

How is the COVID-19 Pandemic Shaping Transportation Access to Health Care?

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1 How is the COVID-19 Pandemic Shaping 2 Transportation Access to Health Care?

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36 ABSTRACT

37
38 The Coronavirus disease 19 (COVID-19) pandemic has disrupted both transportation and health
39 systems. While about 40% of Americans have delayed seeking medical care during the
40 pandemic, it remains unclear to what extent transportation is contributing to missed care. To
41 understand the relationship between transportation and unmet health care needs during the
42 pandemic, this paper synthesizes existing knowledge on transportation patterns and barriers
43 across five types of health care needs. While the literature is limited by the absence of detailed
44 data for trips to health care, key themes emerged across populations and settings. We find that
45 some patients, many of whom already experience transportation disadvantage, likely need extra
46 support during the pandemic to overcome new travel barriers related to changes in public transit
47 or the inability to rely on others for rides. Telemedicine is working as a partial substitute for
48 some visits but cannot fulfill all health care needs, especially for vulnerable groups. Structural
49 inequality during the pandemic has likely compounded health care access barriers for low-
50 income individuals and people of color, who face not only disproportionate health risks, but also
51 greater difficulty in transportation access and heightened economic hardship due to COVID-19.
52 Partnerships between health and transportation systems hold promise for jointly addressing
53 disparities in health- and transportation-related challenges but are largely limited to Medicaid-
54 enrolled patients. Our findings suggest that transportation and health care providers should look
55 for additional strategies to ensure that transportation access is not a reason for delayed medical
56 care during and after the COVID-19 pandemic.

57
58 **KEYWORDS:** health care, access to care, transportation equity, COVID-19, non-emergency medical
59 transportation, NEMT
60
61

62 1. Introduction

63
64 The Coronavirus disease 19 (COVID-19) pandemic introduced broad transportation system
65 challenges that have restricted transportation access across the United States. From reduced
66 public transit service to lessened ability to rely on others for fear of contracting the virus, people
67 who already struggled with transportation likely find themselves at an even greater
68 disadvantage now. Transportation disadvantage was widely recognized as a barrier to health
69 care access before the pandemic (Syed et al., 2013), and programs such as paratransit
70 (operated by public transit agencies) and Non-Emergency Medical Transportation (funded and
71 arranged by Medicaid, the public health insurance program for low-income Americans) exist to
72 help people with medical or physical limitations get to essential destinations. The public health
73 threat of COVID-19 has increased the urgency of understanding and alleviating transportation
74 barriers to health care via existing and emerging strategies.

75
76 Health systems have made efforts to mitigate barriers to care during COVID-19 while
77 maintaining public safety. At the start of the pandemic, most health systems deferred non-
78 emergency medical procedures and replaced in-person appointments with video or telephone
79 visits. However, many types of medical care still require in-person visits, and health systems are
80 increasingly resuming elective in-person care. Delivering necessary in-person care during the
81 pandemic likely requires new transportation strategies.

82
83 Emerging data suggest that since the start of the pandemic, many Americans have been unable
84 or unwilling to meet their non-COVID-19-related medical needs. One recent study of data from a

85 West Coast medical system found that transportation barriers are associated with significantly
86 higher odds of a positive COVID-19 test (Rozenfeld et al., 2020). This may reflect a greater risk
87 of disease exposure associated with insecure transportation and therefore greater reliance on
88 public transit and/or shared rides, or it may suggest inadequate access to health care, including
89 timely COVID-19 testing. From April through July 2020, 40% of U.S. adults reported that they
90 had delayed medical care because of the pandemic [dataset] (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020a). By
91 late October 2020, about 31% of adults still reported these delays, with slightly higher rates of
92 delayed care among women (34%, vs. 28% of men) and among Hispanic adults (35%, vs. 30%
93 of non-Hispanic Whites, 31% of African Americans, and 32% of Asians) [dataset] (U.S. Census
94 Bureau, 2020b). Little is known about the extent to which transportation has been a barrier to
95 care during the pandemic.

96
97 In this article, we seek to examine the likely impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic on
98 transportation for non-COVID-19-related health care in the United States. After briefly
99 considering how the pandemic has impacted transportation and health care systems in general,
100 we examine this issue through the lens of five different types of health care needs: dialysis,
101 prenatal care, cancer treatment, mental-health and substance-use treatment, and health care
102 for people with disabilities. These health care needs are significant because they are
103 disproportionately prevalent among people with transportation disadvantages and/or
104 transportation interventions are cost-effective or even cost-saving for people with these needs
105 (Bernardo et al., 2019; Wallace et al., 2006).

107 1.1 Changes in transportation and healthcare delivery

108
109 Changes in employment, transportation service, and health facility operations during the
110 COVID-19 pandemic have broad and potentially long-lasting implications for transportation to
111 health care settings.

