

- 2. Ignores the role of competition *Solution explored in Ellis (1998)*.
- 3. Optimality breaks down with patient heterogeneity if providers can distort services to attract only the lowest cost patients.

Solution: Optimal Risk adjustment of R⁰ Glazer and McGuire (2000), Ellis (2008).

3. Model assumes that provider bears the full cost of q.

Solution: Explored in the next slides.

Simple extension of EM model to two types of services $\{q_1, q_2\}$

Provider provides only q1, e.g. office visits $U = \text{Profits} + \alpha \text{ Benefits}$ $= \Pi (q_1) + \alpha \{B_1(q_1) + B_2(q_2)\}$ $= R^0 + (r_1 - c_1) q_1 + \alpha \{B_1(q_1) + B_2(q_2)\}$ Provider provides only q1, e.g. office visits

Provider influences but does not provide q2, e.g.
Prescription drugs

 $= R^0 + (r_1 - c_1) q_1 + \alpha \{B_1(q_1) + \delta B_2(q_2)\}$

Clearly if the physician controls referrals to service q_2 but does not bear any of the costs or revenue, then the fact that she has B_2 in her utility function means that too much q_2 will be recommended.

How to solve?

How to solve over-provision problem when doctors are only responsbile for some but not all services?

$$U = Profits + \alpha Benefits$$

$$= \Pi (q_{1,} q_{2}) + \alpha \{B_{1}(q_{1}) + \delta B_{2}(q_{2})\}$$

$$= R^{0} + (r_{1} - c_{1}) q_{1} + r_{2} q_{2} + \alpha \{B_{1}(q_{1}) + \delta B_{2}(q_{2})\}$$

$$U_{q1} = (r_1 - c_1) + \alpha B_{q1} = 0$$
 $\rightarrow r_1 = (1 - \alpha) c_1$

$$U_{q2} = r_2 + \alpha \delta B_{q2} = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow (r_2 = -\alpha \delta c_2)$$

$$\Pi = 0 \qquad \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^0 = \alpha c_1 \mathbb{E}(q_1) + \alpha \delta c_2 \mathbb{E}(q_2)$$

Implications of the preceding results

For services that the doctor bears the cost of services provided, continue to use mixed payment system with $r_i > 0$

Charge the provider a penalty for greater-thanexpected levels of referrals, drugs, imaging, or other services that she does not bear cost of

- Pay for performance, with penalties for excess use
- Patient-Centered Medical Home with performance bonuses

Pay a higher lump sum payment R to make the provider willing to bear this extra risk

Concluding thoughts from the US

- US health reforms rely heavily on choice and competition to control costs
- Demand side cost-sharing has surged in popularity in the US
- Selective contracting and service distortions are also growing
- Conventional risk adjustment reduces the profit incentive to select by 50%, Optimal Risk Adjustment could do even more
- Supply side incentives are a major focus of today's cost containment in the US – Trying to incent providers to control costs since they are in the best position to trade off the value and cost of different services:
 - Value-Based Insurance
 - Pay for Performance
 - Accountable Care Organizations
 - Patient-Centered Medical Home

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일본의 건강보험체계와 생손보 간의 융합

보험연구원 국제세미나 2012. 10. 19

WASEDA UNIVERSITY 이홍무 (Lee, Hongmu)



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1. 공적의료보험과 자기부담의 변화

(1) 자기부담액

공적의료보험의 가입

건강보험 (약60%) 직장에서 가입

국민건강보험 (약40%) 지역에서 가입

기타 의료(생활보호·산재) 공적부담(난치병·전염병)

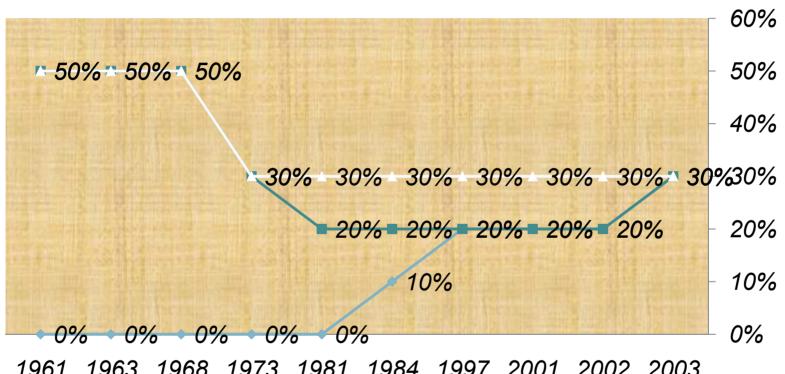
공적비용 부담

공적의료보험의 자기부담비율

연령구분	자기부담비율
75세 이상	10% (일정소득 이상은 30%)
70세~74세	20% (10%로 동결) (일정소득 이상은 30%)
<u>초등학생~ 69세 이하</u>	30% (본인 및 가족 모두)
초등학교 취학 전	20%

건강보험(직장)의 자기부담비율 추이

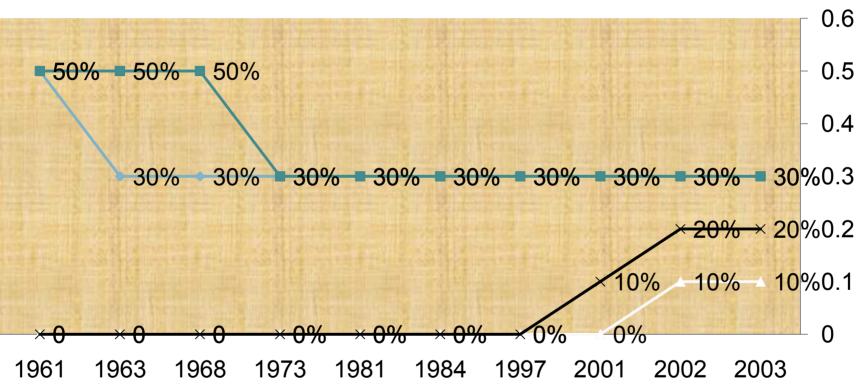
- ►피용자보험(본인입원·외래) --피용자보험(가족입원)
- 피용자보험(외래)



1961 1963 1968 1973 1981 1984 1997 2001 2002 2003

국민건강보험(지역) · 노인의료의 자기부담비율 추이

→국민건강보험(본인입원·외래) →국민건강보험(가족입원·외래)
→노인의료(입원) →노인의료(외래)



자기부담비율의 추이

- ◆ 1961년 국민개보험 실시
 - 건강보험(직장)은 본인의 자기부담이 0, 가족50%
 - 국민건강보험(지역)은 본인 및 가족의 자기부담이 50%
- ◆ 건강보험(정부관장 및 조합관장)의 피보험자 본인
 - 1984년 10%, 1997년 20%, 2003년 4월 30%로 인상
- ◆ 건강보험의 피부양자 및 국민건강보험가입자(세대주 및 세대구성원)
 - 1963년~1973년에 30%의 정률부담
- ◆ 노인의료제도, 1973년 노인복지법제정에 의해 무료화
 - 1982년 정액제의 일부 부담
 - 2002년 고령자의 의료비자기부담 10%
 - 2008년 후기고령자의료제도(75세 이상 전원으로부터 보험료 징수)되어, 70세~74세 20%

노인의료비 무료화

- ◆ 1960년 이와테현의 한 지방자치단체에서 시작
 - 1969년에 동경도 실시
- ◆ 1973년 "노인 복지법"노인의료비 지급제도
 - 70세 이상(거동불능 등의 경우는 65세 이상)의 고령자 의료보험의 자기부담분을 국가와 지방공공단체의 공적비용으로 지급
- ◆ "성장인가 복지인가"의 논쟁의 종식
 - 일본은 복지국가를 선택한 것으로 기대
 - 복지원년(福祉元年)
 - 고액요양비제도, 공적연금액 인상(2만엔에서 5만엔으로)

노인의료비 무료화의 결말1

- ◆ 국고부담률이 높은 국민건강보험에서의 고부담이 심각한 문제
 - 오일 쇼크로 경제 침체
 - 노인의료비 무료화로 인한 총 의료비의 급격한 상승
 - 1970년~1975년의 5년간, 70세 이상의 수진율은 약 1.8배 증가
 - 병원 대합실은 사롱(노인정), 사회적 입원
 - 1981년 고령화율 9.1%(2011년 10월 23.3%)
- ◆ 1982년 "노인보건법"에 의한 노인보건제도
 - 1983년부터 70세 이상 국민의 의료비를 각 보험제도 간에서 분담(구제도에서는 각 보험제도 간의 재정력 차이를 국고 부담)
 - 노인의 일부부담금(통원 400엔/월, 입원 300엔/일)
 - 약10년(1973~1982)의 노인의료비 무료화는 사실상 종식
- ◆ 2002년에는 고령자의 **의료비 자기부담이 10%**로 완전 정률화

노인의료비 무료화의 결말2

- ◆ 2008년에는 장수의료제도(후기고령자의료제도) 도입(75세 이상 전원으로부터 보험료징수)되어, 70세~74세의 전기고령자는 20% 자기부담(현재는 10%로 동결)
- ◆ 75세 이상의 후기고령자는 10% 자기부담
- ◆ 전기고령자는 종래의 노인보건제도와 같이 보험제도 간의 재정 조정
- ◆ 후기고령자에 대해서는 기존의 보험제도로부터 독립된 의료제도(보험에 가입하는 현역세대의 부담이 약40%, 공적비용 약50%)가 창설되어, 피보험자로서 보험료 10% 부담
- ◆ 75세 이상의 후기고령자는 기존의 <u>부양가족으로부터 탈퇴</u>하여 후기고령자의료제도에 가입하여 **보험료를 의무적으로 납부**
 - 2012년부터 2년간 보험료 평균월액 5,561엔(후생노동성)

고액요양비제도

- ◆ "복지 원년"으로 불리는 1973년에 창설된 제도
- ◆ 진료비가 자기부담한도액을 초과한 금액은 환급
- ◆ 보험적용이 되는 진료에 대하여 환자(가입자)가 지불한 자기부담액을 대상
- ◆ 보험적용이 되지 않는 입원시 식비부담과 차액병상료 및 선진의료로 지출한 비용 등은 대상외
- ◆ 실제 지출한 의료비를 월단위로 경감하는 제도이므로, 두 달에 걸쳐서 치료한 경우에는 자기부담액의 합산이 되지 않는다.

고액요양비제도(70세 미만)

소득구분	1개월 부담의 상한액	
상위소득자	150,000엔+(의료비-500,000엔)×1%	
일반 80,100엔+(의료비-267,000엔)×1%		
저소득자	35,400엔	

고액요양비제도(70세 이상)

소득구분	1개월 부담의 상한액	외래(개인별)
현역과 동 수준의 소득자	80,100엔+(의료비-267,000엔)×1%	44,400엔
일반	44,400엔	12,000엔
저소득자	24,600엔/15,000엔	8,000엔

상병수당

- ◆ 업무 이외의 질병이나 부상으로 급여를 지급받지 못하게 된 경우, 건강보험(직장)에서 표준수가월액의 60%를 받을 수 있는 제도
- ◆ 신청기한은 2년 이내로, 부양가족은 대상외
- ▶ 지급기간은 휴업4일째부터 근무가 가능하게 될 때까지로,1년 6개월 한도
- ◆ 국민건강보험(지역)에는 이 제도가 없음.
- → 기업에는 일반적으로 연차유급휴가제도가 있어 전년도 분이 남아있는 경우는 최고 40일까지도 존재한다. 이 부분은 상병수당(건강보험부담)을 받을 수 없다.

1. 공적의료보험과 자기부담의 변화

(2) 보험외 병용(併用) 요양비 (비급여에 해당)

혼합진료

- ◆ 자유진료(보험외진료)
 - 보험에서 인정되지 않는 치료법(미인가 치료약 등)과 요의료상태 이외에 대한 의료행위(통상적인 치열교정과 미용을 위한 성형 등)
 - 보험수가는 의료기관의 재량으로 설정가능하며 전액 환자의 자기부담
- ◆ 혼합진료
 - 의료행위 중 보험진료와 자유진료가 혼재할 경우
 - 치과와 일부 예외를 제외하고는 인정되지 않는다.
 - 혼합진료는 의료행위 전체에 보험적용 배제
 - 예를 들면 미인증 항암제 치료를 받는 경우, 치료에 필요한 검사와 기타 부작용을 완화하기 위한 약 등 전액 자비로 지급

혼합진료 해금논란

- ◆ 혼합진료를 금지하는 이유
 - 유효성과 안전성이 담보되지 않은 진료가 성행할 우려
 - 경제력에 의한 의료 격차
 - 공적의료보험의 급부범위가 축소될 가능성
- ◆ 혼합진료 해금
 - 의료기관이 환자의 다양화된 니즈에 대응
 - 국내의 미승인 신약과 새로운 진료기술을 이용
- ♦ 효과
 - 공적의료보험 축소
 - 가입자가 부담하는 의료비부분이 증가
 - 사적의료보험의 수요 확대

보험외 병용 요양비

- ◆ 2006년 10월 1일부터 종래의 특정요양비제도를 수정한 "보험외 병용 요양비제도"
- ◆ 혼합진료를 예외적으로 인정
 - 평가요양은 미래의 보험도입을 전제
 - 선정요양는 미래의 보험도입을 전제로 하지 않음.
- ◆ 보험진료의 치료와 공통되는 부분(진찰, 검사, 투약, 입원료 등)의 비용은 보험진료로 취급되어, 환자가 자기부담금을 지급하고, 잔액은 보험외 병용 요양비로 공적의료보험에서 급부

평가요양

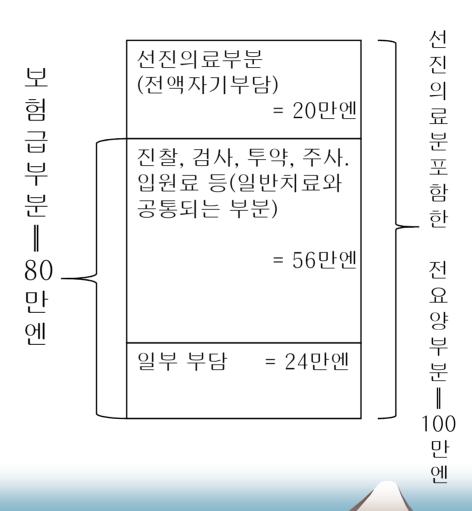
- ◆ 선진의료와 고도의료가 있으며, 해당의료부분에는 공적의료보험이 적용되지 않음.
- ◆ 선진의료(제2항 선진의료)는 기존의 고도선진의료를 포함하는 것으로, 약사법상의 미승인, 또응 적응외 사용인 의약품 또는 의료기기의 사용을 동반하지 않는 의료기술
 - 2011년 10월 1일 현재 95종류에 대하여 당해기술의 시설요건이 설정됨.
- ◆ 고도의료(제3항 선진의료)는 약사법의 승인 등을 얻지 않은 의약품의 사용, 또는 적응외 의약품이나 의료기기의 사용을 동반하는 의료기술
 - 치료와 약사(藥事)승인에 관련된 과학적평가가 가능한 데이터 수집이 목적
 - 고도의료평가회의에서 개별적으로 인정을 받음으로써 시행 가능

선진의료의 예(2011년도)

선진의료기술	선진의료총액 (1인당평균액) (엔)	기술료 (1인당평균액) (엔)	평균입원기간 (일)	연간실시인원
양자선치료	3,274,663	2,775,960	18.0	1,225
중립자선치료	3,497,477	2,979,990	24.0	729
내시경적태반 흡합혈관 레이저소작술	1,471,748	446,875	28.4	107
자기종양, 조직을 이용한 활성화자기임 파구이입요법	1,148,606	550,765	16.8	57
다초점 안내렌즈를 이용한 수정체재건술	578,140	519,951	1.3	2,159

선진의료와 환자부담

- ◆ 총의료비가 100만엔, 그 중 선진의료비용이 20만엔의 경우
- ◆ 20만엔은 전액 환자부담
 - <u>사적의료보험의</u> 선진의료보험 지급대상
- ◆ 보험급부분*= 80만엔
 - 통산적인 치료와 공통되는 부분(진찰, 검사, 투약, 입원료)
 - 56만엔(70%)은 공적의료보험
 - 24만엔(30%)은 일부부담금.
 고액요양비제도
- ◆ 환자 부담
 - 20만엔(선진의료비용)
 - 80,100엔(고액요양비제도)
 - 합계 280,100엔



선정요양

쾌적성, 편리성 관련	의료기관의 선택과 관련된 사항	의료행위 등의 선택에 관련된 사항
 특별한 요양환경의 제공(차액병상으로 의 입원) 예약진료 시간외 진료 전치 부재료차액 금속성 전체틀니 	 200병상 이상의 병원에서 미소개환자의 초진 200병상 이상의 병원에서의 재진 	 제한 횟수를 초과하는 의료행위 180일을 초과하는 입원(입원의료의 필요성이 낮은 경우) 소아충치 치료 후의 계속관리

