



Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries, 2023

Mackenzie Moir and Bacchus Barua

2023 • Fraser Institute

Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries, 2023

by Mackenzie Moir and Bacchus Barua

Contents

	Executive Summary / i
	Introduction / 1
1.	Method / 2
2.	How much does Canada spend on health care compared to other countries? / 8
3.	How well does Canada's health-care system perform? /
4	Health status and outcomes / 33
	Conclusion / 39
	Appendix—additional tables and data / 40
	References / 50
	About the Authors / 56
	Acknowledgments / 57
	About the Fraser Institute / 57
	Publishing Information / 58
	Purpose, Funding, and Independence / 59
	Editorial Advisory Board / 60

11

Executive Summary

Comparing the performance of different countries' health-care systems provides an opportunity for policy makers and the general public to determine how well Canada's health-care system is performing relative to its international peers. Overall, the data examined suggest that, although Canada's is one of the most expensive universal-access health-care system in the OECD, its performance is modest to poor.

This study uses a "value for money approach" to compare the cost and performance of 30 universal health-care systems in high-income countries. The level of health-care expenditure is measured using two indicators, while the performance of each country's health-care system is measured using 40 indicators, representing the four broad categories:

- 1. availability of resources
- 2. use of resources
- 3. access to resources
- 4. quality and clinical performance.

Five measures of the overall health status of the population are also included. However, these indicators can be influenced to a large degree by non-medical determinants of health that lie outside the purview of a country's health-care system and policies.

Expenditure on health care

Canada spends more on health care than the majority of high-income OECD countries with universal health-care systems. After adjustment for "age", the percentage of the population over 65, it ranks highest for expenditure on health care as a percentage of GDP and ninth highest for health-care expenditure per capita.

Availability of resources

The availability of medical resources is perhaps one of the most basic requirements for a properly functioning health-care system. Data suggests that Canada has substantially fewer human and capital medical resources than many peer jurisdictions that spend comparable amounts of money on health care. After adjustment for age, it has significantly fewer physicians, somatic-care beds, and psychiatric beds per capita compared to the average of OECD countries included in the study. It ranks close to the average for nurses and ranked ninth for the number of long-term care beds (per 1,000 over the age of 65). While Canada has the third most Gamma cameras (per million population, ageadjusted), it has fewer other medical technologies than the average high-income OECD country with universal health care for which comparable inventory data are available.

Use of resources

Medical resources are of little use if their services are not being consumed by those with health-care demands. Data suggests that Canada performed below the average OECD country on all four broad indicators (e.g., curative care discharges). And, while Canada performed higher than the average OECD country on just over half of the specialty indicators examined (for example, coronary artery bypass grafts and knee replacement), it had average to lower rates on the rest. Canada ranked last (or next to last) for the degree of hospital activity (as measured by rates for curative-care discharges) in the group of countries studied.

Access to resources

While both the level of medical resources available and their use can provide insight into accessibility, it is also beneficial to measure accessibility more directly by examining measures of timeliness of care and cost-related barriers to access. Canada ranked last (or close to last) on four of four indicators of timeliness of care; and ranked seventh (out of ten) on the indicator measuring the percentage of patients who reported that cost was a barrier to access.

Quality and clinical performance

When assessing indicators of availability of, access to, and use of resources, it is of critical importance to include some measure of quality and clinical performance in the areas of primary care, acute care, mental health care, cancer care, and patient safety. While Canada does well on five indicators of clinical performance and quality (such as rates of survival for breast, colon, and rectal cancers), its performance on the seven others examined in this study are either no different from the average or in some cases—particularly obstetric traumas—worse.

The data examined in this report suggest that there is an imbalance between the value Canadians receive and the relatively high amount of money they spend on their health-care system. Although Canada ranks among the most expensive universal-access health-care systems in the OECD, its performance for availability and access to resources is generally below that of the average OECD country, while its performance for use of resources and quality and clinical performance is mixed.

Introduction

Measuring and reporting the performance of health-care systems is vital for ensuring accountability and transparency, and is valuable for identifying areas for improvement. Comparing the performance of different countries' healthcare systems provides an opportunity for policy makers and the general public to determine how well Canada's health-care system is performing relative to its international counterparts.

This is the eighth edition of *Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries.* The original report was the work of Barua, Timmermans, Nason, and Esmail (2016), who followed the examples of Esmail and Walker (2008), Rovere and Skinner (2012), and Barua (2013) to examine the performance of health-care systems using a "value for money" approach. That is, the performances of various health-care systems are assessed using indicators measuring:

- 1. the expenditure on health care (the cost); and
- 2. the provision of health care (the value).

The cost of health care is measured using two indicators, while the provision of health care is measured using 40 indicators, representing four broad categories:

- 1. availability of resources;
- 2. use of resources;
- 3. access to resources;
- 4. clinical performance and quality.

Five indicators measuring the overall health status of the population are also included. The intention is to provide Canadians with a better understanding of how much they spend on health care in comparison to other countries with universal health-care systems, and assess whether the availability, use, access, and quality of their system is of commensurate value.

The first section of this paper provides an overview of the methodology used and then explains what is being measured and how. The second section presents data reflecting how much Canada spends on health care in comparison with other countries. The third section presents data reflecting the performance of Canada's health-care system (compared to other countries) as measured by the availability of resources, use of resources, access to resources, and clinical performance and quality. The fourth section examines indicators reflecting the overall health status of the populations in the countries examined. A conclusion follows.

1. Method

What is measured, and why?

The objective of this report is to provide an overview of the amount different countries spend on their respective health-care systems, and to concurrently measure (using several indicators) the value they receive for that expenditure. When measuring the quality of health care in Canada, the Canadian Institute of Health Information (CIHI) identifies two distinct questions: "How healthy are Canadians?"; and "How healthy is the Canadian health system?" (CIHI, 2011b: ix).

The answer to the first question—How healthy are Canadians?—can be informed through the examination of indicators of health status. While such indicators are included in section four of this paper, the information they provide must be interpreted with caution when assessing the performance of the health-care system. This is because the health status of a population is determined by a number of factors, some of which (like timely access to quality medical care) may fall under the purview of a health-care system, while others (like smoking rates, environmental quality, genetic factors, and lifestyle choices) may not.