112
113 First, the COVID-19 pandemic's toll on the labor market has reshaped how and where people
114 access health care. With the estimated number of Americans out of work or underemployed
115 topping 30 million (Shierholz, 2020), many Americans are likely to be newly uninsured. Public
116 health insurance programs have worked to extend access to their plans during the pandemic
117 (Garrett and Gangopadhyaya, 2020), but it is likely that about 7.3 million recently unemployed
118 workers are newly uninsured (Woolhandler and Himmelstein, 2020) in addition to the 29 million
119 Americans who were uninsured before the pandemic (Tolbert et al., 2020). Changes in where
120 people live have also impacted health care travel. Roughly one in five Americans has moved or
121 knows someone who has moved due to job loss, economic insecurity, and educational
122 instruction changes due to the pandemic (Cohn, 2020). People who have moved have been
123 shown to suffer reduced access to care for at least two years after relocating (Chen et al., 2020)
124 and may face longer trips to their prior health care providers, or they may need to find new
125 routes to unfamiliar health facilities. The pace of the nation's economic recovery, which
126 quickened in summer 2020 but has since slowed amid stagnant consumer demand in many
127 industries (Weber Handwerker et al., 2020), will likely shape how long the pandemic's economic
128 impact alters access to care for vulnerable Americans.

129
130 Second, in response to declining ridership and fiscal pressures, public transit agencies have
131 reduced service in most regions (Hu and Chen, 2021). Additionally, ride-hailing service
132 providers Lyft and Uber have suspended their lower-cost shared-ride services during the
133 pandemic (Bond, 2020). Some volunteer driver programs, such as the "Road to Recovery"
134 program provided by the American Cancer Society, have suspended or reduced service

135 (American Cancer Society, 2020). As a result of these service changes, people who have relied
136 on public transportation, lower-cost shared ride-hailing services, or rides from people living both
137 inside and outside of their home face additional transportation burdens because of the
138 pandemic. Although shared ride services and volunteer driver programs may return once
139 widespread COVID-19 vaccination suppresses the pandemic, the future of public transportation
140 remains under long-term threat, as service cuts and delayed infrastructure upgrades may deter
141 potential riders even after recovery from COVID-19 (Verma, 2020). Public transit cuts may be
142 particularly harmful for residents who use transit more (including people without cars, people of
143 color, and low-wage essential workers) as well as residents of transit deserts, where levels of
144 transit demand outpace available transit services (Martin et al., 2016; Manville et al., 2018;
145 TransitCenter, 2020; Jiao and Dillivan, 2013). Indeed, recent studies have shown that transit
146 service cuts disproportionately impact residents of lower-income, less-educated, and less White
147 neighborhoods, where the drop in transit demand during the pandemic has been the smallest
148 (Brough et al., 2020; Hu and Chen, 2021).

149
150 Third, health care facilities have replaced many in-person visits with telemedicine (health care
151 delivered by telephone, video conference, or electronic messaging) to reduce COVID-19
152 transmission risk (Abelson, 2020; Levey, 2020). This shift has been eased by temporary federal
153 regulatory changes that made it easier for providers to be reimbursed for telemedicine visits
154 during the pandemic (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 2020). Although health
155 care visits are down across the board, clinical specialties such as psychiatry, psychology, and
156 endocrinology, which have replaced the largest proportion of patient visits with telemedicine,
157 have generally seen the smallest drops in visit volumes, whereas fields like optometry, physical
158 therapy, and orthopedics have had lower adoption of telemedicine and larger drops in visit
159 volumes (Patel et al., 2021).

160
161 However, telemedicine has not been able to reach all patients. Patients who are older, lower-
162 income, and non-English-speaking have been least likely to receive care via telemedicine during
163 the COVID-19 pandemic (Eberly et al., 2020; Kakani et al., 2021). Furthermore, residents of
164 neighborhoods with lower income, lower education, and lower broadband internet access have
165 been less likely to access video visits (as opposed to telephone visits), potentially limiting the
166 effectiveness of virtual care they do receive (Rodriguez et al., 2021). It is thus no surprise that
167 community health centers serving low-income and uninsured patients have had more difficulty
168 implementing telemedicine (Johnson and Goodnough, 2020; J.-H. Kim et al., 2020). These and
169 other barriers to reaching patients during the pandemic led to the temporary closure of nearly
170 2,000 federally-funded community health center sites, which form the backbone of safety-net
171 health care for many of the most economically and medically vulnerable Americans (HRSA
172 Bureau of Primary Health Care, 2020). For patients who rely on community health centers, clinic
173 closures may mean longer travel distances, greater difficulty accessing health care, and worse
174 clinical outcomes for treatable conditions (Kishore and Hayden, 2020). Fortunately, federal relief
175 funding and increasing adoption of telemedicine have helped many community clinics stay
176 afloat, and community clinics are now poised to play a central role in delivering COVID-19
177 vaccines in neighborhoods hardest-hit by the pandemic (Corallo et al., 2020).

178
179 Finally, some trips to health care may have been eliminated or rerouted thanks to mobile care
180 services. Mobile medical clinics have existed for years; most are supported by private
181 philanthropy, leading to operational and funding challenges that have limited their services to a
182 small segment of the health care sector. During the COVID-19 pandemic, as many as 80% of
183 existing mobile clinics temporarily suspended or reduced operations, while some physical clinics
184 began to offer new mobile services (Attipoe-Dorcoo et al., 2020; Heath, 2020). In addition to
185 mobile clinics, paramedics and paratransit agencies have also worked to address transportation

186 barriers by delivering non-emergency care, medications, food, COVID-19 tests, and vaccines to
187 high-risk patients at their homes during the pandemic, but it is unclear whether these programs
188 will be scalable or sustainable after the pandemic (Attipoe-Dorcoo et al., 2020; Corallo et al.,
189 2020; Wicklund, 2020).