2. 사적의료보험의 대응

(1) 시장진입

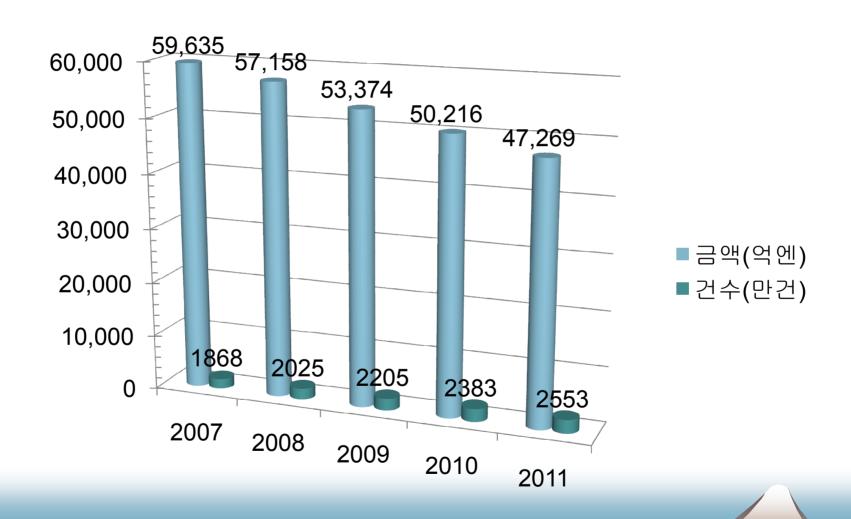
보험업의 면허

구분	생명보험 (제 1 분야)	손해보험 (제 2 분야)	상해보험, 의료보험 등 (제 3 분야)
보험 취급	생명보험회사	손해보험회사	생명보험회사 및 손해보험회사
보험사고	사람의 생존과 사망	우연한 사고	상해, 질병 등
보험금지급	정액지급	실손지급	정액 지급 및 실손지급

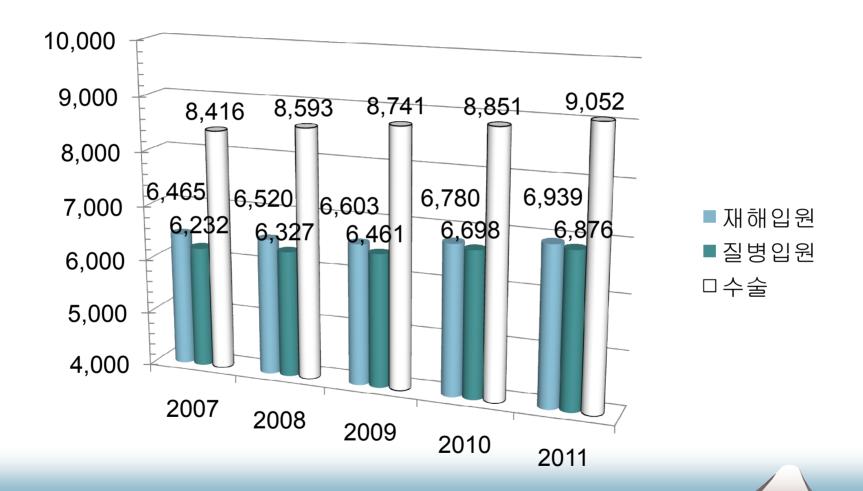
제3분야 생손보 상호진입

- ◆ 1996년 4월 신보험업법에 의한 생명보험업과 손해보험업의 제3분야 상호진입
- ◆ 그러나, 미일보험협의에 의한 격변완화조치
- ◆ 2001년 미국과의 합의하에 생명보험회사,손해보험회사의 본격진입
- ◆ 대부분의 생손보가 의료보험 판매

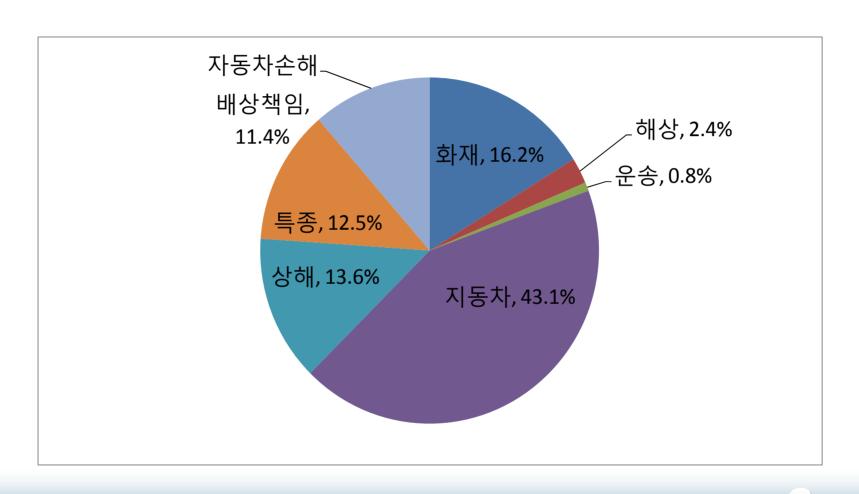
생명보험회사의 의료보험(단품)



생명보험회사의 의료보험(특약)보유건수(만건)



손해보험 순수입보험료의 보험종목별 구성비 (2011년도)



2. 사적의료보험의 대응

(2) 급부 등

사적의료보험의 급부금

급부	금의 종류	요 건	지급액
0101	입원급부금	갑작스럽고 우연한 외래사고에 의한 상해 또는 질병으로 입원한 때	입원급부금일액× 입원일수
입원 • 통원	ヱゎ゙゙゠゠゠	상해입원급부금 또는 질병입원급부금이 지급되는 경우 등에서 그 상해 또는 질병의 치료를 위해 통원한 때	통원급부금일액× 통원일수
수술	수술급부금		입원급부금일액× 소정배율
선진 의료		상해와 질병으로 입원하고 그 치료를 위해 선진의료를 받고 특별요금을 부담한 때	선진의료기술료 상당액, 또는 일정액(통산한도 액의 설정이 있는 경우도 있음)

입원 · 통원급부금(종류 · 금액)

- ◆ 입원급부금은 "무박 입원" "1박2일형"(2일 이상 입원한 때, 1일째부터 급부), "5일형"(5일 이상 입원한 때, 5일째부터 급부) 등, 보험회사와 상품에 따라 다르다.
- ◆ 입원(통원)급부금은 일액 정액으로 설정되며, 입원(통원)일수분이 지급된다. 5,000엔, 10,000엔, 15,000엔 등 1,000엔 단위로 자유롭게 설계할 수 있는 보험회사도 많다.
- ◆ 통원급부금은 생명보험회사의 의료보험의 경우, 입원을 전제로 한 경우 지급의 대상이 되는 것이 많고, 입원하지 않는 통원만은 대상이 되지 않는다.
- ◆ 그러나 손해보험회사의 의료보험의 경우 통원만으로 급부금이 지급된다. 통원급부금도 일액 정액으로 설정된다.

입원 · 통원급부금(한도일수)

- 입원급부금에는 1입원지급한도일수와 통산입원지급한도일수의 두 가지 한도일수가 설정되어 있는 경우가 많다. 또한 통원급부금에는 1회의 통원지급한도일수와 통산입원지급한도일수의 두 가지 한도일수가 설정되어 있다.
- ◆ 1입원지급한도일수란, 1회입원(1입원)에서 수취할 수 있는 입원급부금의 한도일수로 60, 120, 180일 등이 있다.
- ◆ 종래는 1입원 120일형이 기본이었으나 입원일수의 단기화와 보험료경쟁에서 1입원 60일형이 등장하여, 입원급부금이 적어지기 때문에 보험료가 저렴하게 되어 급속히 확대되었다.

입원기간의 단축

- ◆ 후생노동성의 "2008년 환자조사"에 의하면 퇴원환자의 재원일수의 평균인 평균재원일수는, 병원의 경우는 37.4일로, 1991년의 47.4일을 경계로 계속 단축되고 있다.
- ◆ 백내장수술, 양성유방질환 등과 같이 1일 입원으로 치료가 가능한 것도 있다. 복강경 등 의료기기의 발전도 이를 뒷받침하고 있다.
- ◆ 국가는 구급차가 들어가는 "급성기 병원"이 장기입원환자를 받게되면 수가가 감액되는 "진단군 분류별포괄평가(DPC)"를 도입했다.
- ◆ "진단군분류별 포괄평가(DPC; Diagnosis Procedure Combination)"는 급성기병원에서 입원기간이 짧은 경우 병원 측의 수가를 충실히 보장하고, 반대로 장기입원하는 경우는 수가를 단계적으로 낮추는 구조로, 급성기의료에 양질의 의료를 실시하여 조기퇴원을 촉구하는 것을 목적으로 하고 있다.

통산입원 · 통원지급한도일수

- ◆ 통산입원지급한도일수는 보험기간 중에 수취하는 입원급부금의 한도일수로 730, 1,000, 1,095일 등이 있으며, 일수가 많을수록 보험료는 높아진다.
- 대부분의 보험회사에서는 입원특약의 통산지급한도일수를 1,095일 등으로 확대했다.
- ▶ 보험기간 중 입원기간이 통산입원지급한도일수에 도달하면 그 이후는 입원급부금이 지급되지 않는다.
- ▶ 보험기간 중이더라도 통원기간이 통산통원지급한도일수에 달하면 그 이후는 통원급부금이 지급되지 않는다.
- 예를 들면 아메리칸훼밀리 생명보험회사의 "통원특약"에서는 2012년 1월 현재, 무박입원을 포함한 입원 후의 통원 1일당 3,000엔의 질병, 재해통원급부금이 지급된다. 퇴원 다음날부터 120일 이내의 통원이 대상이지만 1회의 통원지급한도일수 30일, 통산통원지급한도일수 1,095일이 설정되어 있다(동사의 홈페이지).

수술급부금

- ◆ 수술급부금은 질병과 부상으로 소정의 수술을 받은 때에 수취하는 급부금이다. 이 수술급부금에는 수술의 종류에 따라 입원급부금일액의 10, 20, 40배의 형태와 10만엔, 20만엔 등과 같이 금액이 고정된 형태가 있다.
- ◆ 수술의 종류에 따라 입원급부일액의 10배, 20배, 40배의 급부금액을 설정하고 있는 경우가 많은데, 20배 1종류인 보험사도 있다.
- ◆ 수술급부금은 원칙적으로 수술을 받을 때마다 몇 번이고 수취할 수 있으나, 1회 수술로 2종류의 수술을 받은 경우는 수술급부금은 1회분을 지급한다.

선진의료급부금

- ◆ 선진의료급부금은 후생노동성이 정한 "선진의료"를 받은 경우에 수취한다. 실제 기술료가 지급되는(상한이 있는 경우도 있다) 것과, 치료내용에 따라 일정금액이 정해져 있는 것이 있는데, 그 기술료 상당액을 급부금으로 지급하는 것이 일반적이다.
- ◆ 1회 한도액과 통산한도액이 설정되어 있으며, 50만엔, 100만엔, 700만엔, 1,000만엔, 2,000만엔 등이다. 선진의료는 받을 수 있는 의료기관이 한정되어 있는 점에서 치료를 받을 때 필요한 숙박비를 지급하는 형태와 숙박비, 교통비 등에 소요되는 5만엔 또는 10만엔의 일시금을 지급하는 형태도 있다.
- ◆ 선진의료특약부의 의료보험의 보험료는 종신지급의 경우에도 일반적으로 매월 60엔~100엔 정도의 보험료부담으로 부가할 수 있지만, 이것은 선진의료를 받는 사례가 적기 때문이다.

암보험(특징)

- ◆ 피보험자가 <u>암으로 진단받은 경우</u>, <u>진단급부금</u>, 입원급부금, 수술급부금 등을 받을 수 있다. 일반적인 의료보험에서는 모든 질병과 부상으로 인한 입원, 수술을 대상으로 입원급부금과 수술급부금 지급
- ◆ 암보험의 가장 큰 특징은 **입원급부금의 지급일수가 무제한**인 점이다. 일반적인 의료보험의 경우, 1입원지급한도일수 또는 1통원지급한도일수와 각각의 통산지급한도일수가 있다.
- ◆ "선진의료"의 약 70%는 암의 진단, 치료를 대상으로 하고 있다. 최근의 암보험에는 선진의료보장을 특약으로 부대하는 상품도 많다.
- ◆ 부대서비스로서 세컨드 오피니언(Second Opinion)을 제공하는 보험회사가 있다(악사생명, 아메리컨 홈, AIU보험 등)

보험기간

- ◆ "정기형"에는 5년, 10년 등 만기로 계약을 갱신해 가는 "갱신형"과, 계약 당초에 정한 연령까지 보장하는 "전기형"이 있다.
- ◆ "종신형"에는 보험료를 납부하는 기간이 일정 연령(60세등)까지로 정해져 있는 "유기납"과, 보험료를 평생 지불하는 "종신납"이 있다.
- ◆ 갱신형의 경우 통상적으로 갱신마다 보험료가 인상된다.
- ◆ 주계약에 특약으로 부가하는 의료특약의 경우 보험기간은 통상 주계약 보험기간과 보험료의 납부기간(보험료를 납부하는 기간)과 동일하다. 단, 종신보험과 개인연금보험의 종신연금에 의료특약을 부가한 경우 일반적으로는 보험료를 납부함으로써 특약을 계속(80세까지, 평생 등)할 수 도 있다.

3. 사적의료보험의 역할과 생손보의 융합

자기부담율과 사적의료보험

- ◆ 자기부담율증가에 의해서 의료리스크가 증가되었는가?
- ◆ 자기부담금이 고액이 되면 "고액요양비제도"에 의해 자기부담금한도액을 초과한 자기부담금이 환급된다.
- ◆ 직장 건강보험에는 일할 수 없게 된 날로부터 4일째 이후 급여의 약 60%가 최장 1년6개월간 지급되는 "상병수당"제도가 있다.
- ◆ 따라서 공적의료보험이 적용되는 한, 리스크는 상당히 한정적이다.

자기부담금과 의료비용보험

- ◆ 공적의료보험의 자기부담비율 증가는 사적의료비용보험의 판매를 증가시켰는가?
- 공적의료보험의 자기부담금을 담보하는 보험은 손해보험회사의 의료비용보험이며, 자기부담금에 대해서는 치료비용보험금이 실비로 지급된다. 공적의료보험의 자기부담비율의 상승 등으로 판매가 기대되었다.
- ◆ 그러나 의료비용보험은 손해보험회사가 1985년 12월에 의료비용보험의 인가를 받은 후 지금까지 특히 주목할 정도로는 판매되지 않았다.

선정의료와 사적의료보험

- ◆ 6인병실이면 공적의료보험이 적용되는데, 6인 미만의 병실의 경우 차액병상료를 부담해야 한다. 차액병상료는 일액 2,3천엔부터 1만엔 정도가 평균인데, 일액 10만엔을 초과하는 곳도 있다.
- ◆ 선정의료에 관련된 자기부담액은 "고액요양비제도"의 적용외로 전액이 환자부담이다.
- 평균수명의 연장과 가령에 의한 의료리스크의 증대를 고려할 때, 선정요양에 관한 의료비 부담은 부담액의 크기가 유동적이며 커다란 리스크로 인식된다.
- ◆ 선정의료는 주로 정액급부의 입원급부금으로 보장된다.
- ◆ 따라서, 사적의료보험의 보험기간이 장기화되고 수요가 증대된 것으로 보인다.

선진의료와 사적의료보험

- ◆ 고도의 의료기술을 구사하는 "선진의료"가 보험외 병용 요양비제도에 의해 국가의 승인하에 이루어지고 있다.
- ◆ 확률은 낮지만 그 금액이 수백만엔에 달하는 경우도 있어서 큰 리스크로 인식된다.
- ◆ 선진의료비용은 사적의료보험의 수요를 자극하고 있다.

선진의료비용과 생명보험

- ◆ 후생노동성이 정하는 선진의료는 그 종류도 유동적이며 그 기술료도 유동적이다.
- ◆ 생손보의 사적의료보험에서 선진의료의 기술료는 실제로 지급되는 비용으로, 일정 한도액의 범위에서 보장하고 있다. 지금까지의 입원급부가 1일당 정액이었던 점과 크게 다른 것이다.
- ◆ 선진의료비용의 실비보장은 손해보험의 특징인 손해전보의 성격을 가지고 있다.
- ◆ 생명보험회사의 의료보험에서도 선진의료비용의 실비보장이라는 손해보험적인 요소가 나타나고 있다.