In this study, we are more concerned with the second question—"How healthy is the Canadian health system?"—as measured by indicators reflecting the availability of resources, use of resources, access to resources, and clinical performance and quality. [1] The interaction between these various components can be seen in figure 1. This study focuses primarily on area 2 of the figure, includes indicators reflecting area 3 for reference (as it is partly affected by area 2), but excludes area 1. While indicators measuring the cost and performance of the health-care system as a result of government policy are included in this paper, government health-care policy itself is neither examined nor assessed. [2]

What indicators are included?

The level of health-care expenditure is measured using two indicators, while the performance of each country's health-care system is measured using 40 indicators, representing the four broad categories of: [1] availability of resources;

^[1] For a broader explanation of the framework of analysis used in this report, see Barua, 2013.[2] For example, unlike Esmail and Walker (2008) this report does not present data on how each country's universal health-insurance system is structured, whether they employ user-fees and co-payments, how hospitals and doctors are paid, and so on.



Figure 1: Framework for analysis of health care

[3] Health status

Adapted from OECD, 2015; Barua, 2013.

[2] use of resources; [3] access to resources; and [4] clinical performance and quality. In addition, five indicators measuring health status are also included; however, as mentioned above, the authors recognize that these may be affected by factors outside the purview of, and the amount of money spent on, the health-care system in question.

All the indicators used in this report are either publicly available, or derived from publicly available data from the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), the Commonwealth Fund, and the World Health Organization (WHO). The choice of indicators included are primarily based on those presented in Esmail and Walker (2008) and Rovere and Skinner (2012), and are categorized using the framework presented in Barua (2013).

In addition, since the publication of the above reports, several new indicators have become available from the OECD, Commonwealth Fund, and WHO. Barua and colleagues examined these indicators and included those that either provide new information, or add more nuanced detail, within the previously identified area of concern (Barua, Timmermans, Nason, and Esmail, 2016). [3]

This year, the report does not include an updated measure of in-patient suicide rate as it is no longer being reported by the OECD (2023). As a result, data extracted for last year's report are included in this year.

A complete list of the indicators used in this report, organized according to the categories mentioned above, is presented in table 1. While the selection of indicators included in this report is not comprehensive, they are meant to provide readers with a broad overview of the performance of each country's health-care system.

^[3] Please see Appendix, table A1 (p. 41), for the history of the use of variables since 2016.

Category	Indicator	Source
0	Total expenditure on health (% gross domestic product)	OECD, 2023
Spending	Total expenditure on health (per-capita US PPP)	OECD, 2023
	Physicians (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
Availability	Nurses (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
orresources	Somatic-care beds (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Psychiatric care beds (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Long-term care beds (hospital + residential) (per thousand pop, 65 years +)	OECD, 2023
	Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) units (per million population)	OECD, 2023
	Computed Tomography (CT) scanners (per million population)	OECD, 2023
	Positron Emission Tomography (PET) scanners (per million population)	OECD, 2023
	Gamma cameras (per million population)	OECD, 2023
	Mammographs (per million population)	OECD, 2023
11	Doctor consultations (per hundred population)	OECD, 2023
Use of	Curative-care discharges (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
resources	Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) examinations (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Computed Tomography (CT) examinations (per thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Cataract surgery (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Transluminal coronary angiolasty (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Stem cell transplantation (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Appendectomy (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Cholecystectomy (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Repair of inguinal hernia (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Hip replacement (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Knee replacement (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
A	Able to get same day appointment when sick (%)	Schneider <i>et al.</i> , 2021
Access to	Very/somewhat easy getting care after hours (%)	Schneider <i>et al.</i> , 2021
resources	Waited less than four weeks for specialist appointment (%)	Schneider <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	Waited less than four months for non-emergency or elective surgery (%)	Schneider <i>et al.</i> , 2021
	Experienced barrier to access because of cost in past year (%)	Schneider <i>et al.</i> , 2021
Overliter	Breast cancer five-year net survival (%)	OECD, 2023
Quality	Cervical cancer five-year net survival (%)	OECD, 2023
and clinical	Colon cancer five-year net survival (%)	OECD, 2023
periornance	Rectal cancer five-year net survival (%)	OECD, 2023
	Admission-based AMI 30-day in-hospital mortality (per hundred patients)	OECD, 2023
	Admission-based hemorrhagic stroke 30-day in hospital mortality (per hundred patients)	OECD, 2023
	Admission-based Ischemic stroke 30-day in-hospital mortality (per hundred patients)	OECD, 2023
	Hip-fracture surgery initiated within 48 hours of admission to the hospital (per 100 patients)	OECD, 2023
	Diabetes-related amputation of a lower extremity (per hundred thousand population)	OECD, 2023
	Obstetric trauma vaginal delivery with instrument (per hundred vaginal deliveries)	OECD, 2023
	Obstetric trauma vaginal delivery without instrument (per hundred vaginal deliveries)	OECD, 2023
	In-patient suicide among patients diagnosed with a mental disorder (per hundred patients)	OECD, 2023
11.0.044	Life expectancy at birth (years)	OECD, 2023
Health status	Infant mortality rate (per thousand live births)	OECD, 2023
	Perinatal mortality (per thousand total births)	OECD, 2023
	Healthy life expectancy (HALE) at birth (years)	WHO, 2021; OECD, 2023
	Treatable mortality	OECD, 2023

Table [*]	1: Indicators	used in Co	mparing	Performance	of Universal	' Health Ca	are Countries.	. 2023
10010	in maioatoro	0000 111 000	inpanng	1 0110111101100	or orneorour	nountri ot	210 00001101000	, _ 0 _ 0

Note: For precise definitions, see CIHI, 2021a; OECD, 2022; Schneider, Shah, Doty, Tikkanen, Fields, and Williams II, 2021; and WHO, 2021.

What is the time-frame?

Data from the OECD are for 2021 (or the most recent year Canadian data are available). It should be noted that indicators measuring survival from breast, cervical, colon, and rectal cancers are from 2010–2014 as these have not been updated by the OECD. Data from the Commonwealth Fund are for 2020. Data from the WHO for Healthy Life Expectancy (HALE) are for 2019. While newer data are available for certain countries, the authors have chosen to use the year that provides the most complete and comparable data for this edition of the report.

Which countries are included?