190
191 Structural inequity is evident in the repeated racial and socioeconomic patterns in poverty, job
192 and insurance loss, transportation disadvantage, and access to telemedicine felt
193 disproportionately among people and communities of color (Johnson and Goodnough, 2020; E.
194 J. Kim et al., 2020; J.-H. Kim et al., 2020).

195

196 2. Methods

197
198 To illustrate different aspects of the COVID-19 pandemic's impact on transportation and its
199 potential influence on health care, we outline considerations and constraints for transportation to
200 five specific types of health care during the pandemic. Lack of transportation is a documented
201 barrier to accessing health care for end-stage kidney disease (Ellis et al., 2019), cancer care
202 (Burg et al., 2010), prenatal care (Braveman et al., 2000; Mazul et al., 2017), care for mental
203 health and substance use disorder (Choi and Gonzalez, 2005; Palmer et al., 2009), and health
204 care, in general, among people with disabilities (Drainoni et al., 2006; Henning-Smith et al.,
205 2016). The first four of these health conditions were examined in a 2006 cost-effectiveness
206 analysis, which found that transportation interventions to overcome barriers to health care can
207 be cost-effective or cost-saving for society and might improve quality of life and life expectancy
208 for these patients (Wallace et al., 2006). Here, we expand on the list of health care needs
209 identified by Wallace et al. to additionally explore health care transportation needs among
210 people with disabilities, who require and use health care at higher rates than people without
211 disabilities and often face added challenges when traveling (Anand and Ben-Shalom, 2014;
212 Kennedy et al., 2017).

213
214 Given the quickly evolving nature of the COVID-19 pandemic, we performed a rapid literature
215 review by searching academic databases focused on medicine, public health, and social
216 sciences, including PubMed, TRID (Transportation Research International Documentation),
217 ScienceDirect, PAIS Index, AcademicSearchComplete, and Google Scholar. Our search
218 strategy combined descriptors of each health care need and/or associated patient population
219 with transportation keywords including "transportation needs," "transportation access," "public
220 transportation," and other travel modes. We focused on research from the United States
221 conducted in the last 30 years. Additionally, we searched gray literature through Google and
222 Google Scholar to identify academic articles, reports, and news articles relevant to the
223 transportation needs and COVID-19 context for each type of health care need.

224
225 In addition to reviewing the literature, we also incorporated a small descriptive analysis of data
226 from the 2017 National Household Travel Survey (NHTS), a nationally-representative sample of
227 travel in the United States (U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration,
228 2020), with the goal of understanding how people typically travel to health care. NHTS collects
229 information on respondents' disability status but not on specific health care needs or health
230 conditions, so we evaluated NHTS data for just one of the five health care needs examined in
231 this report: care for people with disabilities. For this analysis, we classified NHTS respondents
232 as having disabilities if they reported having a disability that limited travel outside of the home
233 (Brumbaugh, 2018). Using the trip purpose summary data, we defined trips to health care as
234 travel to obtain "medical/dental services." We report the proportion of trips to health care made

235 by people with versus without disabilities via each of the following modes: personal vehicle,
236 public transit, paratransit, taxi/ride-hailing, walk, bicycle, and other. NEMT services were not
237 explicitly identified in NHTS survey questions but were likely reported as either “Taxi/ride-
238 hailing” or “Other.” Because raw NHTS data describe trips that survey participants took over the
239 course of a single day, we applied trip weights in order to estimate the annual travel behaviors
240 of the United States population and to account for NHTS sampling procedures.
241

242 3. Findings

243

244 3.1 Dialysis for End-Stage Kidney Disease

245

246 Most people with end-stage kidney disease (ESKD) depend on dialysis, a blood filtration
247 process that replaces the function of the kidneys. Dialysis sessions, which in most cases are
248 necessary to keep these patients alive, last several hours and typically require visits to a dialysis
249 facility three to four times per week. During the COVID-19 pandemic, there has been a push to
250 increase the use of home-based dialysis care (Brown and Perl, 2020; Yerram and Misra, 2020),
251 but most patients are still traveling to dialysis facilities for their care. Dialysis facilities have
252 implemented a number of COVID-19 related safety protocols, including clustering patients
253 during treatments and transportation (Verma et al., 2020) as well as dedicating treatment
254 facilities to dialysis for COVID-19-positive patients (Ikizler and Klinger, 2020).
255

256 Notably, racial and ethnic minorities are disproportionately impacted by ESKD. After controlling
257 for gender and age, the prevalence of ESKD incidence is 3.7 times higher for African Americans
258 and 9.5 times higher for Native Hawaiians/Pacific Islanders compared to non-Hispanic Whites,
259 while prevalence among Hispanics is 1.6 times greater than among non-Hispanics. The same
260 minority groups are also less likely than Whites to receive kidney transplants, which can
261 eliminate the need for hemodialysis (United States Renal Data System, 2019). These
262 racial/ethnic inequities in ESKD are driven predominantly by social and structural factors related
263 to lower socioeconomic status, worse access to care, clinician bias, lower quality of care, and
264 worse control of ESKD risk factors (Norris et al., 2017).
265