보험료 산출방식과 손해보험

- ◆ 의료보험에서는 종신의료보험을 생명보험회사뿐만 아니라 손해보험회사에서도 판매하고 있다.
- ◆ 종신의료보험에서는 평준보험료방식이 채택되고 있다. 평준보험료란 연령에 관계없이 계약시의 보험료로 납부기간 동안의 보험료를 고정하는 보험료산출방법이다. 평준보험료방식에서는 보험료 산출시에 예정이율이 사용되고 있다.
- ◆ 생명보험에서는 자연보험료방식은 연령이 높을 수록 보험료가 비싸지며, 일정연령에 달하면 보험료가 지불능력을 넘어 보험계약의 유지가 곤란하게 되기 때문에 평준보험료방식을 채택해 왔다.
- ◆ 손해보험사가 판매하는 종신의료보험 등에서도 전통적으로 생명보험에서 채용되어온 평준보험료방식이 채택되고 있다.

4. 결론

사적의료보험의 역할(일본)

- ◆ 고급의료서비스
 - 고급병실 등의 설비를 갖추고 공적의료보험 적용범위보다 고품질의 의료서비스를 제공
 - 고령화 등을 배경으로 보험기간의 장기화
- ◆ 고도의 선진의료
 - 고도 의료기술을 구사하는 "선진의료"가 보험외 병용 요양비제도에 의해 국가의 승인
 - 환자부담은 수 백만엔에 이르는 경우도
- 사적의료보험은 주로 공적의료보험에서 제공할 수 없는 고품질의 의료서비스, 선진의료를 받기 위한 수단으로서의 역할 수행

생손보의 융합

- ▶ 사적의료보험은 생명보험회사와 손해보험회사 각각 그역사적인 경위 등으로부터 특색있는 보험상품을 판매해 왔다. 그러나 2001년부터 의료보험에 대한 완전자유화 이후, 경쟁을 거쳐 그 상품이 동화되고 있다.
 - 생명보험회사는 손해보험의 성격을 가지는 선진의료에 대한 의료비용 보장
 - 손해보험회사는 종신의료보험 등에서 생명보험회사가 전통적으로 사용해 온 평준보험료 방식을 사용

Welfare State Reform in the Far North of Europe: Aging and the Duality of Health Insurance and Public Health

Sven E.O. Hort

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"In an age of rising health care costs, most high-income countries — Canada, the European Union's Western economies, and Japan — manage to keep their total health care costs below 12 percent of GDP, with excellent health outcomes, while the U.S. spends nearly 18 percent, yet with decidedly mediocre health outcomes. And, America is the only for-profit health system of the entire bunch."

Jeffrey Sachs (2012)

Introduction: Aging societies - Health inputs and outcomes

Frailty, chronic disabilities and diseases entail most often limiting conditions in daily life for many people, the elderly and oldest old in particular. Aging and health is a thorny combination in most societies – a ticking bomb according to some; a challenge for new creative solutions according to others. Quantitatively, the elderly is a powerful and often vocal group in society – as citizens, beneficiaries of health insurance, customers of health care, and not least voters in political elections – but there are other social categories as well actively pushing these issues to the fore; the medical professionals and pharmaceutical companies not to be forgotten. New issues are appearing as times go by and new arrive, obesity among the young and middle aged being one of them other signs of harm- and stressful phenomenon in society not to be disregarded.

Hence, disease prevention and health promotion have been moving up on the public agenda. In parallel, medical innovations and technologies have contributed to longer life in decency and dignity. Most people are concerned for their own and/or their next of kin's health and by everything that may put it at danger. The quality of and access to proper health care are public concerns. These worries and issues have long been with us, and so has the old age crisis and alarming health care costs. In recent decades, long-term care at the end of life – terminal care – has created special policy

instruments and solutions. Demographic trends point upwards in most respect, and the ensuing policy dilemma is one of priority of money and resources.

In Europe, most counties have adopted state solutions to aging and health: old age pensions and services are in general organized by public authorities, and so are health care whether the latter is insurance-based or paid out of general revenues. This does not preclude co-payments by consumers, customers and patients. But the administrative, financial and medical-industrial picture differs from country to country. The European Union does not offer a common health zone similar to for instance its common agricultural policy. Health issues are national, even sub-national. After a more general introduction to the European scene, the focus will be on one particular country, Sweden.

Beveridge before Bismarck - or three distinct models of welfare?

In everyday parlance there has for long a distinction between two distinct European welfare models: the German or Bismarckian model of social policy, and the British or Beveridgean welfare model. On and off, it is still repeated in the most respected circles – see for instance a most recent issue of the international flagship of global business and finance, the London Economist on "Asia's emerging welfare states" (Sept 8-14th):

"if you take Germany's introduction of pensions in the 1880s as the beginning and Britain's launch of its National Health Service in 1948 as the apogee, the creation of Europe's welfare states took more than half a century. Some Asian countries will build theirs in a decade. If they get things wrong, especially through unaffordable promises, they could wreck the world's most dynamic economies. But if they create affordable safety nets, they will not just improve the life for their own citizens but also become role models themselves. At a time when governments in the rich world are failing to redesign states to cope with aging populations and gaping budget deficits, this could be another area where Asia leapfrogs the West."

Thus, this dichotomy – Bismarck versus Beveridge – is also often alluded to when different types of health care and health insurance regimes are described and summarized into models or systems. In contrast, in another and more circumscribed setting, the scholarly network of comparative welfare state research, from the 1990s a tripartite division of welfare became established wisdom: the three Esping-Andersen (1990) regime-types. Though it is nowadays apparent that the latter's modeling of the 'worlds' of welfare capitalism neither does not work that well for health care systems, nor captures the entire post-1990/1 world of welfare capitalism – for instance the rise of East and Southeast Asian welfare states as well as the South American example – it makes the experiences of the North Western and the Far North Europe visible (cf Castles et al 2010).

During the last decades, no doubt the Scandinavian saga has on and off been told in a too rosy manner. I say this as a word of caution for what will come in these pages. Nevertheless there is another road to modernity in the Far North of Europe, or at least other experiences than the ones made on the continent or the British Isles. The welfare states of the Far North were on the periphery of Europe, but never peripheral welfare states. The Scandinavian countries benefited from the proximity to the European powers when welfare institutional

development set out on the trail to the model welfare state of the third quarter of 20th century Western Europe.

General characteristics

What is the welfare state all about? And what values were prominent in the development of the Scandinavian welfare states? The concept of the welfare state denotes a form of government in which the state through legislation takes on the responsibility of protecting and promoting the basic well-being of all its members. Essential elements include legislation which guarantees income maintenance and other kinds of support for individuals and families in cases of occupational accidents and diseases, sickness, old age and unemployment.

The perception of the welfare state grew out of the experience of the Second World War. Sir William Beveridge's plan (1942) for a 'social service state' and the Philadelphia resolutions of the International Labour Organization (1944) became basic reference documents for legitimating and building-up of welfare state institutions and programmes after the war. Britain in the 1940s and 1950s has been perceived as exceptional in the history of European welfare state development. Academic social scientists made an important impact on the development of social policy. In addition to Beveridge, the influence of T. H. Marshall and Richard Titmuss was significant. All three were affiliated to the London School of Economics and Political Science. Many of their concepts and conceptions have played a major role in social policy debates in West European countries since 1950, and in recent decades also far beyond Europe, not least because of further inspiration provided by the book *Three World of Welfare Capitalism* (Esping-Andersen, 1990) where the conception of different welfare regimes is introduced. The idea and practise of universal social security schemes, i.e. schemes that cover the entire population or population categories, are typical post-war constructs in European welfare states. The principle of universality, signifying a crucial value basis, was carried farthest in Britain and the Scandinavian (Nordic) countries, and the latter countries are currently seen as prime examples of comprehensive, encompassing, universalist welfare states.

There has long been a developmental accent to welfare policy in Scandinavia, and there are obvious similarities – as well as differences – between the notion of the developmental state of the pre-1989 "third world" of the postwar era, and the historical origins of the advanced welfare state in the Far North of Europe. Hence, in a century-long perspective a strong social and democratic state has not been antithetical to modern values underpinning the security and well being of the market: personal freedoms, private initiative and individual property rights, thus private entrepreneurship and rapid industrialization (Kuhnle, Hatland and Hort, 2003; cf also Hort and Kuhnle, 2000). Competitive big business has also thrived, pharmaceuticals industries among them. But private health care proper has been limited to the margins of a public sector, and private health insurance has also been circumscribed in size.

Throughout the 20th century, the scope of social planning in Scandinavia continuously expanded with the aim of achieving a balanced economic and social development, i.e. economic growth as well as social justice. Thus, fighting poverty went hand in hand with state institution building for social and economic growth as well as political democracy, and was pioneered by broad-based popular social movements (Olsson, 1993). New, tax-financed social programs were always launched with a strong emphasis on their impact on macro-economic efficiency and individual work incentives. For instance, the breakthrough of social policy during the late 19th and early 20th century had a competitive edge directed against the emigration of skilled labour to North America, while the housing and population policies of the 1930s had

a "productivist and prophylactic" emphasis on the health of the upbringing and maintenance of the future and current labour force respectively (Myrdal, 1934). However, it was not until the emergence of the full employment or active labour market policy of the 1950s and 1960s and the expansion of the public sector – comprehensive state education as well as public health – that a coherent developmental perspective on economic prosperity and social change became part and parcel of welfare state philosophy (cf. Therborn 1986). Thus, at least since the last quarter of the 20th century this has characterized welfare state theory and practice in general; from child to disability policy – "from the cradle to the grave", as the saying goes about the universal Scandinavian welfare model. Despite an aging population, the old age issue never went into crisis. Moreover, during the rather painful reconstruction of the welfare state during the last decades of the 20th century after the breakdown of the Soviet Union and in particular in Sweden and Finland, somewhat earlier also in Denmark, the relationship between economic growth and social development has again been a hot topic on the public agenda throughout Scandinavia, but so far the policy balance and conflict between efficiency and equality has in most cases been resolved and maintained in the five Nordic countries.

Due to the intertwined history of the Nordic geographical area and the subsequent common cultural patterns the concept of Scandinavia is often used in a broad sense to include Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden even Iceland, Greenland, the Fareo Islands and the demilitarized island of Aland (a Nordic SAR). The area constitutes almost one third of the total area of Western Europe, but only about five percent of its population. Taken together these countries are among the G-20 economies. The Scandinavian countries, with their small populations have developed many institutions and cultural patterns of their own, and in many studies of current societies they are considered distinct examples of developed welfare states. The core of the Scandinavian welfare state has been characterized as lying in "broad public participation in various areas of economic and social life, the purpose of which is to promote economic efficiency, to improve the ability of society to master its problems including health and aging, and to enrich and equalize the living conditions of individuals and families. In social policy, the cornerstone of the model is universalism. That means that the Scandinavian countries have set out to develop a welfare state that includes the entire population. Although the Swedish case since the mid-1930s has been identified as the empirical embodiment of the Scandinavian type of welfare state, in fact all five Nordic countries took off in the same developmental direction during the 1930s. All of the Nordic countries got their crisis compromises in that decade, leading to new tension-reducing institutional solutions for mediation between agricultural and industrial interests as well as between the interests of organized labour and employers. This is the Nordic Sonderweg: crucial steps, unique in Europe, towards building a broad political consensus on a platform of a state-regulated, socially modified capitalism were taken before the Second World War (Kildal and Kuhnle 2004).

The language of reform

During the present neoliberal era, welfare reform is in many respects distinctly different from the previous era of constructing the welfare state. There are global reference points that cannot be ignored though it is still a national policy arena. Deconstruction has been on the agenda though the welfare state has not been dismantled but survived in Scandinavia. Welfare state reconstruction is probable a better catchword and, paradoxically, what has been called the death of Social Democracy is also the success of this approach and part of the sustainability of the welfare state. What follows is a rather sketchy picture of the Swedish health and welfare system and its reconstruction during the last two decades, from the early 1990s onwards under shifting political circumstances nevertheless

for most of the period under the leadership of the traditional political rulers of the country, between 1994-2006 the Social Democratic party, but from 2006 an Alliance of four liberal-conservative parties under the leadership of the Moderate party. I would also like to stress the importance of the subnational level of government in the Nordic welfare states. Constitutionally on par, more than 310 county councils and municipalities on the regional and local level has their own power of taxation and are the executive arm of government as regards health, in particular the county councils. However, with an aging population in focus, I have chosen to start out with welfare services to the elderly and disabled, and this is a policy area where local authorities – the municipalities – constitute the basic executive branch of government with a heavy financial responsibility. As a warning to the reader, I have not been able to take into account the growth of private expenditure on health service, so far rather marginal in Sweden to my limited knowledge.

Aging and the Welfare State: personal social services

While the medical health system has long been heavily regulated and coordinated from top to bottom by legislators, politicians and academic professionals, laymen and local government have traditionally had more leeway in organizing care for the elderly and disabled. This variation has increased since the mid-1990s, when county councils were required by law to hand over some of the medical care responsibilities for elderly and disabled people to local authorities, the municipalities. At that time private providers were also given a larger role in the delivery of health and welfare services (Hort & Cohn 1995). More recently, however, these authorities as well as the national government have tried to tighten the system, partly due to an awareness of the problem of "skimming the cream" and various scandals in institutional care of the elderly and disabled, both private and public. With an ageing population, an increase in female labor force participation, and an emphasis on the idea of normalization and independent living, services to the elderly and disabled have become much more of a public concern, both for relatives and the authorities. Local governments are responsible for domestic care of elderly and disabled people, although such services, such as nursing homes, can be contracted out to private providers. Some municipalities have introduced choice through vouchers, while others have tried to outsource the delivery of such services to private providers (Statskontoret 2012a). Furthermore, the municipalities are also obliged to pay for patients whose hospital treatment (under the aegis of the county councils or private subcontractors) has been concluded but who have to remain in hospital because the municipality cannot offer them a place in a nursing home with round-the-clock service. In an effort to reconcile conflicts below the national level and resolve tension between counties and municipalities, the national associations of municipalities and county councils merged in 2007. Consequently, a united and tendentiously powerful local government public welfare lobby organization was created where earlier two associations had been vocal and social planning at the national level more supposedly coordinated between national and sub-national levels.

In a similar vein, local authorities are also responsible for the living arrangements, employment, and support services of people suffering from long-term mental illness. Municipalities charge those individuals who use these services out of their individual social insurance income, but the largest part of the cost is financed out of the common pooled budget including those services provided by the county councils or regions. The municipalities also financially support voluntary organized services

for vulnerable individuals who are in need or at risk: preventive health, family therapy and counseling, alcohol and drug treatment, shelter for the homeless, women and children under the threat of (domestic) male violence etc. (cf. Cocozza & Hort 2010). In later decades, the municipalities have also become responsible for the integration of newcomers to Sweden (refugees or other forms of migrants), although the central state has intervened on occasions and currently has a larger role in this policy area. Some of these services are provided by voluntary welfare organizations – secular philanthropy as well as religious charities – partly with the support of tax money. The municipalities are also the owners of the public housing companies, which offer rental apartments to almost one-fifth of the Swedish population. Moreover, the municipalities are the largest employers in Sweden, with 768,000 people on their payrolls as of 2009. Most of these work either in schools or as care workers. County councils are the second-largest employer, with 230,000 employees in the medical health sector. Overall, local government is the backbone of social provision. Nevertheless, the central state has tried to "strike back" at the independence gained by local government during the early post-war decades of welfare state construction. The deconstruction, as well as the reconstruction of the welfare state, is a controversial affair that involves many state and civil society actors.

Health insurance reform in Sweden

After old age pension expenditure, second largest among the social insurance provisions is the sickness insurance system, which covers the entire workforce and offers daily cash benefits for the temporarily ill. Since the 1990s, the work injury compensation system, which is also under this umbrella, has been in constant flux (cf. Kangas 2010). This part of the income maintenance system has increasingly become the most controversial part of the welfare state, even within the thinking of public administration (cf. Olofsdotter Stensöta 2009). In the 1990s, for instance, the National Audit Office felt that its programs were easy to cheat and the national social insurance agency had been naïve in handling roughly a third of total public expenditures. Many changes have been introduced over the last two decade. In operation, during the first two weeks, the employer is obliged to make daily sick pay payments. After this period, the central state Insurance Office takes over, although the employer is obliged to contribute to the rehabilitation of the employee. This is only one of many reforms since the 1990s onwards designed to encourage early return to wage labor. However, the sickness insurance system also includes compensation for long-term illness, participation in labor market rehabilitation programs, and benefits payable to expectant mothers who are unable to work during pregnancy. The general replacement rate is 80 percent of earned income (since 2008 only for the first three months; thereafter 65 percent), with a wage ceiling, but most wage earners are reimbursed closer to their actual salary following agreements between the branch associations on the labor market (employers' associations and trade union federations). Hence, the public system is coordinated with negotiated occupational benefit schemes to prevent overcompensation (above 100 percent).