The countries [4] included for comparison in this study were chosen based on the following three criteria:

- 1. must be a member of the OECD;
- 2. must have universal (or near-universal) coverage for core-medical services;
- 3. must be classified as a "high-income" country by the World Bank. [5]

Of the 38 OECD members in 2021 considered for inclusion, the OECD (2021) concludes that seven countries—Colombia, Costa Rica, Hungary, Mexico, Poland, the Slovak Republic, and the United States—do not have universal (or near-universal) coverage for core medical services. Of the 31 countries remaining for consideration, Turkey did not meet the criteria of being classified in the high-income group (in 2021) according to the World Bank (2023). The remaining 30 countries that meet the three criteria above can be seen in table 2 (p. 9).

Are the indicators adjusted for comparability?

The populations of the 30 countries included for comparison in this report vary significantly in their age profiles. For example, while seniors represented only 12.2% of the population of Israel in 2021, they represented 28.9% of the population in Japan in the same year (OECD, 2023). This is important because it is well established that older populations require higher levels of health-care spending as they consume more health-care resources and services (Esmail and Walker,

^[4] It is of note that there may be significant variation within each country examined. This is particularly true in Canada where the provision of health-care services is a provincial responsibility and there may be meaningful differences with regards to policy, spending, and the delivery of care.

^{[5] &}quot;High-income" countries are those that had a gross national income (GNI) per capita of US\$13,205 or more in 2021.

2008). [6] For example, in 2019 seniors over 65 years of age represented 18% of the Canadian population but consumed 45% of all public-sector health-care spending by provinces and territories (CIHI, 2021b).

For this reason, in addition to presenting unadjusted figures, this study also presents indicators measuring health-care expenditures, availability of resources, and use of resources adjusted according to the age-profile of the country. [7] While such adjustment may not affect the overall conclusion [8] about the performance of a country's health-care system compared to expenditure, it does provide a more nuanced view when examining indicators individually. For this reason, both unadjusted and age-adjusted rankings are presented in this paper. Taking the example of health care spending, the age-adjustment process used in this paper is based on the following two factors.

1. An estimate of how health expenditures have historically changed as a result of changes in the proportion of the population over 65

It is possible to calculate the change in average per-capita government healthcare expenditures when the age structure changes, while keeping the age-specific expenditure constant (see, e.g., Barua, Palacios, and Emes, 2016; Morgan and Cunningham, 2011; Pinsonnault, 2011). While five-year age bands are most commonly used, we can adapt this method so that only two age bands are used (0-65,and 65+) to estimate the elasticity of real, total health-care expenditures per capita solely due to changes in the proportion of the population over 65. Using Canadian [9] population and per-capita health-care expenditure data from 1980

^[6] The Canadian Institute of Health Information (CIHI) suggests that "[0]lder seniors consume more health care dollars largely as a consequence of two factors: the cost of health care in the last few months of life, and the minority of the population with chronic illnesses that tend to require more intensive medical attention with age". They also note that "[t]here is some evidence that proximity to death rather than aging is the key factor in terms of health expenditure" (CIHI, 2011a: 16–17).

^[7] It is unclear whether indicators of timely access to care need to be adjusted for age, and the methodology for making such an adjustment has not been explored by the authors. Indicators of clinical performance and quality are already adjusted for age by the OECD. The indicators of health status (such as life expectancy) used in this report generally do not require (further) age-adjustment. The methodology for calculating Treatable Mortality incorporates an age-adjustment process for their standardized rates.

^[8] As Barua (2013) notes, in the process of calculating an overall value-for-money score, age-adjustment would apply to both the value and cost components in opposite directions and may cancel each other out in the process.

^[9] Detailed age-specific historical data on health-care spending for every OECD country were not available so we assume that the effect of ageing on health-care spending in Canada reflects how ageing would affect health-care spending in high-income OECD countries more generally.

to 2000 (Grenon, 2001), and keeping the age-specific expenditure data constant, [10] we estimate that for every 1% (or percentage point, since the share of population over 65 is a percentage itself) increase in proportion of population over 65, health-care expenditure increased by 3.1%.

2. The degree to which the proportion of a country's population over 65 deviates from the OECD average

If β represents the proportion of the population over 65, and HCE_{pc} is health care expenditure per capita in a particular country, then:

 HCE_{pc} age-adjusted = $HCE_{pc} (1 + 0.03098)^{(\beta oecd - \beta)}$

One way to think of this estimation is, if β_{oecd} had exactly one-percentage point more seniors as a share of the population than Canada, the adjusted expenditure for Canada should be equal to Canada's projected health-care expenditure per capita when its population over 65 increases by one percentage point. Following Esmail and Walker (2008), we assume that it is logical to apply the same proportional increase (due to ageing) derived from our spending estimate to indicators measuring the number of resources and their use. [11]

^{[10] 1990} is used as a base year. A sensitivity analysis using 1980 and 2000 as base years did not yield significantly different results.

^[11] Esmail and Walker note that, "[l]ike health expenditures, where the elderly consume far more resources than other proportions of the population, medical professionals [and resources, more generally] are likely to be needed at a higher rate as the population ages" (2008: 53). In the absence of precise estimates, we assume that increased use of medical resources rise roughly proportionally to increased use of all health-care services (as reflected by increased health-care spending).

2. How much does Canada spend on health care compared to other countries?

When attempting to measure the performance of health-care systems, it is essential to consider the costs of maintaining such systems. It is not meaningful to either "define higher national levels of spending on health as negative without considering the benefits" (Rovere and Skinner, 2012: 15) or, conversely, to define a health system with higher levels of benefits as positive without considering the costs. There are two measures that can help inform us about the relative differences between the amount of money spent by different countries on health care. The first is health-care expenditure as a percentage of gross domestic product (GDP). As Esmail and Walker note, this indicator "controls for the level of income in a given country and shows what share of total production is committed to health care expenditures". Such a measure also helps avoid potentially "flawed comparisons with low spending in less developed OECD countries ... while also not overvaluing high expenditures in relatively rich countries" (2008: 17).

A second measure is health-care expenditure per capita, adjusted for comparison using purchasing power parity data (PPP). While there are some important theoretical concerns about the reliability of international comparisons using data reliant on PPP, there are also several benefits to using this indicator. Apart from being more straightforward from a conceptual standpoint, how countries rank on this indicator is less susceptible to short-term fluctuations in GDP.