266 Many patients with ESKD require help with transportation to dialysis, even in the absence of a
267 pandemic. Due to various factors, including their advanced stage of illness and the fatigue
268 associated with the dialysis procedure itself, about three out of four patients do not drive
269 themselves to and from dialysis facilities. Roughly half of patients on dialysis rely on various
270 forms of public transportation, including paratransit, to get to their dialysis sessions. Twenty
271 percent rely on rides from friends and family, and ten percent rely on Non-Emergency Medical
272 Transportation (NEMT) rides (arranged and paid for by an insurer, usually Medicaid) or other
273 similar services (Ellis et al., 2019).
274

275 Existing programs for transportation to dialysis are far from perfect. Patients without private
276 vehicles who rely on these programs cite unreliability and scheduling difficulty as significant
277 concerns. A paratransit van may be late in dropping off a patient, resulting in a shortened—and
278 often incomplete—dialysis treatment. In some cases, transportation worries provoke so much
279 stress that patients choose to end dialysis early to ensure that they do not miss a ride (Ellis et
280 al., 2019). Transportation barriers also contribute to patients missing appointments altogether,
281 with grave consequences: skipped or shortened dialysis sessions put patients at increased risk
282 for hospitalization and life-threatening complications (Chan et al., 2014; Gray et al., 2017;
283 Obialo et al., 2012). These adverse events are particularly concerning for people who rely on

284 public transportation, as they miss dialysis sessions more often than people who use private
285 vehicles (Chan et al., 2014).

286

287 3.2 Prenatal Care

288

289 For many women, pregnancy occasions a sudden uptick in the frequency of trips to medical
290 care. Pregnant women are asked to attend upwards of twelve prenatal care visits during a
291 typical pregnancy. Even before the pandemic, clinicians had begun to question the
292 recommended frequency of prenatal care visits (Carter et al., 2016); COVID-19 only heightened
293 the push for fewer trips to prenatal care. During the pandemic, obstetricians have implemented
294 new prenatal care schedules, recommending as few as five total in-person visits for low-risk
295 women. These clinicians are using virtual visits and home monitoring devices to check in with
296 patients in between their trips to the clinic (Peahl, 2020; The American College of Obstetricians
297 and Gynecologists, 2020).

298

299 However, even with the reduced number of prenatal care visits during the pandemic,
300 transportation challenges will likely remain a barrier to adequate and timely prenatal care for
301 some women. Transportation barriers are especially common among low-income women of
302 color, who remain at significant risk for missed prenatal care (Braveman et al., 2000; Mazul et
303 al., 2017); for example, in 2018, 81% of pregnant White women received timely and adequate
304 prenatal care, compared to 68% of pregnant Black women and 72% of Hispanic women (Office
305 of Disease Prevention and Health Promotion, 2020). This reduced access to prenatal care
306 contributes to the fact that Black women are about 3 times more likely than White women to die
307 from pregnancy-related complications (Petersen, 2019). Previous studies highlight how
308 transportation interventions (e.g. bus passes and taxi vouchers) can increase women's timely
309 engagement with prenatal care in certain settings (Melnikow et al., 1997) but may need to be
310 paired with broader socioeconomic support to be most effective (Johnson et al., 2011).

311

312 3.3 Cancer Care

313
314 The landscape of transportation to cancer care in the United States was already shifting before
315 the COVID-19 pandemic. In the last few decades, advances in treatment options and changing
316 reimbursement rules have driven a transition in oncology care from a dispersed web of
317 community clinics to more specialized, centralized, hospital-based clinics. As a result, cancer
318 patients face longer travel distances and widening travel disparities (Fisher et al., 2016;
319 Stitzenberg et al., 2009; Yang and Wapnir, 2018).

320
321 Similar to patients requiring facility-based dialysis, many people seeking active cancer treatment
322 have continued to rely on in-person care during the COVID-19 pandemic, as many cancer
323 treatments cannot be delivered at home. The health consequences of delayed cancer care are
324 highly variable across patient factors and cancer treatment characteristics, and the risk of
325 COVID-19 transmission has forced oncologists to make complicated triage decisions. Some
326 interventions, such as surgery for low-risk prostate cancer, are considered safe to delay for
327 several months or longer. In contrast, other treatments, like radiation therapy for fast-spreading
328 gynecologic cancers, should not be delayed at all, lest the narrow window for treatment success
329 close as the pandemic continues to cause major devastation across the nation (Kutikov et al.,
330 2020).

331
332 Estimating the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on transportation to cancer care is
333 challenging because of scant literature assessing the impact of mode of transportation on
334 cancer treatment. Previous studies have focused predominantly on the correlation between
335 transportation mode and receipt of cancer screening, rather than cancer treatment. A 1991
336 study of older patients in New Mexico who were newly diagnosed with cancer found that 33% of
337 participants relied on others for rides to cancer care (Goodwin et al., 1991); more recent
338 transportation-mode data for trips to cancer treatment are lacking. Nonetheless, transportation
339 barriers are prominent in this clinical setting. In national studies, the percentage of patients who
340 reported that transportation was a barrier to accessing cancer care varies from 13-19% (Shelby
341 et al., 2002; Zullig et al., 2012).