Linked to the sickness cash benefit system is a "temporary" disability benefit, which has replaced the former disability (partly unemployment) pension system. The replacement rate in the new disability system is lower, however, at 65 percent, both in relation to the former disability pension system and the new sickness benefit system, which encourage a bureaucratic transfer of hard-to-rehabilitate beneficiaries from the more generous system to the less generous one. Although still rare, the

complete rejection rate (out-insuring the insured) has increased as medical doctors have faced bureaucratic scrutiny from the Office (Hultgren 2011 & 2007). Since the mid-1990s, the growing numbers of persons relying on sickness and disability benefits have caused alarm, and from the early 2000s a number of changes in the system have created heated controversies. Policy changes and organizational adaptation have exposed sickness insurance to severe popular criticisms and media debate (Johnsson 2009). The level of social trust in this public authority has diminished significantly and it is debatable whether this agency is still part of the imagined national welfare community; it probably contributes negatively to the common pool resource institutions (Frykman et al. 2009). After the general election of 2010, the responsible central government minister was sacked by her PM and replaced by a veteran of the welfare wars of the 1990s who most recently had been a municipal councilor on the outskirts of metropolitan Stockholm (and once was ousted by the present PM as chairman of the national Moderate Youth Association). Immediately the new Minister had to show his political skills. Without a firm majority in Parliament, the national government, the Ministry of Social Affairs in particular, has had to take into account the positions of a split but majoritarian opposition that has been responsive to vehement public criticisms. There is still a stalemate on this policy area though expenditures have not increased in any remarkable sense.

Health care reform in Sweden

As stressed above, the welfare state is more than just the "jewels in the crown" combined with other parts of "pure" social security or income maintenance. The social welfare policy includes policies on family, disability, children, old age care, gender equality, migration, health, education, urban, and regional, among others. Together, these policies are part of the social service state frequently referred to in the international literature (cf. Anttonen & Sipilä 1996) and analyzed in the comparative contributions on health, long-term care, disability, etc. Classifications aside, most of these policy areas are rather loose, subject to change over time, and even partly overlapping. The main characteristic is that they are, in most cases, not operated directly by the central state but under the auspices of local government; in Sweden, this means the approximately 290 municipalities and 20 county councils or, more recently and only in a few geographical areas, regions operated by elected party representatives. There are also joint ventures between and within these levels of government (coordination) but also competition on a public quasi-market. In terms of social expenditure, local and regional government is as costly as social insurance, but predominantly financed through direct income taxes determined by subnational governments. Between one-quarter and one-third of municipal and county outlays are financed through the national inter-governmental transfer system, whereas wealthier counties and municipalities contribute to an equalization of services provided, regardless of the structure of the tax base. In 2012, roughly 30 % of GDP is consumed by local welfare expenditure – today a war chest of considerable importance.

From a life-cycle perspective, a cradle-to-grave approach is characteristic of the Swedish welfare system, although paying for a funeral is usually a private outlay, as is the cradle. Strictly speaking, the welfare system starts before the cradle is set in motion, with sexual health guidance and prevention centers (for instance, free abortion through a strong adherence to a secular pro-choice approach) as well as maternity clinics offering parental education and regular check-ups of expectant mothers, which are free of charge throughout pregnancy. This is not to say that these are giveaways — as

competing political parties accuse each other of at election time – but are paid for by the taxpayerscum-voters. Free, if not compulsory parent education is also widespread and organized by county council outlets. Child delivery and midwife services are also free. Throughout the country, local child clinics provide vaccinations, health check-ups and consultations, as well as certain types of treatment to all children below school age. Free health services are also available for school-age children. Apart from regular school nurses and doctors, publicly employed district nurses give medical treatment as well as advice and support, in schools, at their own surgeries and on home visits. All medical treatment, including dental, for children and young people under 20 is free of charge. The county councils also provide dental care for non-adults. At such clinics, paying adults can also receive dental treatment. Otherwise, it is private dentists that offer the main supply on the dental market. Demand is only partly (and rather poorly) tax subsidized, and the public support system – dental insurance – has shown remarkably low stability compared to other parts of the welfare system. Therefore, going to other EU member states for dental check-ups has become an alternative, particularly for those living along the Swedish ports of the Baltic Sea in the vicinity of Estonia and Poland, where the rates are considerably lower. Dentists in other EU-member states are supported to the same extent as Swedish doctors.

All adults have the right not only to choose their dentist, but also their own general medical practitioner; however, the sparsely populated areas in the North and inner parts of Sweden have limited choice in this regard. This is not new, but the situation has not improved in recent years as cost containment by county council administrations has caused severe organizational problems. Nonetheless, national legislation now obliges county councils to organize primary care clinics staffed by a variety of medical professionals, including doctors and nurses. These clinics treat diseases and injuries that do not require advanced and/or expensive medical technology and hospitalization. In addition to public services, private doctors also provide publicly funded, highly subsidized primary care. Each county council sets its own fee for outpatient care. County councils also run hospital with advanced medical care and technology, either alone or in cooperation with each other. Hospitals are still heavily subsidized out of general income taxation, but a patient fee is always charged. Health consumers and customers are co-payers.

In the health sector, privatization of hospitals and clinics operated by the regional county councils has been a bone of contention between left and right, with reducing queues as the main official reason behind. In the late 1980s, the center-right parties proposed and later implemented guaranteeing treatment for a limited number of surgical operations. This was done to establish maximum waiting periods. If the county makes the patient wait longer for treatment, the patient has the freedom to go to a private provider. Alternatively, the patient can go to another county, and send the bills to the county of residency. This was also proposed by the Social Democrats. This guarantee created a whole new category of publicly subsidized patients for private commercial providers. Some counties began extending their already existing arrangements with for-profit providers in order to deliver on their promises. Most hospitals are still run by regional governments, and thus tax-financed, just as are most health services. However, user fees have always been a minor part of the public system. A small, commercial pro-profit private sector survived the tremendous increase in public health demand during the early post-war decades. Through the joint company Praktikertjänst, private practitioners became major sub-contractors in the provision of health services during this period.

In the early 1990s, the new national government made it possible for the county councils to open up a secondary role for private providers. This was done by contracting out and increasingly hiring private companies to provide services to their residents. In the big cities, a growing share of the health sector became operated by private providers, although the main hospitals were still run by the county councils. The 1994-2006 Social Democratic government made some moves to prevent further privatization of public health. Nevertheless, during the non-Social Democratic county council regime of 1998–2002 in the capital of Sweden, an alternative Stockholm model prepared the way for a confrontation between regional and national governments. Regional governments tested the limits of commercializing public health. They also privatized other "non-welfare" parts of their operations, such as public transportation. A few minor but profitable hospitals in Stockholm were taken over by private firms. The 2006 national government has since opened up further privatization of the health sector, and the public sector nationwide continued to use privately provided health services parallel to the public system. Most county councils have gradually contracted out outward clinics, inducing more individual freedom of choice in selecting general practitioners. More recently, there has been a trend toward concentrating the number of private health companies providing medical services. However, this privatization is not at the same level as in the education sector where Sweden has become something of a European frontrunner. Nonetheless, for instance the Wallenberg investment group - historically the main "local chaebol" - has publicly declared that it intends to become a major player in the future health care market.

Moreover, a rather tight cost-controlled medical service system, with an emphasis on subsidized pharmaceutical drug prescriptions, has created demand for out-of-pocket medical services. The growth of private medical practice has generally been a large-city phenomenon. Visits to private medical practitioners are still rare in smaller communities, especially in northern Sweden. The exception is dental care where commercial private practitioners organized through Praktikertjänst dominate the slightly publicly subsidized market. Voluntary groups, non-profit organizations, and charitable agencies are virtually non-existent in the modern Swedish health care system. The most notable exception is the Swedish Red Cross that runs an HIV and a trauma clinic in Stockholm, as well as a nursing college. Otherwise Swedish civil society in health is commercial and organized on a proprofit basis though to a large extent publicly funded. Additionally, there have been a small number of nationwide drug stores since 2010. Among these is one chain run by the Swedish Co-op, owned by the retail cooperative movement. This new oligopoly has broken up the monopoly of the National Pharmacy Company. This was already envisaged in the 1995 accession agreement with the European Union, but delayed for more than a decade (Olsson Hort & Cohn 1995). So was also another intervention in domestic health policy, the break-up of the Alcohol monopoly, where Sweden however was exempted in the retail sector while production, at the time extremely successful with Absolut on the global market was up for sale which finally occurred in 2008 with first Richard (Pernod), later Finnish Alko taking over what remained of local brand names including the Danish ones once bought by Vin&Sprit, with the exception of Absolut.

Recently, some county councils have started to contract out hospitals. Thus, these days this is an area in organizational flux. Following legislative changes at the national level in the 1990s, private initiatives gained ground, although they remained largely financed from public funds. Outpatient clinics were either sold or contracted out by county councils, first by local authorities where the political majority was neoliberal, but later as part of bipartisan agreements all over the country. From the mid-1990s, and particularly after the shift to a Right-centre national government in 2006, major

hospitals have also been partly privatized, leased on contract, but this remains a bone of contention between the right and the left in Sweden. Competition and private alternatives have increased in the Swedish health sector over the last decade. New private hospitals have opened up and private insurance companies have offered ways to bypass the queues in the subsidized system.

Pharmaceutical preparations are still sold by a state-owned company at regulated prices, but in 2010 this sector was opened up for competition by a select number of private firms. Prescribed drugs are subsidized above a certain limit by the sickness insurance system (see above). This means that people entitled to use the Swedish health services at subsidized prices are all residents of Sweden, regardless of citizenship, as are patients from EU membership countries who need emergency attention and those from some other countries with which Sweden has special agreements (e.g. Iceland, Norway and others). Health expenditures, which rose from 3 to 9 percent of GDP between 1960 and 1980, remained at the higher level during the 1980s and then fell back slightly, with cost containment being a major priority. For a number of years, Swedish public health expenditure has remained close to the OECD average. In toto, this is basically a public health system and private actors and practitioners are mainly funded by public sources.

Before 2011, privatizing tax-financed social services to the disabled and elderly was less of a controversy, although some civil society organizations of pensioners raised their concerns early on. Non-profit, voluntary welfare organizations had been active in this area in the 1970s, and on a smaller scale even further on. The national civil-society disabled associations had grown in significance and strength, thereby challenging charity and empowering their members when publicly provided services were enlarged in the 1980s. The new Centre-right 1991 government joined with these groups with the proposal to encourage small enterprises in a sector where the public sector – local authorities as providers – had come to dominate. The 1991 government also promised more choice of providers and type of services through either a voucher system or contracting out service delivery. These were almost immediately implemented in some Greater Stockholm vanguard municipalities such as Nacka and Lidingö (Sparks 1995). Other municipalities gradually followed suit. An array of privately provided, but in many cases publicly funded, services came in existence during these decades. With the growth of pensioner income, a new market emerged. In 1992, a company named Svensk Hemservice made headlines by operating service apartment buildings for senior citizens in Stockholm. This was done on a contract basis to save tax-payer money. However, the company did not have a good record from another vanguard municipality. An affluent Stockholm suburb municipality realized that, as a result of contracting out part of their services for elderly people from 1989 to 1991, these services became much more expensive than the ones provided inhouse and changed course of action (Olsson Hort & Cohn 1995).

Concluding remarks

The hallmark of the Swedish reform model is the dual pressure – from above (institutionalized competition within subnational government, and the Inspectorate state" under construction) and below through elected politicians accountable and responsible before the local and regional electorate – and the shifting balance over time between pressures from above and below. External forces should also be considered in any account and assessment of the contemporary model.

Entrepreneurship was encouraged throughout the welfare sector with the advent of the 1991 non Social-Democratic regime (the first under a Moderate-Conservative prime minister since 1928). In particular, activities financed, organized, and produced by local government were strongly encouraged. Thus, deregulation of strictly regulated public welfare programs in education, and services to the disabled, elderly, families, and children changed the restrictions under which private contractors had operated during the 1980s (discussed in Chapter 4, and in the 1993 postscript). Non-profit and for-profit enterprises became contractors to the public sector. Intervention through national political decision-making was influenced by the social-liberal and center parties (Cohn 1992; Olsson Hort & Cohn 1995; Sparks 1995; Sutton 1996; Ahn & Hort 2003). At the same time, think tanks aligned with the Moderate Party, major banks, and the employers' association, launched the Social State project. Through this project, the notion of civil society reached public discourse, explicitly challenging the in the comparative welfare state research for a short while almost sacred concept of decommodification, and the social democratic welfare regime type (Zetterberg 1995). A practical and theoretical public-sector reform agenda therefore turned the Swedish public sphere upside down.

The mix of voluntary membership associations, local government, and new private enterprises became significant ingredients in modern Swedish civil society. This was furthered by the advent of the 2006 government, its 2007 individual tax deduction (RUT), and the 2008 freedom-of-choice law (Szebehely 2011; Statskontoret 2012b). In this sector, however, it did not take long before welfare scandals were in full bloom. Controversial *Carema Care* was the first example of this in the late 2011s. Again, the state "stroke back", an "inspection or inspectorate state" is in place, and at present a debate over profits in the health and welfare sector is in full blossom in Sweden.

Twenty years after 1991, the result of this process must be regarded as rather impressive: a publicly financed, private welfare system in education, health and personal social services, including manpower exchange. This has emerged parallel to the old public welfare system, and financed out of it. The Heritage Foundation has recently provided high marks for these achievements. Competition has increased between private and public providers, but so have concentration processes within the new private welfare business sector. For-profit firms expanded at the expense of non-profit philanthropy, and a fair share of tax money has been transformed into stock dividends. The political parties behind were not able to remain at the helm, but saw the Social Democrats back in power in 1994. They had to wait until 2006 (three full election cycles) to get back to power. However, it is the effects of the early breakthrough of the 1990s that make the most of it in a current account and assessment of this process. The national decisions taken during the early 1990s mostly remained in force from 1992–2012. The decisions made it possible for individual county councils and municipalities to pursue their own agendas and strategies parallel to becoming part of a national public quasi-market. The making of experiments in a modern civil society in Sweden thus occurred within a generous, imagined, cross-cultural, tribal- if not ethno-national welfare community.

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(to be amended)

건강보험의 기능과 발전방향

2012. 10. 19

서울대학교 김진현

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I. 보건의료체계의 특성과 국가개입

- ◆ 보건의료의 사회경제적 특성
 - 시장실패
 - 정보의 비대칭성(소비자 무지): 의사유인수요
 - ✓ 제왕절개분만 : 금요일까지는 자연분만을 기다려준다
 - ✓ 맹장수술 : A병원 주변에는 맹장 가진 사람이 없다
 - ✓ 6세 미만 입원료 본인부담 면제 : 아이를 병원에 맡기고 여행
 - ✓ 지역간 진료행태 차이 : 부산경남 vs 광주전남
 - ✓ 감기환자도 매일 병원을 방문하게 한다.
 - ✓ 공급이 수요를 창출한다: 병상이 비면 일단 드러눕게 한다.
 - 면허에 의한 독점 : 입학정원 및 전공자만 면허자격
 - ✔ 공급부족 및 독점가격
 - 질병발생의 불확실성: 건강보험으로 대응
 - 투자적 요소 : 인적 자본(human capital)
 - 우량재 : 건강권(형평성)
 - 외부효과의 존재

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I. 보건의료체계의 특성과 국가개입

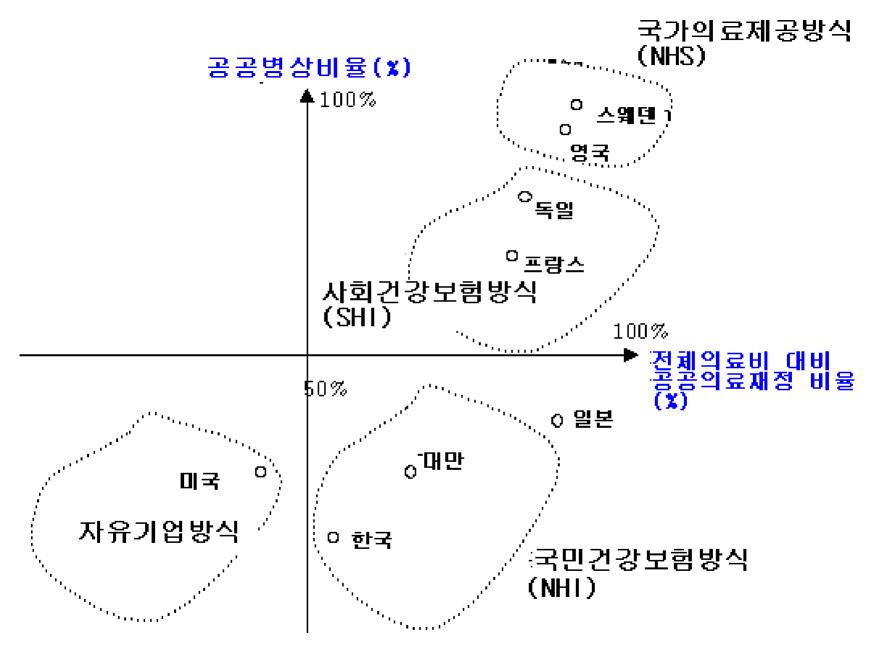
- ◆ 경쟁정책과 규제정책
 - 의료시장에 대한 정책논쟁: 경쟁 vs 규제
 - ✓ 경쟁을 촉진하는 정책이 효과적인가?
 - ✓ 규제 중심의 정책이 효과적인가?
 - 시장윈리의 작동 가능성에 따라 정책 선택
 - ① 경쟁시장이 성립될 수 있다면 경쟁시장 전제조건을 충족시키는 방향으로 정책 선택하여 시장성과 개선
 - ② 경쟁시장이 성립될 수 없다면 독점규제를 통해 시장성과를 제고하는 정책선택
 - 현실에서 경쟁조건이 충족되는가?
 - ✓ 입학정원 및 면허제도
 - ✓ 정보의 비대칭성

- ◆ 보건의료체계의 구성요소
 - 재원조달방법
 - 공공재원 : 보험료, 조세
 - 민간재원: 민간보험, 본인부담금
 - 의료제공체계
 - 공공병원
 - 민간병원
 - 진료비 지불제도
 - _ 총액제
 - 행위당수가제, 포괄수가제, 일당제, 인두제, 월급제

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- ◆ 공공통합모형: National Health Service
 - 공공예산과 공공병원을 결합한 모형
 - 정부예산 통제 하에서 전반적인 비용상승 억제 용이
 - 효율성, 형평성, 소비자만족도 가장 높음
 - 생산성, 환자의 요구에 대한 대응성이 약한 단점
 - 공공통합모형이 지배적인 의료체계 유형

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- ◆ 공공계약모형: NHI or SHI
 - 정부나 공보험이 민간병원과 (선불제로) 계약을 맺는 형태
 - ✓ 단일보험자는 의료공급자에 대해 강력한 영향력 가짐.
 - ✓ 단일보험자는 다보험자보다 관리운영비 절감
 - ✓ 공공계약모형에서 민간병원은 흔히 비영리기관으로 운영
 - 공공통합모형보다 환자요구도에 더 부응
 - 형평성이나 의료비 억제에 상대적으로 성공적이지 못함.