Out of 30 countries, Canada ranked third highest for health-care expenditure as a percentage of GDP and the 7th highest for health-care expenditure per capita (table A2, p. 42). After adjustment for age, Canada ranked highest for health-care expenditure as a percentage of GDP but ranked 9th highest for health-care expenditure per capita (table 2; figures 2a, 2b). Clearly, these indicators suggest that Canada spends more on health care than the majority of high-income OECD countries with universal health-care systems.

	Spending as percentage of GDP		Spending	j per capita
	Percentage	Rank (out of 30)	US\$ PPP	Rank (out of 30)
Australia	11.4	8	6,677.5	8
Austria	12.1	3	6,689.4	6
Belgium	11.0	12	6,021.6	12
Canada	12.6	1	6,412.4	9
Chile	11.4	7	3,269.2	26
Czech Republic	9.1	21	4,135.2	19
Denmark	10.5	15	6,198.8	10
Estonia	7.3	29	2,981.3	28
Finland	9.2	20	4,719.1	17
France	11.5	6	5,708.6	14
Germany	11.9	5	6,901.8	4
Greece	8.2	25	2,451.5	30
Iceland	11.2	9	5,875.4	13
Ireland	7.7	27	6,722.7	5
Israel	9.8	19	4,033.4	20
Italy	8.2	26	3,534.3	24
Japan	8.4	24	3,643.6	23
Korea	10.1	18	4,534.5	18
Latvia	8.6	23	2,963.5	29
Lithuania	7.7	28	3,265.6	27
Luxembourg	6.5	30	7,240.3	3
Netherlands	11.2	10	6,681.9	7
New Zealand	11.2	11	5,425.5	16
Norway	10.3	16	7,326.9	2
Portugal	10.1	17	3,483.7	25
Slovenia	9.1	22	3,710.6	22
Spain	10.5	14	4,012.2	21
Sweden	11.0	13	6,076.8	11
Switzerland	12.0	4	7,698.0	1
United Kingdom	12.5	2	5,533.1	15
OECD average	10.1		5,131.0	

Table 2: Spending on health care, age-adjusted, 2021

Note: Because the table shows rounded values, countries may have different ranks even if they appear to have same values. Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.





Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.





Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

3. How well does Canada's health-care system perform?

In light of Canada's relatively high spending on health care, the following section examines the performance of Canada's health-care system using 40 indicators, representing the four broad categories of: 1. availability of resources; 2. use of resources; 3. access to resources; 4. clinical performance and quality.

3.1 Availability of resources

The availability of adequate medical resources is perhaps one of the most basic requirements for a properly functioning health-care system. Due to its integral nature, along with the availability of comparable data, indicators of medical resources available are frequently examined by researchers, especially in the context of health-care expenditures (e.g., Esmail and Walker, 2008; Rovere and Skinner, 2012). The World Health Organisation (WHO) notes that "[t]he provision of health care involves putting together a considerable number of resource inputs to deliver an extraordinary array of different service outputs" (WHO, 2000: 75) and suggests that human resources, physical capital, and consumables such as medicine are the three primary inputs of a health system.

Of these, this study includes indictors of human and capital resources (table 3), and of technology resources (table 4). [12] Research has shown that drugs are also considered one of the most important forms of medical technology used to treat patients. [13] However, indicators of the availability, novelty, and consumption of pharmaceuticals are not included in this paper because comprehensive and comparable data are not available.

^[12] When analyzing medical resources in general, research also indicates that "more is not always better". For instance, Watson and McGrail (2009) found no association between avoidable mortality and the overall supply of physicians. The CIHI notes that what it calls the "structural dimensions" that characterize health-care systems are not "directional" and do not necessarily reflect the performance of health systems (CIHI, 2011c). Similarly, Kelly and Hurst (2006) contend that, while structural indicators (medical resources) are often necessary for delivering high-quality medical care, they are not always sufficient on their own: simply having an abundance of medical resources does not necessarily mean that they are being used efficiently or appropriately at all times. Therefore, this study makes no assertions about the optimal level at which such resources should be available.

^[13] See, for example, Skinner and Rovere, 2011: 22–23; Cremieux et al., 2005; Frech and Miller, 1999; Kleinke, 2001; and Lichtenberg and Virabhak, 2002.

	Physicians		Ν	Nurses		Somatic beds		Psychiatric beds		Long-term care beds	
	per '000	Rank (out of 30)	per '000	Rank (out of 30)	per '000	Rank (out of 29)	per '000	Rank (out of 29)	per '000 65+*	Rank (out of 16)	
Australia	4.3	10	13.7	6	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Austria	5.4	2	10.6	12	6.2	3	0.72	13	48.6	10	
Belgium	3.2	22	11.1	10	4.1	8	1.41	2	67.4	3	
Canada	2.8	28	10.5	13	2.3	23	0.38	23	49.2	9	
Chile	3.6	18	4.6	28	2.2	24	0.17	28	_	_	
Czech Republic	4.1	15	8.6	20	5.6	5	0.83	11	44.2	13	
Denmark	4.3	11	10.0	16	1.9	27	0.51	17	_	_	
Estonia	3.3	21	6.3	25	3.8	11	0.48	18	_	_	
Finland	3.2	23	17.0	4	2.2	25	0.30	27	52.2	8	
France	3.0	27	8.0	21	4.5	7	0.74	12	_	_	
Germany	4.2	13	11.0	11	5.9	4	1.20	4	53.9	6	
Greece	5.6	1	3.4	30	3.2	14	0.63	14	_	_	
Iceland	5.0	5	17.2	3	2.9	17	0.40	20	53.4	7	
Ireland	4.6	6	14.6	5	2.9	16	0.37	24	44.2	12	
Israel	4.1	14	6.6	24	3.1	15	0.47	19	19.5	16	
Italy	3.6	19	5.4	27	2.7	18	0.07	29	21.8	15	
Japan	1.9	30	9.0	18	7.5	2	1.92	1	_	_	
Korea	2.8	29	9.5	17	12.4	1	1.39	3	57.3	5	
Latvia	3.2	26	4.0	29	3.9	10	1.05	6	_	_	
Lithuania	4.4	9	7.7	22	5.1	6	0.85	10	40.8	14	
Luxembourg	3.4	20	13.5	7	3.9	9	0.92	9	79.6	1	
Netherlands	3.8	17	11.2	9	1.8	28	1.10	5	77.1	2	
New Zealand	3.9	16	12.0	8	2.5	21	0.40	21	_	_	
Norway	5.4	3	19.1	1	2.5	22	1.05	7	_	_	
Portugal	5.1	4	6.8	23	2.6	19	0.58	16	_	_	
Slovenia	3.2	25	10.0	15	3.4	13	0.61	15	_	_	
Spain	4.4	8	6.2	26	2.6	20	0.35	25	45.4	11	
Sweden	4.2	12	10.4	14	1.6	29	0.39	22	_	_	
Switzerland	4.5	7	18.7	2	3.5	12	0.96	8	62.4	4	
United Kingdom	3.2	24	8.8	19	2.1	26	0.34	26	_	-	
OECD average	3.9		10.2		3.8		0.7		51.1		