342
343 As a result of greater exposure to cancer risk factors, lower access to routine cancer screening
344 tests, and greater barriers to initiating treatment once diagnosed with cancer, inequities in
345 cancer care parallel those observed in other health conditions. For example, although White
346 women are slightly more likely than Black women to be diagnosed with breast cancer, Black
347 women are more likely to die from breast cancer (Yedjou et al., 2019). Meanwhile, both the
348 incidence and mortality rates for prostate cancer are higher for Black men compared to White
349 men (Siegel et al., 2020).

351 3.4 Mental health care and substance use treatment

352 Although mental health and substance use disorders are grouped together under the jurisdiction
353 of the federal Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration, the role of
354 transportation in access to care for these two types of disorders often differs. Milder forms of
355 common mental health disorders, such as depression and anxiety, are commonly treated by
356 primary care physicians and therapists in local community clinics (Unützer and Park, 2012). In
357 contrast, severe mental illness and substance use disorder (SUD) often require treatment at
358 specialized facilities. Often clustered in urban centers, these specialized facilities necessitate
359 prolonged travel for residents of suburban and rural areas (Ghorbanzadeh et al., 2020). Patients
360 seeking medication therapy for opioid use disorder, a type of SUD, have been particularly

361 burdened by frequent trips to care. Federal rules require patients treated with methadone to
362 travel to specialized clinics most days of the week to pick up their daily dose of medication.
363 Patients treated instead with buprenorphine are typically seen in-person on a weekly or bi-
364 weekly basis (Jankowski, 2019; Priest, 2020).

365 Adaptation to the COVID-19 pandemic has differed starkly between systems of care for mental
366 health conditions and SUD. Most mental health providers have transitioned to telemedicine,
367 which, prior to the pandemic, had been demonstrated to be as safe and effective as in-person
368 care for common mental health conditions (Bashshur et al., 2016; Hubley et al., 2016; Whaibeh
369 et al., 2020). There may, however, be barriers to initiating treatment for new patients.

370 In contrast, delivering SUD treatment during the pandemic has required more significant
371 changes from usual practice. The Drug Enforcement Agency issued a temporary rule at the start
372 of the pandemic allowing clinics to dispense up to a month's supply of methadone and to initiate
373 buprenorphine treatment via telemedicine. Although these relaxed guidelines should reduce
374 travel burden for patients, not all SUD treatment facilities have implemented these changes
375 (Dunlop et al., 2020; Priest, 2020). Combined with closures and reduced hours at some
376 facilities, patients seeking SUD treatment may be stuck making frequent and potentially longer
377 trips to care during the pandemic (Davis and Samuels, 2020; Dunlop et al., 2020; Priest, 2020).
378 A study based in Philadelphia estimated that a patient's likelihood of initiating outpatient SUD
379 treatment was cut in half for every 10 minutes of added driving time (Mennis et al., 2012).

380 In general, the transportation needs and behaviors of people seeking care for common mental
381 health conditions and SUD are not well understood. There is some evidence that both groups of
382 patients are more likely to depend on public transportation and/or rides from others compared to
383 the general population (O'Brien et al., 2019). Among people with mental illness and SUD, lower
384 transportation independence and longer travel distances may contribute to lower likelihood of
385 initiating treatment and an increased risk of dropping out of treatment (Mennis et al., 2012;
386 Palmer et al., 2009; Rosen et al., 2004).

387 Notably, rates of mental illness are roughly equal across racial/ethnic groups, but Black and
388 Hispanic patients with probable mental illness are less likely than White patients to initiate
389 treatment (Lê Cook et al., 2014). Although data are mixed on whether rates of initiating
390 treatment for SUD differ by race/ethnicity (Lê Cook and Alegría, 2011), communities with higher
391 concentrations of Black residents are served by fewer SUD treatment facilities that accept
392 Medicaid, suggesting that low-income Black patients may have to travel farther to access SUD
393 treatment (Cummings et al., 2014).

394 Transportation challenges, coupled with the additional stresses of COVID-19, may not only
395 exacerbate the treatment needs of existing patients with mental illness and SUD but also
396 increase the number of people requiring care for new-onset conditions (Czeisler et al., 2020).
397 The pandemic seems to have widened racial inequities, too: recent data from Massachusetts
398 has shown that during the COVID-19 pandemic, the volume of mental health and SUD visits
399 dropped significantly more among Black and Hispanic patients than among White patients
400 (Yang et al., 2020).