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◆ 민간의료모형

- 민간보험과 민간병원(대부분 영리병원)의 결합 방식
 - ✓ 스위스처럼 강제보험이거나, 미국처럼 임의보험
 - ✓ 임의보험에는 취약계층이 구입가능한 상품 없음,
 따라서 보장성 및 접근성 취약
 - ✓ 민간자본에 의존하므로 형평성과 효율성이 낮음.
- 행위당수가제
- 환자의 선택권이 넓고 환자 요구에 대한 대응성 높음.
- 비용억제 취약 : 수량통제 및 가격통제 유인제도를 가진 관리의료(managed care)가 1990년대 미국에서 급속히 팽창

자료: Colombo F and Tapay N, Private health insurance in OECD countries: the benefits and costs for individuals and health systems, OECD, 2004. / Figueras J, McKee M, Cain J, Lessof S, Health systems in transition: learning from experience, European Observatory on Health Systems and Policies, 2004.

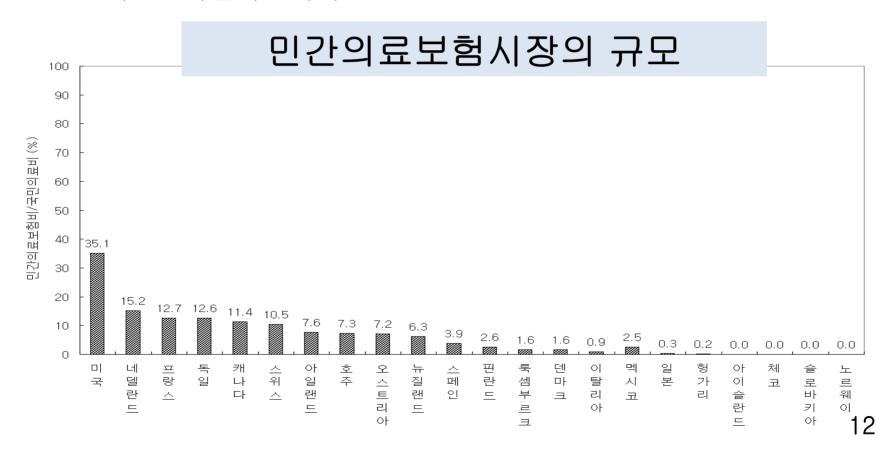
● 민간의료보험의 유형

- ➤ 대체보험 (substitute): 소비자에게 공보험과의 선택권 인정
- 주보험(principal): 선택권 인정 않고 민간보험 대상자(공보험 제외자)를 제한적으로 지정하는 방식

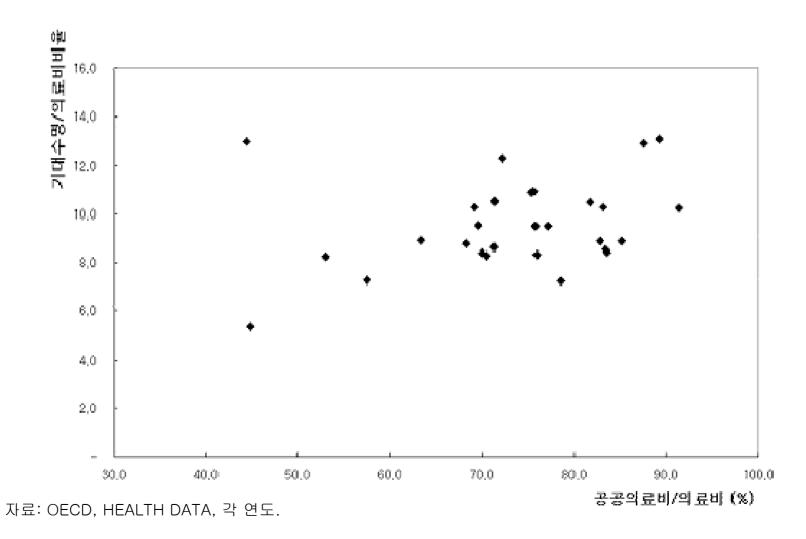
	고고무취 미터오 이그		
공보험 급여비	본인부담금	비급여	공공보험 비적용 인구
중복보험 (duplicate)	보완보험 (complementary)	보충보험 (supplementary)	기본보험(primary) - 주보험(principal) - 대체보험(substitute)

자료: Colombo F and Tapay N, Private health insurance in OECD countries: the benefits and costs for individuals and health systems, OECD, 2004.

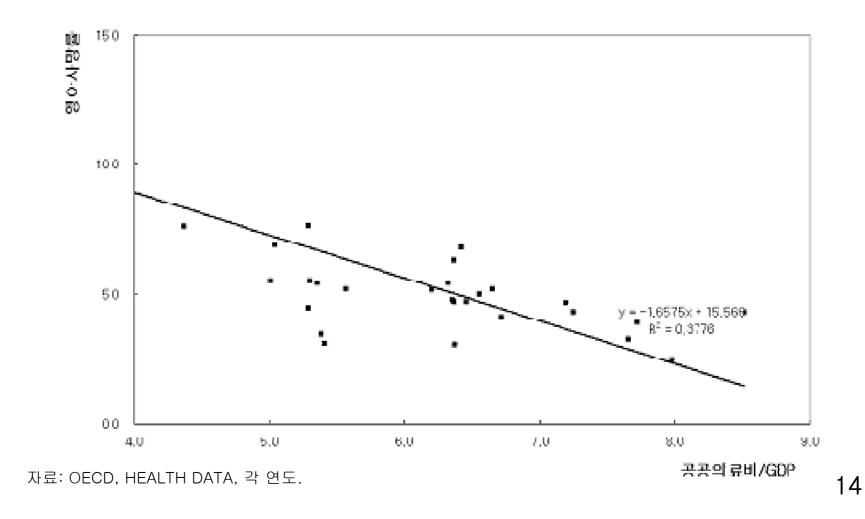
- OECD 국가의 민간의료보험은 국민의료비의 6% 내외
 - 미국 : 민간보험이 국민의료비의 35%
 - 프랑스, 독일, 네덜란드, 캐나다 : 국민의료비의 10%~15%
 - 스위스: 국민의료비의 10%



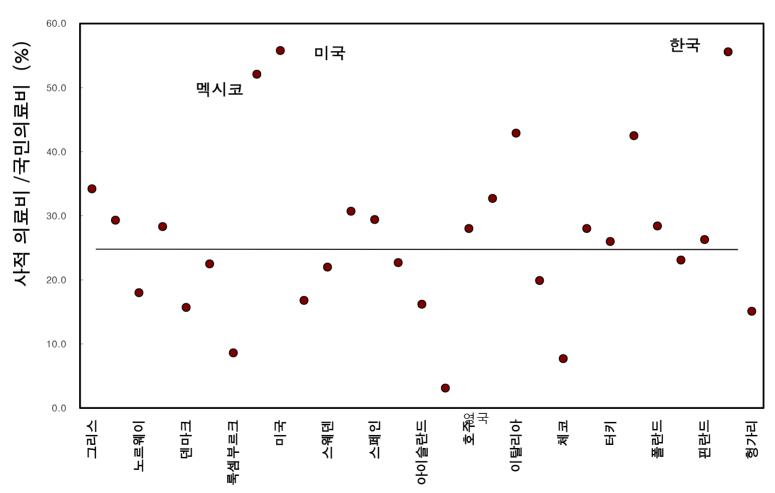
> 공공재원의 효율성 제고 효과:기대수명 증가



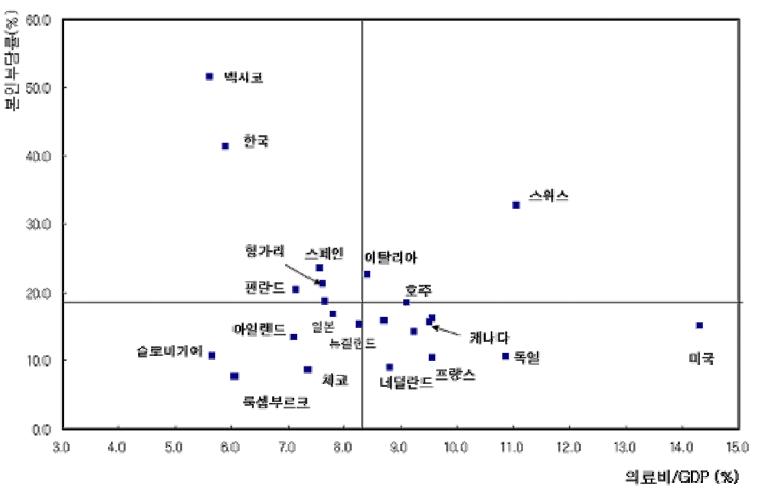
▶ 공공재원의 효율성 제고 효과 : 영아사망률 감소



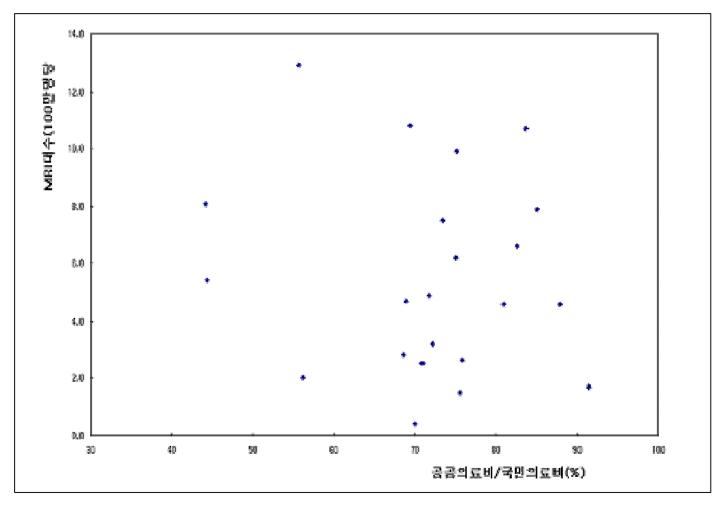
> 공공재원의 형평성 제고 효과: 개인적 의료비 부담 낮춤



▶ 공공재원은 의료비 적게 지출하고, 형평성 제고



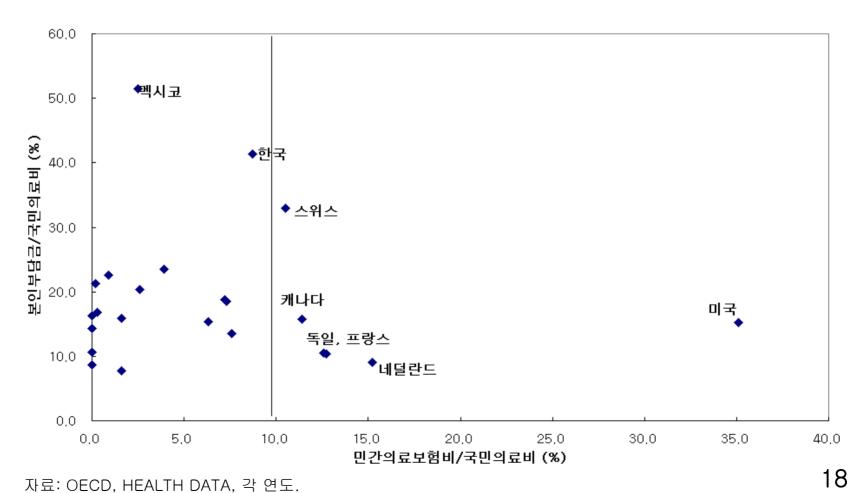
▶ 공공재원이 의료기술발달에 미치는 영향 : 중립적



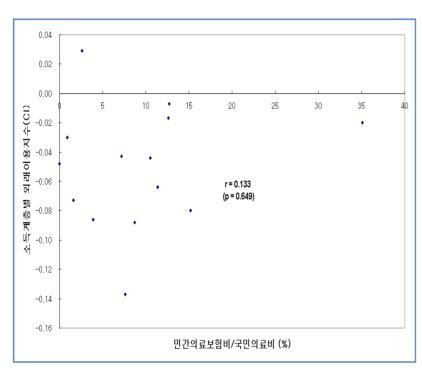
자료: OECD, HEALTH DATA, 각 연도.

▶ 민간의료보험과 보장성의 관계는 다소 불확실

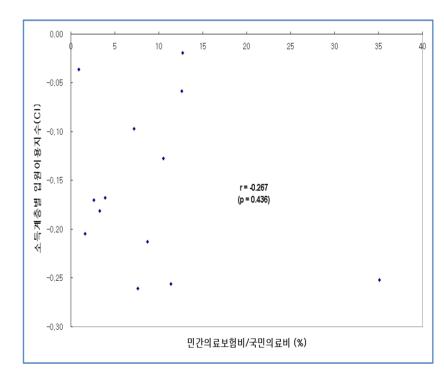
민간의료보험의 보장성



민간의료보험이 소득계층별 의료이용의 형평성을 개선시킨다면 이론적으로 집중지수와 음(-)의 상관관계를 보여야 하나 실제 자료는 전혀 그렇지 않음.

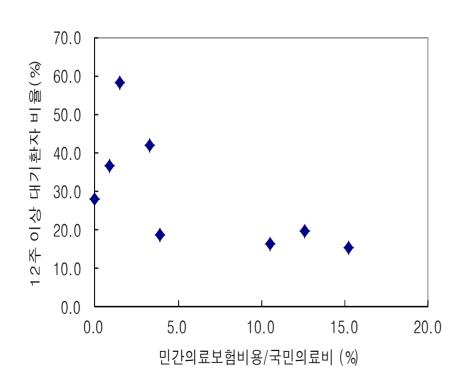


외래이용집중지수

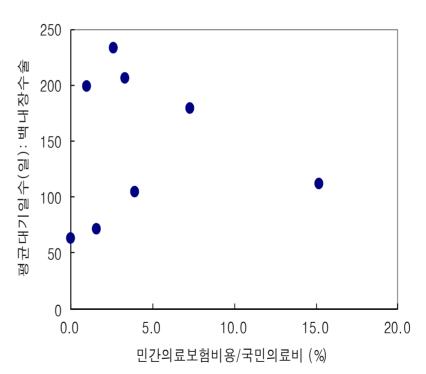


입원이용집중지수

▶ 민간의료보험은 진료대기시간을 감소시키는 경향 (OECD 자료)

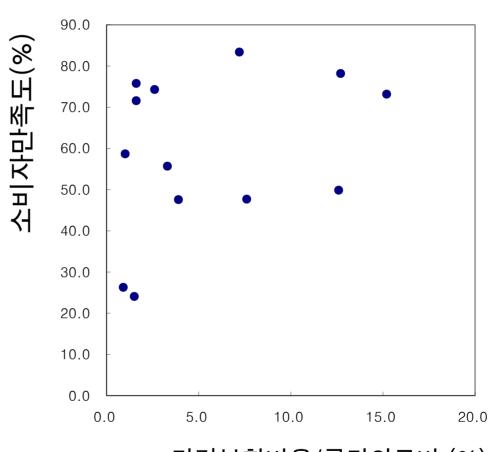


12주 이상 수술대기환자비율

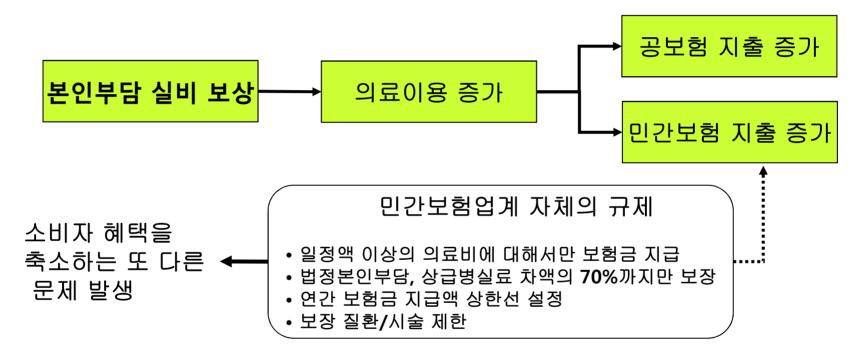


백내장 수술대기일수

▶ 민간의료보험과 소 비자만족도의 관계 는 불확실 (OECD 자료)



▶ 민간보험은 공보험의 재정지출을 증가시킴



- 외국의 경험
 - ✓ 미국 : 보충형 민간의료보험이 공보험 지출을 13~96% 증대
 - ✓ 프랑스: 민간의료보험 가입자의 공보험 지출이 20% 높음.