Table 3: Availabilit	v of human and	l capital	resources p	er thousand	population.	age-adjusted	. 2021
	y or mannam arre	, oapitai	1 1000 di 000 p	or thousand	population	ago aajaotoa	,

Notes: Because the table shows rounded values, countries may have different ranks even if they appear to have same values. * The OECD reports long-term care beds per 1,000 population over the age of 65 in the relevant country. For this reason, the authors do not adjust this indicator for age using the method described on page 6.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

Human and capital resources

Human resources are perhaps "the most important of the health system's inputs [and] usually the biggest single item in the recurrent budget for health" (WHO, 2000: 77). Importantly, apart from physicians, who, according to the WHO (2000), play the primary role in the health-care system, it is also useful to measure the number of other health personnel such as nurses who are involved in the direct provision of care. At the same time, services cannot be effectively delivered without physical capital such as hospitals, [14] beds, and equipment. For this reason, it is useful to examine the number of physicians, nurses, somatic-care beds, psychiatric beds per thousand population, and long-term care beds (per thousand over the age of 65).

Out of 30 countries, Canada ranks 28th for physicians, 16th for nurses, 24th (out of 29) for somatic-care beds, and 21st (out of 29) for psychiatric-care beds per thousand population (table A3, p. 43) and 9th (out of 16) for long-term care beds [15] per thousand population. As can be seen in table 3, after adjustment for age, Canada ranks 28th for physicians (figure 3a), 13th for nurses (figure 3b), 23rd for somatic-care beds (out of 29) (figure 3c), 23rd (out of 29) for psychiatric-care beds per thousand population, and ranked 9th (out of 16) for long-term care beds per thousand population (65 and over). Except for middling availability of long-term care beds and nursing density, Canada clearly has fewer human and capital medical resources per capita than other high-income OECD countries with universal health care.

Technology and diagnostic imaging resources

Research suggests that medical technology plays a significant role for improving the efficiency of medical services, ultimately benefiting patients while reducing health-care expenditures over time (Or, Wang, and Jamison, 2005). For example, medical technologies such as new diagnostic equipment and innovative surgical and laboratory procedures improve the efficiency of hospitals and increase the comfort and safety of patients (Esmail and Wrona, 2008). For this reason, it is useful to examine the number of Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) units, Computed Tomography (CT) scanners, Positron Emission Tomography (PET) scanners, Gamma cameras, and Mammographs per million population (table 4).

^[14] While data on the number of hospitals in the countries examined in this report are available, they are not included due to large variability in size and specialty. The number of beds in some ways serves as a proxy for the amount of physical capital that would be represented by a measure of the number of hospitals in a country.

^[15] Originally adapted from *Health at a Glance 2019* (OECD, 2019), this measure combines two sets of data: 1. hospital long-term care beds per 1,000 over the age of 65; and 2. residential long-term care beds per 1,000 over the age of 65. As these data measure the availability of beds for those over the age of 65 in the relevant country, the authors did not apply the age-adjustment method outlined on pages 5–6. The data for long-term care beds per 1,000 population (for all age groups) are available in the Appendix, table A3.



Figure 3a: Physicians per '000 population, age-adjusted, 2021 or most recent

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.





Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.



Figure 3c: Somatic-care beds per '000 population, age-adjusted, 2021 or most recent

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

Per million population, Canada ranks 26th (out of 29) for MRI units, 28th (out of 30) for CT scanners, 20th (out of 26) for PET scanners, 3rd (out of 25) for Gamma cameras, and 13th (out of 24) for Mammographs (table A4, p. 44). After adjustment for age, Canada ranks 25th (out of 29) for MRI units (figure 4a), 26th (out of 30) for CT scanners (figure 4b), 19th (out of 26) for PET scanners, 3rd (out of 25) for Gamma cameras, and 14th (out of 24) for Mammographs (table 4). While Canada has the third most Gamma cameras (per million population) on an age-adjusted basis, it has fewer other medical technologies than the average high-income OECD country with universal health care for which comparable inventory data are available.

Table 4: Availability	of technological	and diagnostic	imaging re	sources per	million	pop.,
age-adjusted, 2019,	2021					

	MR	I Units	CT So	canners	PET S	canners	Gamma	a Cameras	Mamn	Mammographs	
	Per million	Rank (out of 29)	Per million	Rank (out of 30)	Per million	Rank (out of 26)	Per million	Rank (out of 25)	Per million	Rank (out of 24)	
Australia	15.9	16	74.9	2	4.0	3	20.0	2	22.1	10	
Austria	25.0	8	28.7	12	2.7	11	10.2	9	21.1	11	
Belgium	11.5	24	24.1	17	2.9	10	24.8	1	36.4	3	
Canada	10.3	25	14.9	26	1.6	19	15.6	3	17.8	14	
Chile	15.1	17	29.7	11	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Czech Republic	10.0	26	15.8	25	1.5	20	11.0	8	10.7	24	
Denmark	_	_	39.5	5	8.0	1	14.2	4	15.4	17	
Estonia	13.8	20	18.2	20	2.2	14	2.2	25	10.9	23	
Finland	25.9	6	14.6	27	2.9	9	6.8	16	27.7	6	
France	14.3	19	17.0	22	2.3	12	6.4	19	_	_	
Germany	31.9	3	32.4	9	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Greece	28.6	4	38.1	7	1.2	23	12.2	6	63.2	2	
Iceland	22.3	9	54.2	3	3.2	7	9.6	10	18.8	13	
Ireland	18.1	10	24.4	16	2.1	15	6.7	17	19.3	12	
Israel	6.4	29	12.2	29	1.8	17	11.5	7	13.7	19	
Italy	26.4	5	31.9	10	3.1	8	6.9	15	29.8	5	
Japan	41.1	1	82.9	1	3.4	6	8.5	11	25.1	8	
Korea	34.6	2	42.8	4	4.0	4	6.3	20	73.3	1	
Latvia	14.4	18	35.2	8	1.5	21	3.5	23	25.7	7	
Lithuania	13.7	21	25.9	14	0.7	26	2.8	24	17.5	15	
Luxembourg	16.8	14	18.6	19	1.9	16	13.0	5	12.6	20	
Netherlands	13.6	22	14.6	28	4.4	2	7.3	13	_	_	
New Zealand	16.8	13	16.8	23	1.1	25	4.0	21	22.9	9	
Norway	18.1	11	27.4	13	1.2	24	3.7	22	12.3	21	
Portugal	9.1	27	16.2	24	_	_	_	_	_	-	
Slovenia	11.9	23	17.4	21	1.4	22	7.8	12	14.1	18	
Spain	17.3	12	18.8	18	1.7	18	6.5	18	17.0	16	
Sweden	16.2	15	25.5	15	2.2	13	6.9	14	12.1	22	
Switzerland	25.5	7	39.3	6	3.9	5	_	-	30.3	4	
United Kingdom	7.4	28	8.9	30	_	-	_	_	_	_	
OECD Average	18.3		28.7		2.6		9.1		23.8		