401

402 [3.5 People with disabilities](#)

403

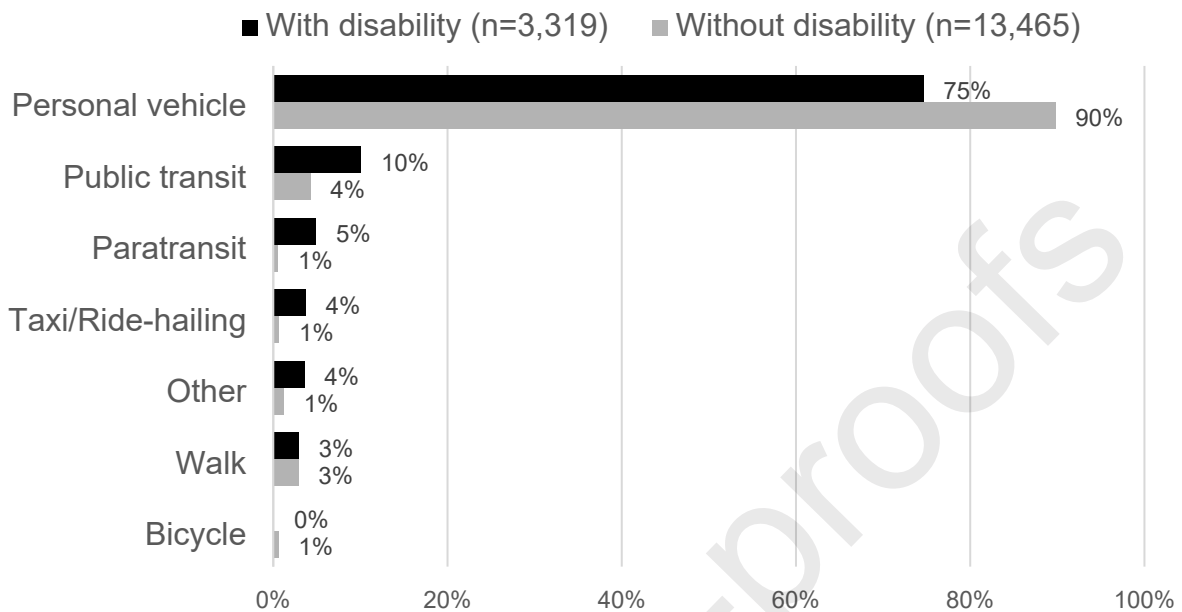
404 More than 40 million Americans have some form of disability (hearing, vision, cognitive,
405 physical/ambulatory or other) that limits their participation in daily activities in minor to major
406 ways [dataset] (U.S. Census Bureau, 2020c). The prevalence of disabilities is highest among
407 Native Americans (29.9%) and Black Americans (21.2%) and lowest among Asian Americans
408 (11.6%) (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2008).

409
410 Disability often occurs as a secondary health condition; for example, people with multiple
411 sclerosis may experience physical and visual limitations secondary to their neurological
412 disorder. Health care needs and travel patterns for accessing health care vary widely across
413 categories of disability and types of underlying health conditions. Duration of disability likely also
414 influences travel behaviors: patients who have experienced their disability for longer may be
415 more likely to have developed strategies to overcome their disability-related limitations (Henly
416 and Brucker, 2019).

417
418 In general, people with disabilities require health care more frequently and are more likely to
419 have delayed or not received necessary care compared to people without disabilities (Henning-
420 Smith et al., 2016). When they do travel to health care, people with disabilities spend more time
421 in transit, even after controlling for trip distance and various personal and modal characteristics
422 (Brucker and Rollins, 2016). People with disabilities are also more likely to have low income and
423 depend on federal health insurance programs (Kennedy et al., 2017), making them potentially
424 eligible for transportation assistance through NEMT services offered by Medicaid and, to a
425 lesser extent, Medicare.

426
427 Using the National Household Travel Survey, as described above, we analyzed data on mode of
428 travel to health care for people with disabilities. Figure 1 presents our bivariate analysis showing
429 the distribution of modes used for trips to health care among people with and without disabilities.
430 These estimates are based on 2017 NHTS data describing 16,784 trips to health care reported
431 in a sample of 129,696 US households [dataset] (U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal
432 Highway Administration, 2020). The weighted estimates shown in Figure 1 represent an
433 estimated 5.6 billion trips to health care made each year in the U.S. Compared to people without
434 disabilities, those with disabilities were generally more likely to use modes that require contact
435 with others, namely public transit, paratransit, and taxi/ride-hailing services.

436
437 Notably, a recent study of San Francisco residents with disabilities showed that dependence on
438 others for rides and fear of exposure to COVID-19 during travel resulted in heightened barriers
439 to seeking medical care during the pandemic (Cochran, 2020). Patterns revealed in the NHTS
440 trip data thus have key implications for improving access to care for people with disabilities,
441 given this population's increased reliance on travel modes most impacted by the pandemic.



Percent of trips to medical/dental care by mode

442
443
444
445
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Figure 1: Modal frequency for trips to health/dental care among people with and without travel-limiting disabilities in the 2017 National Household Travel Survey (Sample sizes (n) are unweighted; percentages reflect estimates that were weighted to represent total annual travel by the United States population) [dataset] (U.S. Department of Transportation, Federal Highway Administration, 2020).

450 4. Discussion of Key Themes

451 Four cross-cutting themes emerged from this review considering the COVID-19 pandemic's
452 transportation system disruptions in the context of existing disparities in health care access
453 across five types of health care needs.