자료: 강성욱(2010); 이진석(2006).

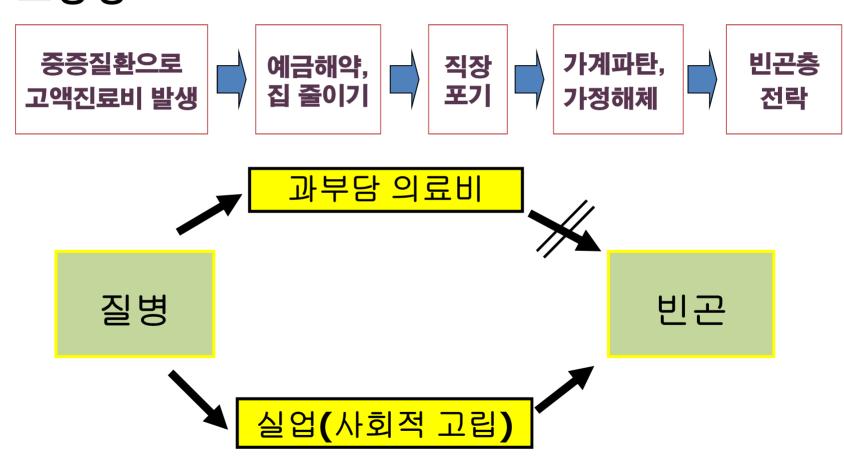
- ◆ 공공재원의 성과: OECD 국가의 수십년간 경험
 - 효율성 제고 : 높은 기대수명, 낮은 사망률, 적은 의료비
 - 형평성 개선: 계층간 의료이용 및 의료비 부담 개선
 - 의료기술의 발달 : 신약 및 신의료기술 개발에 부정적 영향 없음

◆ 민간의료보험의 성과 (OECD 자료)

지표	OECD 국가의 경험적 증거
1. 효율성	국민의료비 지출 증가 공공의료보험지출 증가 동반 관리운영비 과다 소요
2. 형평성	고소득 계층의 접근성 향상 저소득 계층의 접근성 저하 보장성 강화에 장애요인
3. 대응성	의료의 질 개선효과 불확실 소비자 선택권 : 고소득층 유리 저소득층 불리 진료대기시간 단축 경향
4. 소비자 만족도	불확실

자료: 김진현(2005).

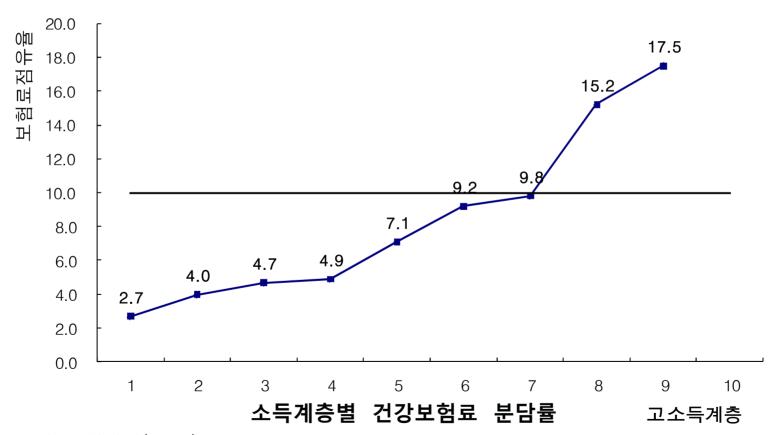
◆ 보장성



- 보장성의 지속적 확대, 그러나 여전히 미흡한 수준
 - ✓ OECD 국가 중 최하위에서 3번째 수준
 - ✓ 높은 본인부담금으로 인해 건강보험의 보장성 취약
 - ✓ 본인부담금/국민의료비 비율 (2008)
 - ➤ OECD 평균 = 18%
 - ▶ 한국 = 45%
 - ✓ 본인부담금/병원진료비 비율 (2010)
 - ➤ OECD 평균 = 10% 이하
 - ▶ 한국 = 37.3%

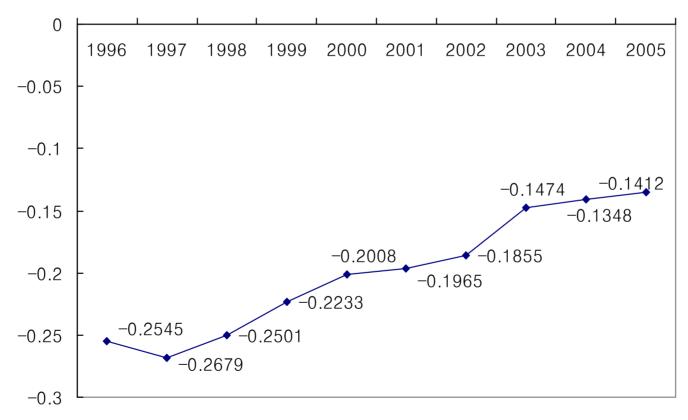
자료: 국민건강보험공단 건강보험정책연구원(2011); OECD(2012).

- ◆ 재원조달의 형평성
 - ▶ 고소득계층의 보험료 분담률이 상대적으로 매우 높음



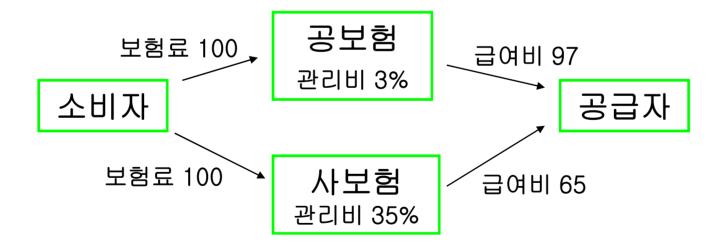
자료: 김진현(2009).

- ◆ 재원조달의 형평성(Kakwani 지수)
 - ▶ 점진적으로 개선(그러나 아직 역진적임)



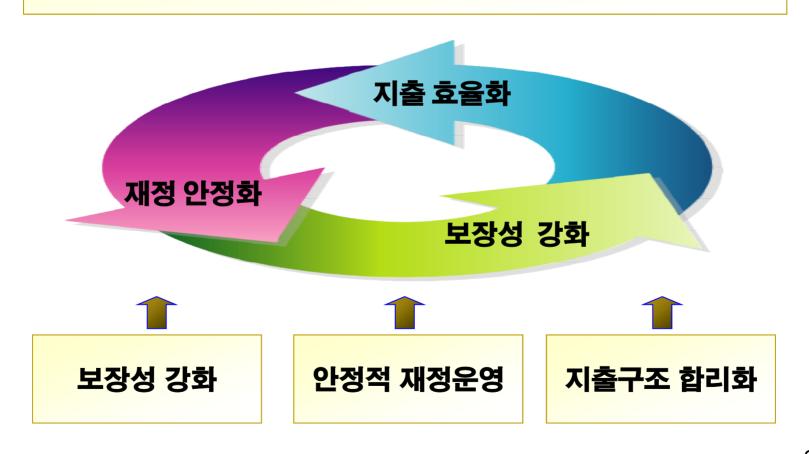
자료: Kwon et al(2007).

- ◆ 효율성
 - 국민건강보험: 관리운영비 3% 미만
 - 민영의료보험: 관리운영비 35% 내외



- ◆ 대응성
 - 민간의료기관과 행위당수가제에 의한 높은 대응성
 - 보험료 부담에 대한 가입자 불만, 저소득층의 본인부담
 - 의사결정의 투명성과 민주성
 - 공급자의 영향력과 소비자 주권
 - ✔ 정책결정과정에서 의료공급자의 영향력 강함.
 - ✓ 소비자는 의료기관의 선택권
 - ✓ 의료계는 당연지정제에 불만

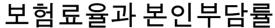


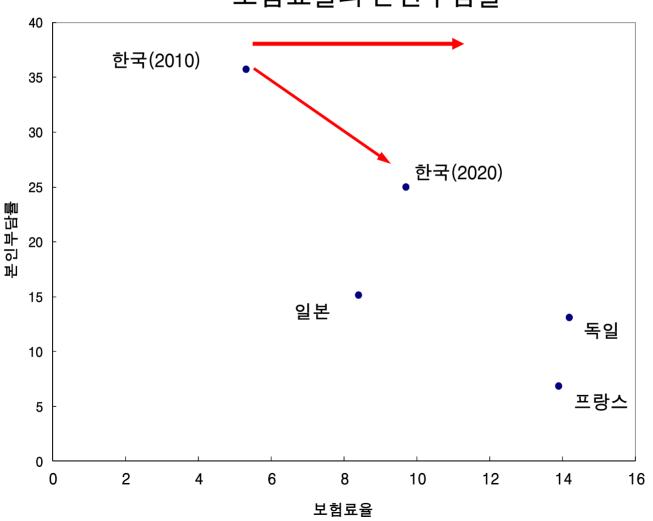


1. 공보험의 보장성 강화와 재정안정

- 1) 보장성의 적정 수준 확보
 - OECD 국가와 상대 비교
 - 한국의 사회경제수준, 의료자원 공급능력을 반영
 - ✓ GDP
 - ✓ 노인인구비율
 - ✓ 의료인력
 - ✓ 병상수 등
 - 적정 보장률 (2008년 기준): 84%

자료: 오영호 외(2012).





2) 재원조달방안

- ① 건강위해요인에 대한 원인자 부담금 원칙 정립
 - 담배부담금 인상
 - 주류 부담금 신설
 - 비만세 등
- ② 건강보험료 부과체계의 정비
 - 직장과 지역의 부담능력 검증 → 단일체계로 개편
 - 상한선 폐지 여부
 - 부과기반 확대: 금융소득, 소득 있는 피부양자
- ③ 저소득층 보험료의 민간대납제도

2. 급여비 지출관리대책

- 1) 지불제도의 개편
 - 공급자의 행동에 결정적 영향을 미침.
 - 보건의료체계의 최종 성과를 직접적으로 결정
 - 건강보험제도의 재정안정효과
 - 정책패러다임의 전환
 - ▶ 후불제 → 선불제
 - ▶ 총액제 혹은 목표진료비

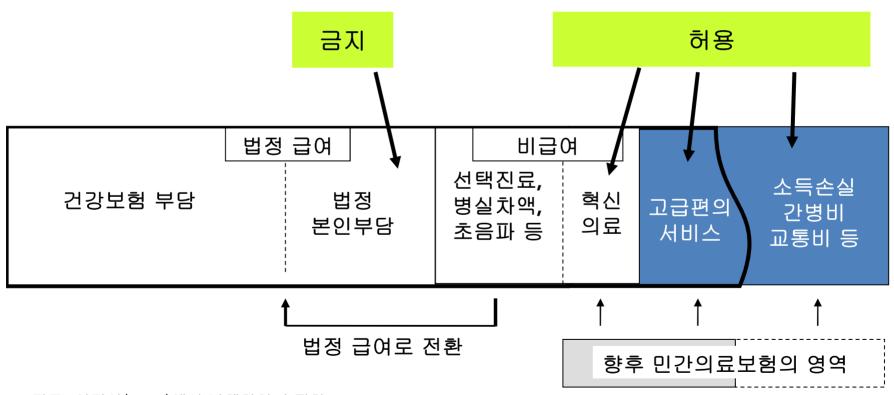
2) 약가관리제도의 개혁

- 선별등재제도의 지속적 추진
 - ✓신약의 선별 등재 : 값싸고 질 좋은 의약품을 건강 보험에서 급여
 - ✔기존 의약품의 목록 정비 : 비용-효과성
- 의약품 가격 및 품질 경쟁 → 국내 제약기업의 국제경 쟁력 제고
- 실거래가 상환제의 개선 : 실거래 가격 파악 노력
- 사용량-가격 연동제의 실효성 제고
- 일반의약품(OTC)의 약국 외 판매 : 가격 인하, 진료비 절감

3. 거버넌스 개혁

- 건강보험 정책결정과정의 투명성 제고
 - ▶ 건강보험료 결정 및 지출관리에 가입자의 의견 반영
 - ▶ 보장성 등 급여결정
- 정책결정의 민주성
 - ✔ 가입자의 자율, 자치 관리 존중
- 단일보험자의 구매력 활용
- 보험자의 공급기능 : 희귀의약품 등 수급 문제 해결
- 진료비 관리체계 일원화 : 자동차보험 진료비 등

4. 민간의료보험과의 역할 재설정



자료: 이진석(2006)에서 발췌하여 수정함.

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고령화를 반영한 공사건강보험의 역할 재정립

Reestablishing the Role of Public and Private Health Insurance Reflecting Aging Population

2012. 10. 19

보험연구원 김대환

Korea Insurance Research Institute, DaeHwan Kim



C	Or	nto	nts
U	UI		

- **골사건강보험의 역할 재정립** 20





의료 및 건강보험의 성과



1. 의료비 보장을 위한 공사건강보험 체계

❖ 의료비 보장체계

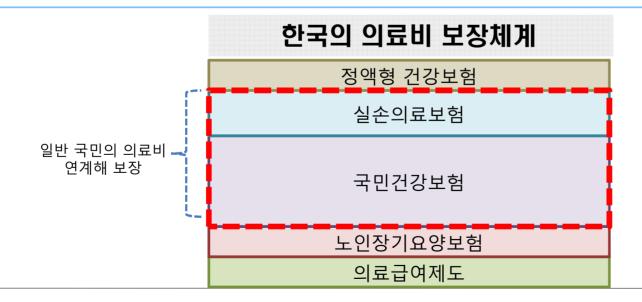
의료급여제도:「국민기초생활 보장법」상 저소득계층(공적부조)

노인장기요양 : 혼자서 생활 곤란한 65세 이상 및 65세 미만 노인성 질환자

• 국민건강보험: 의료비보장을 위한 가장 기초적인 사회보장제도

• 실손의료보험: 국민건강보험이 보장하지 않는 본인부담을 실비로 보장

• 정액형 건강보험 : 미연에 약정한 금액을 제공(의료비, 소득보상 기능)

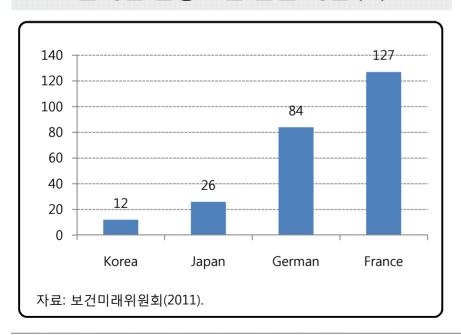




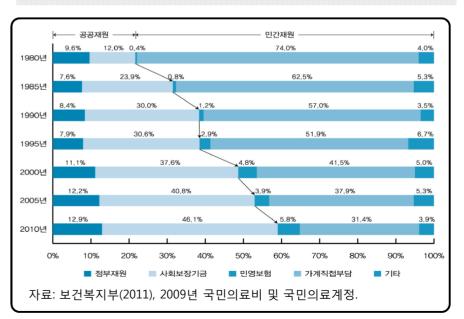
2. 공사건강보험

- ❖ 국민건강보험
 - 최단기간(1977~1989)에 전국민 건강보험 실현
 - 상대적으로 낮은 보험료 유지하면서 지속적인 보장성 강화 노력

전국민 건강보험 실현 기간 (연)