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.



Figure 4a: MRI units per million population, age-adjusted, 2019 or most recent

Figure 4b: CT scanners per million population, age-adjusted, 2019 or most recent



Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

fraserinstitute.org

3.2 Use of resources

While measurement of the availability of medical resources is valuable, it does not provide us with information about their use. Importantly, medical resources are of little use if their services are not being consumed by those with healthcare demands. A similar observation is made by Figueras, Saltman, Busse, and Dubois who note that "the number of units provides no information about the efficiency with which they are operated (utilization rates)" (2004: 122). The WHO similarly points out that "major equipment purchases are an easy way for the health system to waste resources, when they are underused, yield little health gain, and use up staff time and recurrent budget" (2000: xvii). Thus, simply having an abundance of medical resources does not necessarily mean that they are being used; for this reason, it is important to also include the volume of services or use of resources. In other words, "[t]he volume of care and services produced measures the quantity of health-related goods and services produced by the health-care system" (Champagne et al., 2005, quoted, in translation, by Tchouaket, Lamarchel, Goulet, and Contandriopoulos, 2012: 109).

In order to get a better idea of the quantity of health-related goods [16] and services provided by different countries, we examine indictors measuring the number of doctors' consultations per capita, curative-care discharge rates per hundred thousand population, [17] MRI examinations per thousand population, and CT scans per thousand population. In addition, Canada's ranking based on the number of nine specific procedures performed relative to other countries is also discussed (for data see tables A6 and A7, pp. 46–49). [18]

[18] Of course, as the CIHI points out that "the utilization of health-care services should be related to the need for services" and that "other things being equal, a healthier population would have less need for services than an unhealthier one" (2011a: 17). However, this would also imply that a healthier population should therefore spend less on health-care services too (assuming other things, especially income, are equal). On the other hand, the provision of services (as measured by rates of use) can also be viewed as a purchased

^[16] Data measuring the consumption of antibiotics were available but were not included in this study due to variability among countries in policies concerning use of antibiotics.
[17] Previous versions of this report included an indicator measuring hospital discharge rates.
The OECD (2017: 174) defines hospital discharge rates as "... the number of patients who leave a hospital after staying at least one night" including "... deaths in hospital following inpatient care". The OECD (2017) notes a number of methodological differences between countries for this indicator. For example, some same-day separations are included in Chile, Japan, Norway, and the United States while healthy babies born in hospitals (which can account for about 3% to 10% of all discharges) are excluded in several countries like Australia, Austria, Canada, Chile, Estonia, Finland, Greece, Ireland, Luxembourg, Mexico, and Norway. Further, data for Canada only included "curative-care discharges" defined as "health care contacts during which the principal intent is to relieve symptoms of illness or injury, to reduce the severity of an illness or injury, or to protect against exacerbation and/or complication of an illness or injury that could threaten life or normal function". In order to ensure better comparability, curative-care discharges are now reported for all countries (including Canada).

Canada ranks 17th (out of 28) for doctor consultations per capita, 27th (out of 27) for curative-care discharge rates per 100,000 population, 18th (out of 26) for MRI exams per thousand population, and 13th (out of 26) for CT scans per thousand population (table A5, p. 45). After adjustment for age, Canada ranks 16th (out of 28) for doctor consultations per capita (figure 5a), 27th (out of 27) for curative-care discharge rates per 100,000 population (figure 5b), 18th (out of 26) for MRI examinations per thousand population, and 13th (out of 26) for MRI examinations per thousand population, and 13th (out of 26) for CT scans per thousand population (table 5).



Figure 5a: Consultations with doctor per capita, age-adjusted, 2020 or most recent

Canada ranks below the average high-income OECD country with universal health care for doctor consultations, MRI and CT examinations, and ranks as the country with the lowest curative-care discharge rates (per hundred thousand population) on an age-adjusted basis. The OECD notes that "[h]ospital activities are affected by a number of factors, including the

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

benefit, or simply an indication of the amount in services that a health-care system provides. Given that there have also been several recent academic examinations of the overuse of medical services (e.g., Korenstein, Falk, Howell, Bishop, and Keyhani, 2012; Chamot, Charvet, and Perneger, 2009), this study makes no assertions about the optimal level for the use of medical services.



Figure 5b: Curative-care discharge rates per '000,000 pop., age-adjusted, 2021 or most recent

capacity of hospitals to treat patients, the ability of the primary care sector to prevent avoidable hospital admissions, and the availability of post-acute care settings to provide rehabilitative and long-term care services" (2015: 106). It is useful to reiterate that they are examined in this publication simply as an indicator of the use or provision of health-care services in the context of health-care spending.

Examining rates for specific procedures we determined that, after adjusting for age, Canada ranks 14th (out of 28) for cataract surgeries, 22nd (out of 27) for transluminal coronary angioplasties, 5th (out of 27) for coronary artery bypass grafts, 14th (out of 25) for stem cell transplantation, 22nd (out of 27) for appendectomies, 8th (out of 27) for cholecystectomies, 15th (out of 27) for repair of inguinal hernias, 22nd (out of 27) for hip replacements, and 11th (out of 26) for knee replacements (table 6). Data for adjusted and unadjusted rates for specific procedures for each country can be seen in table A6 (pp. 46–47) and table A7 (pp. 48–49). Canada's performance remains mixed, below the OECD average on all four broad indicators of use (e.g., curative care discharges) while performing better than the average OECD country on five of nine indicators of detailed use(e.g., cataract surgery).