454
455

4.1 Compounding inequity

456 Reduced trips to health care during the COVID-19 pandemic may have serious long-term
457 effects on health disparities. Although some routine health services, like some screening tests
458 for breast or colorectal cancer, can likely be safely delayed by a year without causing major
459 harm, delays in other types of care can lead to deterioration of many acute and chronic health
460 conditions. In fact, clinicians have warned that avoidable complications from missed care could
461 result in an increased demand for health care for years to come (Chen and McGeorge, 2020;
462 Kohli and Virani, 2020). Disparities in access to health care during the pandemic may thus
463 translate to even greater health inequities after the pandemic.

464 For each of the health care needs highlighted in this report, the same communities—especially
465 low-income families and Black, Indigenous, and People of Color—are subject to policies and
466 practices rooted in structural racism that lead to compounding inequality in socioeconomic
467 standing, along with impaired access to multiple resources, including transportation and health
468 care. Not only do these structural inequalities place these communities at elevated risk for many
469 adverse health conditions, they also contribute to greater transportation challenges when health
470 care is needed. These groups that are historically and persistently marginalized and under-
471 resourced because of discrimination through multiple reinforcing systems of housing, education,
472 employment, health care, earnings, criminal justice, and more (Bailey et al., 2017) are also
473 hardest hit by the economic and health-related consequences of COVID-19. These intersecting
474 structural barriers reinforce and widen existing disparities in transportation and health. Achieving
475 health equity will require both systemic reform and immediate, targeted relief to overcome
476 transportation barriers to health care for marginalized groups.

477 4.2 Strategies for overcoming transportation barriers

478 Across all of the health care needs we surveyed, we found extensive use of public transit,
479 paratransit, NEMT services, and rides from others. In order to ensure that the most medically
480 vulnerable patients retain access to these programs during and after the COVID-19 pandemic,
481 leaders in transportation and health care will need to pay close attention to the relationship
482 between their fields. Clinical teams should work with patients to understand their transportation
483 needs in order to better advocate for equitable access to care. Transportation agencies must
484 ensure that service cuts are not creating even greater barriers to health care access among
485 people with the highest need. In the short term, both health care and transportation agencies
486 will need to augment efforts to enroll eligible patients into transportation programs, like NEMT
487 for patients with Medicaid or paratransit service for people with disabilities. Additionally,
488 expanding Medicaid eligibility criteria could help increase the number of transportation-
489 disadvantaged patients who can benefit from NEMT.

490 In the longer term, increased public transportation funding and service is likely to benefit both
491 transportation and health care industries. In light of the growing recognition that health
492 outcomes are largely influenced by circumstances outside the doctor's office, it may also be
493 wise to expand the types of trip destinations covered by NEMT. Lastly, coordinating or
494 consolidating NEMT and paratransit may be worth considering as a strategy to enhance service
495 efficiency and effectiveness, given the overlapping rider demographics and objectives of these
496 programs (Rall and Myers, 2015). Although likely to be bureaucratically complex up front,
497 improved coordination has high potential to provide a simpler and better transportation
498 experience that helps overcome existing barriers to health care access.

499 Notably, while these types of rides all help overcome transportation barriers, they can also have
500 shortcomings regarding reliability, convenience, and cost. Successful interventions provide
501 patients with lower-cost or more reliable transportation, and people who can overcome
502 transportation barriers are more likely to receive their necessary health services (Whetten et al.,
503 2006). However, research to date has yielded mixed evidence on whether these transportation
504 interventions reduce no-show rates, suggesting that such interventions may need to be tailored
505 to the highest-need patients to be most effective (Solomon et al., 2020). During the COVID-19
506 pandemic, any transportation intervention that involves contact between non-household
507 members must also emphasize careful hygiene and social distancing practices to reduce the
508 risk of viral transmission.

509 Increasingly, ride-hailing and technology companies are partnering with health care, health
510 insurance, and paratransit providers to improve access to care. A recent review identified 53
511 instances of these partnerships (Wolfe and McDonald, 2020). A growing number of state
512 Medicaid programs have partnered with ride-hailing companies to provide NEMT, and during
513 the pandemic at least three additional states have taken steps to facilitate new partnerships
514 (Fraade-Blanar and Whaley, 2020). Because of the flexible, on-demand nature of ride-hailing
515 services and the potential to integrate ride requests directly into the patient's medical records,
516 patients have found these services appealing and convenient (Wolfe and McDonald, 2020).
517 Health care systems and insurers may be particularly motivated to pursue these partnerships
518 because of their potential to improve patient health outcomes while protecting revenue during
519 the COVID-19 pandemic by reducing transportation-related no shows and delays.

520
521 An alternative strategy for addressing individualized transportation needs is the patient
522 navigator model, which originated in the 1990s to improve outcomes for low-income women with
523 breast cancer (Riley and Riley, 2016). This model takes many forms but centers on the use of a
524 designated navigator (typically a nurse, social worker, or fellow patient) who is trained to
525 understand patients' various health-related social needs and challenges. The navigator's job is
526 to find flexible solutions to various intersecting barriers to health care, including transportation
527 issues. Patient navigator programs have the potential to be more effective than isolated
528 transportation interventions by addressing co-occurring issues like childcare, which can create
529 transportation barriers but may not be resolved with transportation assistance alone. Published
530 estimates suggest that navigators spend between 6-25% of their time arranging transportation
531 (Lin et al., 2008; Phillips et al., 2014). Patient navigator programs have been effective at
532 improving timely diagnosis and treatment for patients with cancer in diverse settings (Bush et
533 al., 2018), and they are increasingly used outside of the cancer context (Peart et al., 2018).