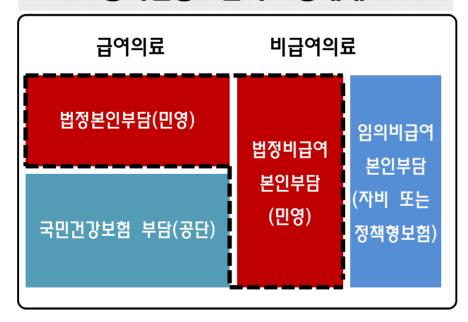
국민의료비 재정 구성의 추이



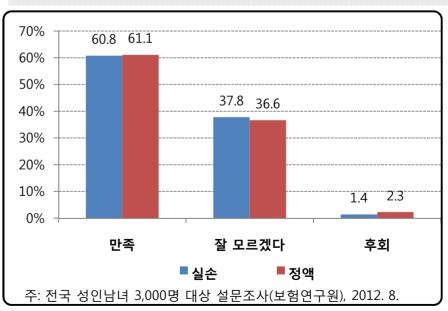


- ❖ 민영건강보험(실손)
 - 공보험이 보장하지 않는 의료비를 보완(Complimentary) · 보충(Supplementary)
 - 중복가입확인 시스템 구축(2009. 7) 및 상품표준화(2009. 10)
 - 국민 절반 이상의 높은 가입률과 만족도

공사건강보험의 보장체계



민영건강보험 만족도

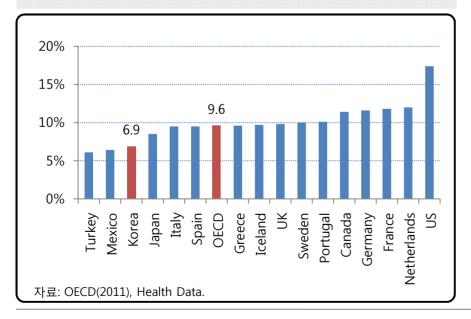




3. 의료체계

- ❖ 비용 대비 높은 편익
 - GDP 대비 국민의료비 6.9%로 OECD 평균 9.6%보다 낮음
 - · 기대수명 높고 영아사망률 낮은 우수한 성과

GDP 대비 국민의료비



건강 성과

	Korea	OECD
기대수명	80.4	79.5
영유악사망률	3.5	4.4

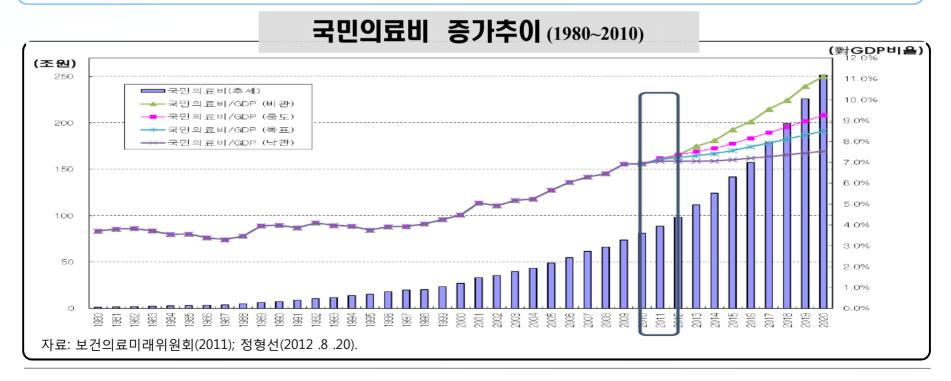
주: 기대수명의 단위는 "세", 영유아사망률은 "출생 1.00명당 사망자 수"임. 자료: OECD(2011), Health Data.

Ⅲ 문제의 진단



1. 의료비 증가와 의료체계

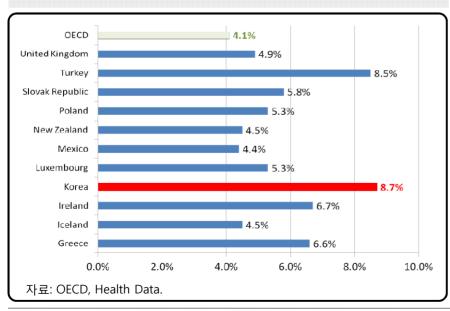
- ❖ 급증하는 의료비
 - 1980년 1.4조원에서 2010년 81.3조원으로 급증
 - 다가오는 2020년이면 OECD 평균 수준에 도달



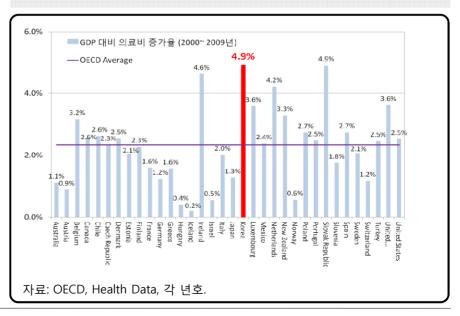


- ❖ 국민의료비 증가의 국제비교
 - 의료비 증가율 세계에서 가장 높음
 - 경제성장 감안하더라도 가장 높음

OECD 1인당 의료비증가율 (1997~2007)



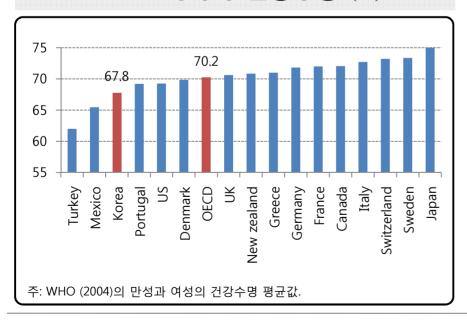
GDP 대비 의료비 증가율



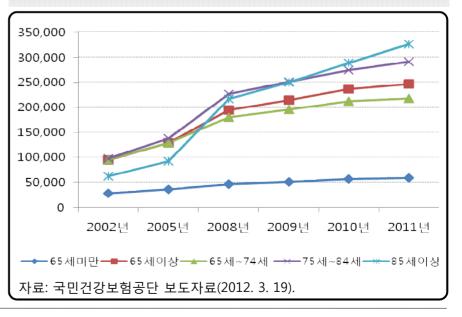


- ❖ 노인의료비 증가 및 질병구조 변화
 - 치료중심의 의료전달체계로 노인 대부분이 만성질환을 보유하여 낮은 건강수명
 - 노인비중은 10.5%에 불과, 총 의료비 중 노인의료비 33.3%
 - 현 상황 지속 시 인구고령화는 의료재정의 폭발적 증가 초래

OECD 국가의 건강수명 (세)



연령별 윌 의료비 증가 추이 (원)



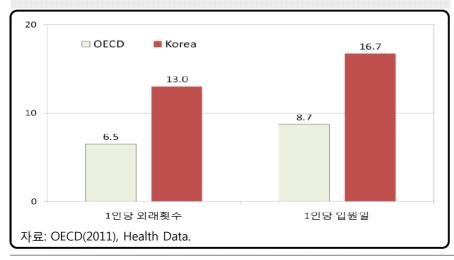


❖ 진료비 지불제도와 심사체계

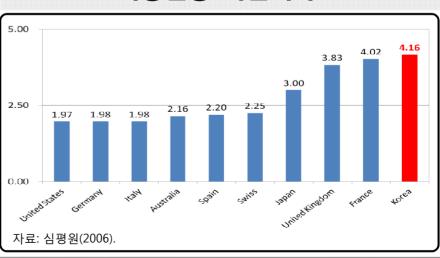
- 건강관심 증가 및 의료기술 발달도 의료비 증가의 원인
- 급여의료의 수가인상 2% 내외에서 통제하고 있으나 광범위한 비급여 영역
- 의료기관은 0증가 또는 수가체계 부재한 비급여 위주로 수익 극대화 유인

$$Revenue = (P_{\text{pladed}} \times Q_{\text{depla}}) + (P_{\text{pladed}} \times Q_{\text{pladed}})$$

1인당 연간 외래횟수 및 입원일수



처방전당 약품목수

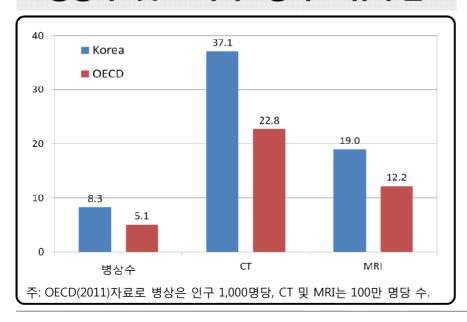




❖ 진료비 지불제도와 심사체계

- 비급여의 주요 항목인 병상, 검사를 위한 고가의료장비 보유율 높음
- 비급여 진료비 및 진료적정성에 대해서는 의료공급자가 의사결정권자 & 가격결정권자
- 의료계의 문제 vs. 제도적 문제

병상 수 및 고가의료장비 보유 수준



비급여의료 진료비 차이

구분	최저가격	최고 가격	가격차		
수면내시경 관리행위	35,000	196,100	5.6		
갑성선 초음파검사	30,000	177,000	5.9		
유방 초음파검사	70,000	275,000	3.9		
MRI(뇌)	410,000	1,386,000	3.4		
MRI(척추)	410,000	700,000	1.7		
PET-CT(노)	370,000	940,000	2.5		
자료: 한국소비자원(2011. 7).					

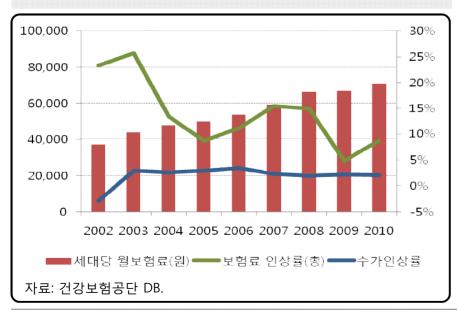


2. 국민건강보험

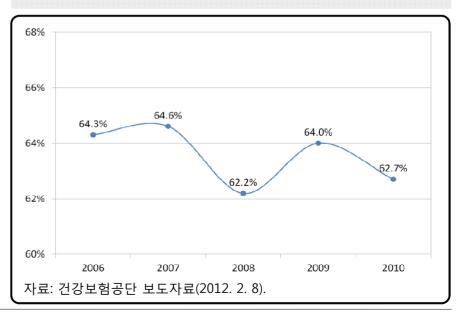
❖ 보장성

- 보험료수입 10% 이상 증가, 수가 2% 내외 통제, 의료비 증가 및 비급여로 보장성 답보
- ・총 보장률 VS. 계층별 보장률

보험료 및 수가 인상 추이



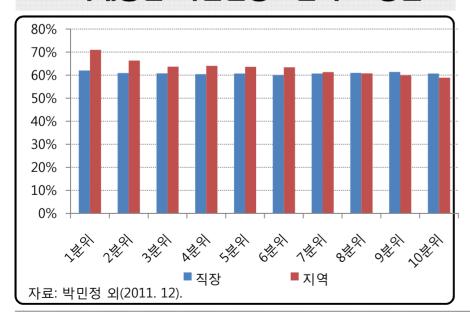
국민건강보험의 보장률 추이



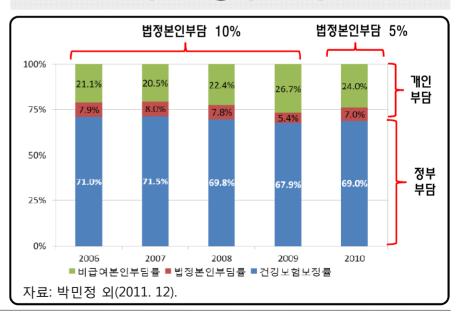


- ❖ 계층별 보장률 [1]
 - 소득별(저소득), 연령별(6세 미만, 65세 이상), 질병별(중대질병) 보장강화제도 운영 중
 - 급여의료에만 적용되어 실효성은 낮음

소득계층별 국민건강보험의 보장률



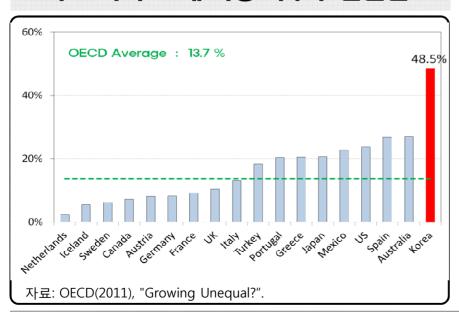
암 급여율 인상과 본인부담률



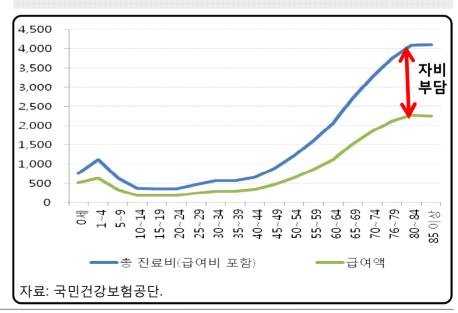


- ❖ 계층별 보장률 [2]
 - 노인빈곤율 세계 최고, 의료비 높아 자비부담 급증
 - 의료비 지출 구조 및 소득구조 고려 미흡

주요국의 65세 이상 가구주 빈곤율



연령별 의료비 지출과 국민건강보험

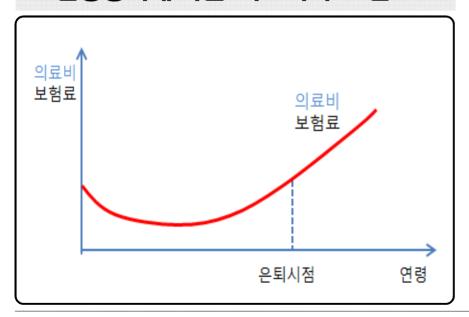




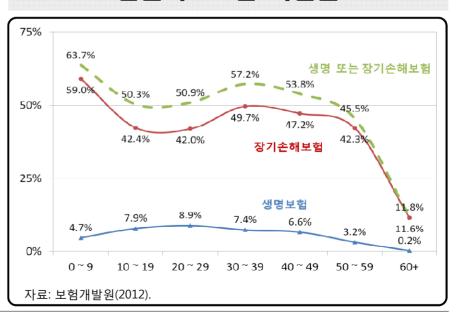
3. 민영건강보험

- ❖ 실손의료보험의 유용성
 - 저소득 노인층 공사건강보험의 사각지대에 방치
 - 연령증가에 따른 의료비 및 보험료 증가로 유지 어려움
 - 보험회사의 문제 vs. 공사건강보험의 역할체계 문제

연령증가에 따른 의료비와 보험료



실손의료보험 가입률





접근성

- · 의료비에 대한 낮은 공보험 역할 & 사보험 접근성 강화 위한 정책적 공조 부재
- 표준화 되었고 접근성 높은 편이지만 통합상품으로 저소득층 접근성 약화
- 비교용이성 및 투명성 미흡으로 비용감소 유인하는 시장기능 약화

보장체계

- ・ 효율적 의료수요 및 의료공급을 저해할 수 있는 보장체계
- 보험금 관리체계 부재 하에서 실손보장
- 입원보장률 90%에 대한 적정성 의문?
 - 공보험의 환급체계 연계부재 및 입원일당은 소득과 연계 미흡으로 일부는 초과이익 발생
- 외래보장은 불변하는 공제금(deductible)체계



4. 공사건강보험의 미흡한 역할 체계

- ❖ 공사연금 vs. 공사건강
 - 노후에 가장 중요한 것은 건강과 소득
 - 공사연금의 역할체계 마련하여 시행 중
 - 공사건강보험은 장기적인 역할체계에 대한 청사진 부재, 각각에 대한 산발적인 제도 개선

노후불안 요소 (%) 4.7 2.2 47.8 ■건강 ■소득 45.3 ■사망 ■정서 자료: 김대환·최원(2011), 「보험소비자 설문조사」

국민연금 개혁

연도	법정소득대체율	출생연도(년)	수급 개시연령(세)
1988~1998	70%	1953~1956	61
1999~2007	60%	1957~1960	62
2008~2028	60%에서 매년 1%P씩 하향조정	1961~1964	63
2028년 이후	40%	1965~1968	64
		1969년생 이후	65

₩ 공사건강보험의 역할 재정립



1. 공사건강보험의 역할 분배 필요성

- ❖ 공사건강보험의 기능
 - 국민의 의료비 보장 & 의료비로 인한 가계파탄 방지
 - · 공보험은 Interpersonal, 민영은 Intrapersonal 기능 중심