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

	Doctor co	onsultations	Curative-care d	ischarge rates	MRI exa	aminations	CT exa	CT examinations	
	Per capita	Rank (out of 28)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 1,000	Rank (out of 26)	Per 1,000	Rank (out of 26)	
Australia	7.3	6	17,871.2	3	55.1	22	151.2	12	
Austria	5.8	11	19,310.7	1	148.0	1	196.2	7	
Belgium	6.2	9	14,762.7	10	98.1	7	204.9	4	
Canada	4.8	16	7,698.5	27	63.3	18	147.2	13	
Chile	2.6	26	_	_	35.1	26	137.0	15	
Czech Republic	7.0	7	14,611.1	11	57.8	21	109.7	20	
Denmark	3.9	22	_	_	88.1	9	185.0	9	
Estonia	4.0	21	12,335.6	17	49.1	24	131.7	16	
Finland	3.6	24	12,380.9	16	47.7	25	60.4	26	
France	4.7	17	12,723.7	15	114.8	5	185.7	8	
Germany	8.7	2	18,473.1	2	137.5	2	138.8	14	
Greece	2.5	27	_	_	78.3	12	175.1	10	
Iceland	_	_	12,320.2	18	124.6	3	267.0	2	
Ireland	6.6	8	15,014.7	9	_	_	_	_	
Israel	8.4	3	17,478.7	4	58.8	19	196.7	5	
Italy	4.6	18	7,702.9	26	65.9	15	85.1	24	
Japan	8.3	4	8,391.5	24	_	_	_	_	
Korea	15.9	1	15,825.2	5	79.9	11	269.0	1	
Latvia	4.8	15	11,417.9	20	65.7	16	174.9	11	
Lithuania	6.0	10	15,503.7	6	65.6	17	129.7	17	
Luxembourg	5.1	12	14,102.2	12	104.6	6	258.6	3	
Netherlands	8.3	5	7,897.6	25	58.6	20	109.2	21	
New Zealand	4.2	20	12,914.0	14	_	_	_	_	
Norway	3.8	23	15,015.3	8	121.3	4	89.4	23	
Portugal	2.7	25	9,338.6	23	51.4	23	196.5	6	
Slovenia	5.1	13	12,982.3	13	76.5	13	80.2	25	
Spain	4.8	14	10,199.6	22	97.3	8	122.0	19	
Sweden	2.1	28	12,263.0	19	_	_	_	_	
Switzerland	4.4	19	15,453.7	7	82.4	10	122.4	18	
United Kingdom	_	_	10,508.5	21	68.5	14	104.6	22	
OECD Average	5.6		13,129.5		80.5		154.9		

Table 5: Use of resources, age-adjusted, 2019, 2020, 2021

Source: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

Procedure	Rate (per 100,000 population)	Rank	Average of selected countries
Cataract surgery	1,024.9	14 (out of 28)	986.8
Transluminal coronary angioplasty	145.3	22 (out of 27)	214.7
Coronary artery bypass graft	47.2	5 (out of 27)	31.6
Stem cell transplantation	6.8	14 (out of 25)	6.7
Appendectomy	111.9	22 (out of 27)	127.9
Cholecystectomy	192.8	8 (out of 27)	174.8
Repair of inguinal hernia	148.8	15 (out of 27)	160.8
Hip replacement	156.0	22 (out of 27)	202.6
Knee replacement	155.2	11 (out of 26)	143.0

Table 6: Use of resources in Canada, by specialty, per 100,000 population, age-adjusted ranks, 2021

Source: OECD, 2023 calculations by authors.

3.3 Access to resources

While both the level of medical resources available and their use can provide insight into accessibility, it is also useful to measure accessibility directly. Various dimensions of accessibility—physical, financial, and psychological can be measured (Kelly and Hurst, 2006). However, another important interpretation of accessibility (for which objective data is more readily available) is the timeliness of care, as measured by waiting lists.

Murray and Frenk propose that individuals value prompt attention for two reasons: "it may lead to better health outcomes" and "it can allay fears and concerns that come with waiting for diagnosis or treatment" (2000: 720). Existing empirical support [19] for the first notion has been studied extensively by Nadeem Esmail who found that "adverse consequences from prolonged waiting are increasingly being identified and quantified in medical and economics literature" (Esmail, 2009: 11). In addition, waiting for treatment can, itself, also adversely affect the lives of those on waiting lists. For example, in Canada "18% of individuals who visited a specialist indicated that waiting for the visit affected their life compared with 11% and 12% for nonemergency surgery and diagnostic tests, respectively"; many of these people experienced worry, stress, anxiety, pain, and difficulties with activities of daily living (Statistics Canada 2006: 10, 11).

[19] For a comprehensive review of studies looking at the adverse consequences associated with increased wait times, see Day, 2013.

The CIHI (2011b) and the OECD (2011) include various measures of access in their reports, while the Commonwealth Fund (2015, 2017), the Fraser Institute (Barua, 2015; Rovere and Skinner, 2012), [20] and the Health Consumer Powerhouse (Björnberg, 2012) have measured access to health care by focusing primarily on wait times. [21] This report includes five indicators of access to care (four measuring timeliness, and one measuring financial barriers to access): 1. the percentage of patients who were able to get an appointment on the same/next day when sick; 2. who reported that it was very or somewhat easy to get care after hours; 3. who waited less than four weeks for an appointment with a specialist; 4. who waited less than four months for elective surgery; and 5. who found cost a barrier to access in the past year. [22] A larger rate indicates higher performance for the four indicators of timely access because of changes in how the Commonwealth Fund reports these measures. A lower rate is preferable for the indicator measuring cost as an access barrier. The performances of countries on each indicator are ordered such that a rank of 1 indicates superior performance on all indicators.

As can be seen in table 7, Canada is ranked 9^{th} (out of 10) for the percentage of patients able to make a same-day appointment when sick (41%; figure 6a), and ranks 8^{th} (out of 10) for the percentage of patients who report that it is very or somewhat easy to find care after hours (39%).