534
535 Finally, the COVID-19 pandemic has also revealed ways in which strategies that reduce the
536 need for health care trips – such as expanded use of telemedicine, novel use of mobile care
537 units, and relaxed requirements for in-person SUD treatment – may be necessary for improving
538 access to health care for people facing transportation barriers. Transportation leaders can join
539 clinicians in advocating for policy change to ensure that these positive but temporary COVID-19
540 policies become permanent. Advocacy for expanded access to health insurance and broadband
541 internet can also support long-term equity in access to health care.

542

543 4.3 Risk/benefit trade-offs

544

545 COVID-19 has added a layer of risk to all travel, including trips to health care settings. Any trip
546 must be assessed as a trade-off between potential risks and benefits. Individuals must weigh
547 COVID-19 exposure risk versus the need for health care, not only for acute and chronic
548 conditions but also for the prevention of non-COVID-19 illnesses. There are risks and benefits at
549 the community level, too: more trips to health care may contribute to COVID-19 transmission
550 and externalities of vehicle emissions, but they also provide financial support for public
551 transportation and community clinics during a time of economic vulnerability. While health care
552 trips provided in shared vehicles (such as ride-hailing services, volunteer drivers, or other cars)
553 may mean more cars on the road, they may be the easiest and most flexible way to overcome
554 transportation barriers for vulnerable patients during the pandemic.

555

556 Leaders in health care and public health have begun to develop risk/benefit tools to help
557 patients and clinicians weigh trade-offs in seeking or delaying care during the pandemic
558 (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2020; Kutikov et al., 2020). These tools can be

559 improved by more explicitly considering transportation factors, and health care providers should
560 enhance screening for transportation barriers when possible. Transportation agencies and
561 policymakers may also wish to develop similar risk/benefit decision tools to ensure equitable
562 and safe decision-making as the pandemic continues.
563

564 4.4 Need for quality data

565
566 Assembling this review was limited by the paucity of data connecting transportation and specific
567 health conditions and/or health care needs, especially related to modes of travel to health care.
568 In particular, we are unable to quantify what proportion of the reduction in trips to health care
569 during the pandemic stems from transportation-related hesitation or barriers. In a national
570 survey conducted in the early months of the pandemic, respondents who had missed necessary
571 medical care cited reasons including closure of a medical practice (63%), fear of COVID-19
572 exposure (57%) and financial hardship (7%) (Anderson et al., 2021). A subsequent study
573 estimated that 24% of people who had missed health care during the pandemic did so because
574 they “felt the health care location was too far or difficult to get to” (NPR, Robert Wood Johnson
575 Foundation, and Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, 2020). Although neither survey
576 explicitly asked about transportation, transportation issues conceivably could have contributed
577 to or been exacerbated by each of these reasons for missed health care. A third study found
578 that the perceived risk of COVID-19 infection by travel mode was highest for public transit and
579 shared rides, while the perceived risk by trip destinations was highest for hospitals
580 (Shamshiripour et al., 2020). In the context of these reports, the findings from our review
581 suggest that future studies should evaluate the extent to which transportation barriers have
582 contributed to missed care, especially for vulnerable patient populations.
583

584 Even outside of the pandemic context, health systems have not often collected information on
585 patients' transportation access (like car ownership) or how they arrive at their appointments.
586 Paratransit services and Medicaid-funded NEMT represent large public investments; however,
587 the lack of consolidated national data on the use of these services makes it hard to identify
588 patterns in their use across geography, health systems, health care needs, and patient
589 demographics (Chaiyachati et al., 2018). Furthermore, the extent to which volunteer driver
590 programs fulfill health care transportation needs remains unmeasured.

591 5. Conclusion

592 As transportation and health care systems continue to grapple both independently and jointly
593 with serving the needs of Americans during the COVID-19 pandemic, leaders in both sectors
594 would benefit from greater attention to the intersection of these two fields. Many people are
595 delaying health care during the pandemic, and existing knowledge on how patients access
596 health care suggests that transportation system disruptions are likely contributing in part to
597 these delays.

598 Transportation issues have always been a significant component of health care access, with
599 implications for quality of care and health outcomes. Given the additional transportation barriers
600 facing patients during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is more urgent than ever that transportation
601 stakeholders—spanning traditional transportation and health care sectors—collaborate to
602 increase access to transportation services.

603 Findings in this paper suggest that solutions will need to be both big and small, incremental and
604 systematic, targeted and universal. Better understanding and addressing the challenges of

605 populations that are most in need requires a critical approach to reducing transportation barriers
606 to health care for all. Achieving equity in health care access is inextricably linked to achieving
607 equity in transportation, and this relationship has been magnified during the protracted COVID-
608 19 pandemic.
609

610

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Highlights

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- *Transportation is an important determinant of health care access.*
- *People with elevated health risks are overburdened by transportation barriers.*
- *Patients may need extra help with trips to care during the COVID-19 pandemic.*
- *Expanded non-emergency transportation services may help promote health equity.*
- *Transportation-health partnerships are critical during the pandemic and beyond.*