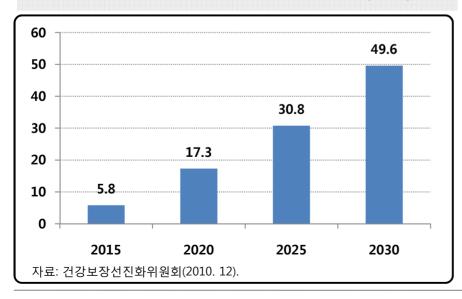
- ❖ 공사건강보험의 역할 재정립
 - 어떤 기능이든 너무 집중될 경우에는 부작용 발생
 - 복지체계는 나라마다의 문화, 국민성, 배경에 따라 다르게 발전
 - 사회적 합의의 산물
 - 직면한 상황에 따라 차별화된 공사보험의 역할 재정립 방향 모색



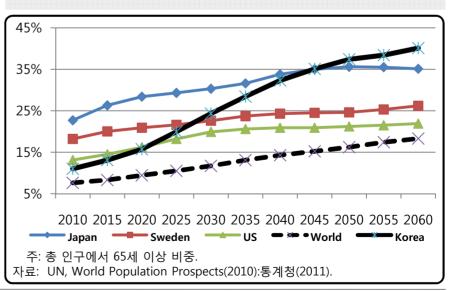
❖ 재정

- 현 인구구조 하에서 국민건강보험 기능 확대 어렵지 않음
- 국민건강보험 보장성 유지만 하더라도 재정적자 급격히 증가 예상
- 부자증세 상징성 높을 뿐 전국민의 부담 증가
- 정비지원(Tax Based)은 의료지출 경감에 대한 유인 약화 및 소득역진성
- 부과방식(Pay-As-You-Go)으로 인구고령화에 재정안정성 취약

국민건강보험의 재정적자 추이 (조원)



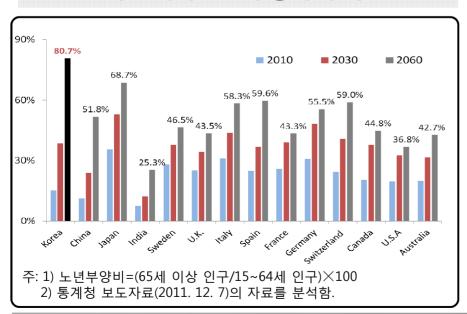
주요국의 인구고령화 추이



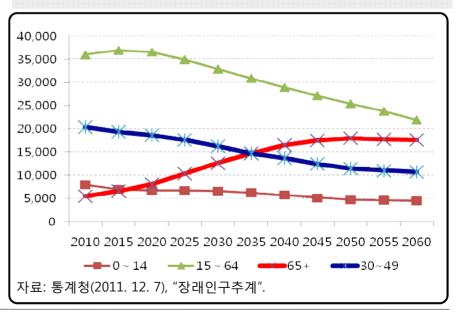


- ❖ 세대간 불형평성
 - 급속한 인구고령화로 노년부양비는 일본도 추월
 - 청장년층 부양부담 급증
 - 경제성장에도 영향

주요국의 노년부양비 추이



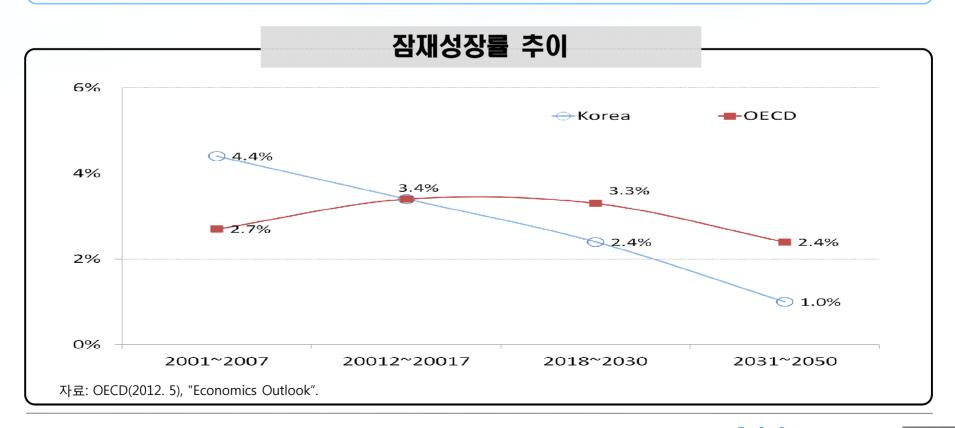
연령별 인구수 추이 (천명)





❖ 생산성

- 세대간 불형평성 존재해도 근로층 생산성 충분히 증가한다면 가능
- 향후 급속한 인구고령화로 잠재성장성 지속 하락 예상

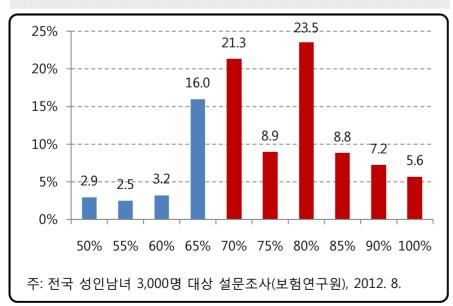




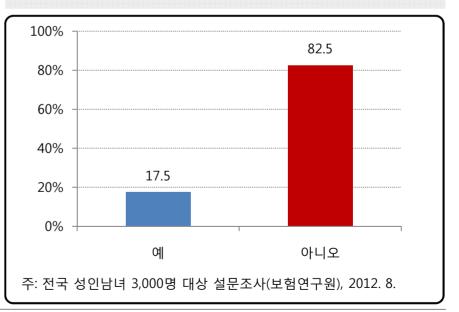
❖ 사회적 합의

- 세대간 불형평성과 낮은 경제성장률에도 불구 사회적 합의를 통해 실현 가능
- · 눔프(Not Out of My Pocket) 현상 만연
- 보험연구원 & 정부 설문조사 동일한 결과

공보험의 적정 보장률



공보험 보장성 & 보험료 인상 의견

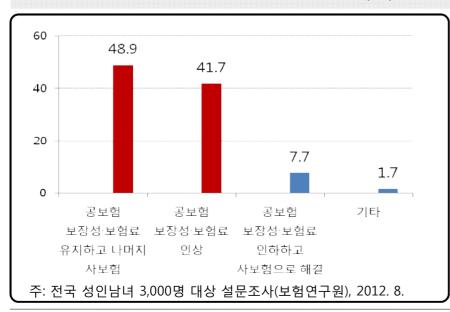




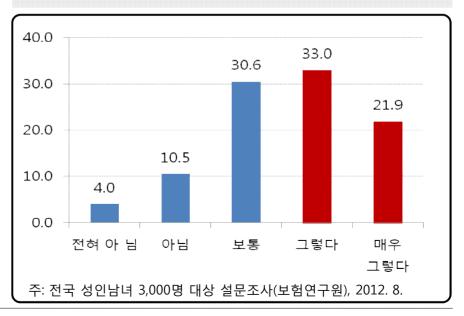
❖ 사회적 합의

- 공보험과 사보험의 역할체계 요구 : 보험연구원 & 정부 설문조사 동일한 결과
 - 중요질병에 대한 공보험 보장 획기적으로 확대해도 63.3% 사보험 필요(공단&충북대, 2005)
- 무상의료 포퓰리즘으로 인지
- 재분배 기능도 중요하지만 개인의 선택권 반영도 사회효용차원에서 중요

공사건강보험의 역할 선호도 (%)



무상의료에 대한 포퓰리즘 여부 (%)





❖ 도덕적 해이

- 의료소비 vs. 경제성장
- 공보험에서의 도덕적 해이가 보험료, 재정, 성장에 주는 영향 고려
- 해외사례 : 일본의 고령자 대상 무상의료로 병원의 노인정화, 결국 보장률 축소
- 국내사례 : 무상보육, 6세 미만 본인부담율 면제, 산정특례제도 등의 부작용
- 도덕적 해이 경감 위해 질을 억제하거나 수요에 대한 모니터링 강화(?)

❖ 공사건강보험체계 필요

- 민영건강보험: 적립방식(Funded Method)으로 인구고령화에 따른 공보험 재정불안정 보완 세대간 불형평성 경감. 소비자 선택권 고려. 도덕적 해이 완화 등
- 민영건강보험의 역할 과할 경우 의료접근성 위축 가능

❖ 공사건강보험체계의 재정립 방향성

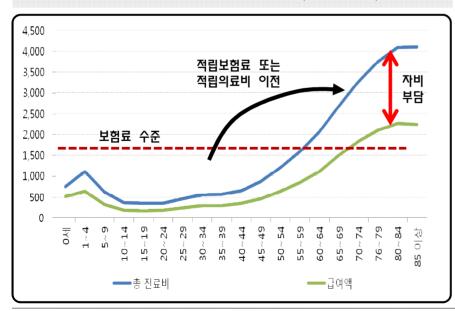
- 의료비 보장 동시에 각각의 기능 극대화, 단점 보완, 지속가능한 역할체계 필요
- 공보험의 역할과 함께 사보험을 위한 정부의 정책·지원도 복지체계의 모습



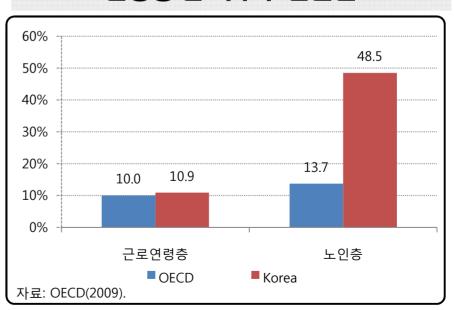
2. 공사건강보험의 역할 체계

- ❖ 적립방식의 실손의료보험?
 - 낮은 근로층 빈곤율과 높은 노인층 빈곤율 고려 시 적합
 - 수준의 문제: 고액 적립 필요, 낮은 가입률·유지율, 세제혜택 시 고소득자에 혜택 집중

의료비 지출구조와 의료비(보험료) 적립



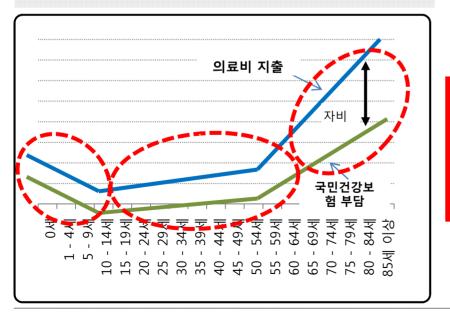
연령충 별 가구주 빈곤율



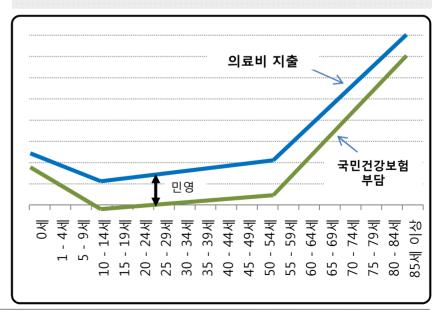


- ❖ 공사건강보험체계의 재정립
 - · 저출산에 대처하고 미래의 인적자본을 위해 영유아 보장률 높게
 - · 국민건강보험은 저소득 취약층(노인층)에 대한 보장성 강화
 - 본인부담상한제 활용 및 산정특례제도(중대질병) 폐지
 - · 나머지는 민영건강보험을 활용한 공사건강보험체계 마련
 - 실손 보험료는 적립방식(평준보험료, 적립대체형, 의료비적립 기능 등) 활용

현 공사건강보험 체계



공사건강보험체계의 재정립



Ⅵ 공사건강보험체계의 안정화 방안



1. 환자의 효율적 의료수요

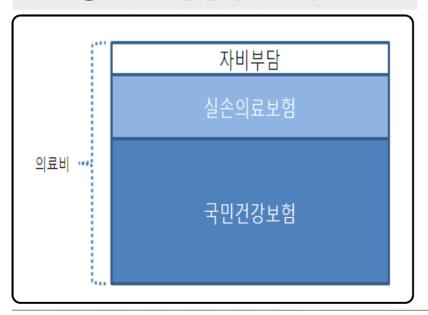
❖ 본인부담

• 국민건강보험: 영유아 및 노인층은 의료이용에 대한 기회비용 낮음을 인지

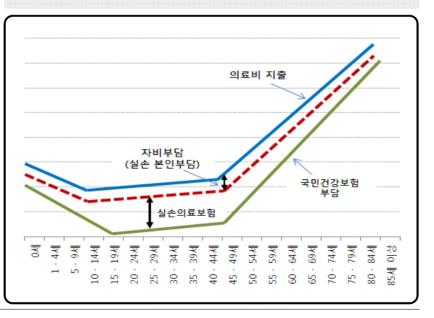
• 실손의료보험 : 초과이익 없는 체계

• 공사건강보험 : 높은 본인부담보다는 자비부담 상존체계 중요

공사보험체계와 본인부담



공사건강보험의 보장체계





2. 의료기관의 효율적 의료공급

- ❖ 진료비 및 진료적정성(비급여) 관리는 국민을 위한 최우선 과제
 - · 보장성강화제도(저소득, 6세 미만, 중대질병) 비급여 때문에 계층별 보장성 강화 실효성 낮음
 - 국민건강보험의 보장성도 강화되지 못함
 - 실손의료보험 안정성 취약
- ❖ 비급여 관리 방안 1 : 보험회사와 의료기관 네트워크
 - 실손 가입자와 비가입자 간, 가입한 보험회사에 따라 의료접근성 상이
 - 실손 비가입자에게 진료비 높게 책정(Balloon Effect)
 - 비급여 관리가 아닌 실손의 보험금 관리라는 제한적 기능
- ❖ 비급여 관리 방안 2 : 심평원에 심사 위탁
 - 재정과 연계되지 못해 심평원의 심사유인 높지 않음
 - 비급여 관리가 아닌 실손의 보험금 관리라는 제한적 기능



- ❖ 비급여 관리 방안 : 급여의료화
 - · 비급여 의료 중 상당부분은 필수의료에 해당
 - 필수의료들 급여화 이후 급여율 기준을 마련하여 차별화, 수가 현실화
 - 보장성 강화를 위한 다양한 제도를 실효성 확대, 공사건강보험체계 안정화 및 보험료 인하
 - 이외의 의료에 대해서는 의심가는 보험금만 심사체계 마련 후 실손보장
 - 의료행위에 대한 코드화로 적절한 규제, 제도, 상품개발 지속 필요

비급여 의료의 급여화 이후 공사건강보험 보장 체계

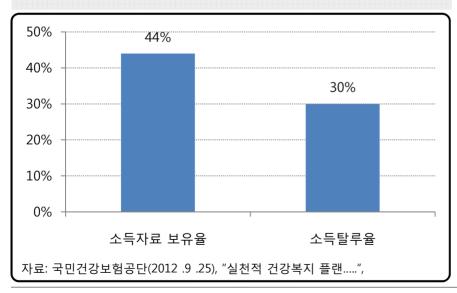
의료		변경 전	변경 후	
급역의료		국민건강보험 + 실손	국민건강보험 + 실손	
비급역의료	법정비급역	필수의료	실손	국민건강보험 + 실손
		선택적 의료	실손	보험금 심사체계 마련 시 실손 보장 또는 정액형 보장
	이외의 의료(임의)		비보장	정액형 보장
자료: OECD(2012. 5), "Economics Outlook".				



3. 보험료·보험사기 관리

- ❖ 보험료 인상은 최후의 고려 대상
 - 자영업자 소득파악 확대 및 탈세 감소
 - 수요자 : 민영건강보험 가입으로 의료수요에 따른 초과이익 제거해야 보험사기 경감
 - 공급자 : 보험사기에 대한 처벌수준 강화는 모니터링 비용 경감(예, 삼진아웃제)

지역가입자 소득파악률 및 탈루율



의료기관 보험사기 적발 후 보험금 추이





4. 실손이료보험 접근성 강화 및 세제체계 개선

상품 투명성 및 비교용이성 강화

- 경쟁원리에 의한 비효율적 비용 경감
- 보험회사 사업비 경감 위해 노력, 하지만 상품비교 어려우면 유인 약화
- 독립상품은 상품의 비교용이성 확대로 비용절감 및 접근성 강화

세제체계 개선

- 공보험: 목적세(흡연, 음주, 비만 등) 기능 강화, 지출 합리화 및 신설
- 사보험: 풀(Pool) 확대 → 보험료 인하 및 보험회사 수익 개선 → 국민&보험회사 Win-Win
 - 의료비 보장 기능 일부 시장에 위임하면서 정부도 Win
 - 방안 : 현재 보장성 보험에 제공하는 세제혜택(100만원)에서 실손 분리 기대수명 증가에 따라 정책도 생존보장 강화 필요(일본 등)



5. 의료비 지출구조 변화

❖ 건강수명 확대

- 보장성·재정안정화를 위해 정부 P와 0를 관리하려는 유인 발생, 의료기관은 C를 최소화
- 의료의 질에 영향을 주지 않으면서 의료비를 관리하고 보장률 확대하는 방안에 우선
- 공사건강보험 : 건강관리서비스 등 예방 중심으로 사전적리스크 관리에 집중
- 급증하는 의료비 및 세대간 형평성 문제 해결 위한 근본적 방안