Canada also ranked worst (10th out of 10) for the percentage of patients who reported waiting four weeks or less for a specialist appointment (38%; figure 6b) and worst (10th out of 10) for the percentage of patients who reported waiting less than four months for elective surgery (62%; figure 6c).

Canada placed at or near the bottom among other countries with universal-access health-care systems on four out of four indicators of timeliness of care but fell at the 10-country average on the indicator measuring the percentage of patients (14%; figure 6d) who found cost was a barrier to access, ranking 7th (out of 10).

^[20] Barua (2013) also includes wait times for access to new pharmaceuticals.

^[21] There is an abundance of literature that focuses on the medical and technical relationship between resources, use, wait times, and outcomes (which are not examined in this report). Nevertheless, as with the other indicators discussed, this analysis does not make any assertions about the optimal level of accessibility.

^[22] Readers should exercise caution when interpreting indicators measuring timeliness of care from the Commonwealth Fund's survey because of the COVID-19 pandemic. Indeed, in their updated ranking of health-care systems, Schneider and colleagues (2021) have chosen not to include these indicators. However, an examination of these indicators reveals that Canada's ranking is relatively unchanged in comparison to results from the previous 2016 survey. As a result, we include these indicators for a comprehensive gauge of the performance of Canada's health-care system relative to its international peers.

	Able to make an appointment on same day when sick		Very or somewhat easy to find care after hours		Waite 4 we appoir a s	Waited less than 4 weeks for an appointment with a specialist		Waited less than 4 months for elective surgery		nd cost a r to access bast year
	%	Rank (out of 10)	%	Rank (out of 10)	%	Rank (out of 10)	%	Rank (out of 10)	%	Rank (out of 10)
Australia	66	3	56	3	54	5	72	6	21	9
Austria	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Belgium	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Canada	41	9	39	8	38	10	62	10	14	7
Chile	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Czech Republic	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Denmark	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Estonia	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Finland	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
France	55	5	43	6	45	6	90	3	11	4
Germany	76	1	47	5	67	3	99	1	11	4
Greece	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Iceland	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Ireland	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Israel	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Italy	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Japan	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
Korea	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
Latvia	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
Lithuania	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Luxembourg	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Netherlands	71	2	72	1	69	1	87	4	9	2
New Zealand	63	4	56	3	58	4	76	5	18	8
Norway	52	8	65	2	42	8	71	8	8	1
Portugal	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Slovenia	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Spain	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Sweden	38	10	24	10	42	8	71	8	11	4
Switzerland	54	7	40	7	68	2	94	2	23	10
United Kingdom	55	5	37	9	45	6	72	6	10	3
OECD Average	57		48		53		79		14	

Table 7: Timely access to resources, 2020

Sources: OECD, 2023; Schneider et al., 2021; calculations by authors.



Figure 6a: Percentage of patients who were able to make a same-day appointment when sick, 2020

Figure 6b: Percentage of patients who waited less than 4 weeks for an appointment with specialist, 2020



Source: Schneider et al., 2021.

Figure 6c: Percentage of patients who waited less than 4 months for elective surgery, 2020







When assessing indicators of availability of, access to, and use of, resources, it is of critical importance to include as well some measure of clinical performance and quality. The OECD presents a number of indicators measuring different aspects of health-care quality in the areas of primary care, acute care, mental health care, patient safety, patient experiences, and cancer care. This report contains 12 indicators of clinical performance and quality:

- **one** indicator of primary care—diabetes-related amputation of a lower extremity; [23]
- **four** indicators of acute care—hip-fracture surgery initiated within 2 days of admission to the hospital, 30-day mortality after admission to hospital for acute myocaridal infarction (AMI), hemorrhagic stroke, and ischemic stroke;
- **one** indicator of mental health care—in-patient suicide among patients diagnosed with a mental disorder;
- **four** indicators of cancer care—five-year survival rates for breast, cervical, colon, and rectal cancers; and
- **two** indicators of patient safety—obstetric trauma during a vaginal delivery, with an instrument and without an instrument.

The indicators included in this report were chosen based on the assessment by Barua, Timmermans, Nason, and Esmail (2016) of how closely each indicator reflects direct intervention by the health-care system, whether data is available for

^{3.4} Clinical performance and quality

^[23] Amputation of a lower extremity "is a significant complication of diabetes that is costly to individuals economically, socially and psychologically" (Buckley, Kearns, Kearney, Perry, and Bradley, 2014: 1). It is considered to be a preventable complication and, hence, reflective of the quality of care provided by a health-care system.

Canada, and the novelty of information conveyed by the indicator. For example, hospital admission rates for asthma are not included since these may largely reflect genetic and environmental factors. [24] On the other hand, the age-sex standardized mortality rate (per 100 patients) within 30 days after admission to a hospital for an acute myocardial infarction is included. Not only does this account for the prevalence of the disease but it more closely "reflects the processes of care, such as timely transport of patients and effective medical interventions" and is "influenced by not only the quality of care provided in hospitals but also differences in hospital transfers, average length of stay and AMI severity" (OECD 2015: 138).

While the absolute rate for each indicator is presented in table 8a and table 8b, each country's relative performance is based on the upper and lower confidence intervals of that rate (calculated by the OECD) in relation to the calculated average range for the included OECD countries for nine of the 12 indicators used in this section. Further, while lower rates are preferable for certain indicators, the performances of countries on each indicator are ordered such that a rank of 1 indicates superior performance on all indicators.

Primary care

Canada ranks 14th (out of 24) for performance on the indicator measuring the rate of diabetes-related lower extremity amputation, [25] which is not statistically different from the average range for the OECD countries included for comparison (table 8a).

Acute care

Canada ranks 7th (out of 21) for the rate of hip-fracture surgery initiated within 48 hours after admission to the hospital. Canada ranks 9th (out of 25) for performance on the indicator measuring 30-day mortality after admission to hospital for acute myocaridal infarction (statistically better than average), 12th (out of 25) for performance on the indicator measuring 30-day mortality after admission to hospital for a hemorrhagic stroke (not statistically different from the average), and 14th (out of 25) for performance on the indicator measuring 30-day mortality after admission to hospital for a hemorrhagic stroke (not statistically different from the average), and 14th (out of 25) for performance on the indicator measuring 30-day mortality after admission to hospital for an ischemic stroke (not statistically different from the average) (table 8a).

Mental health care

The OECD reports a rate of 0.06% for in-patient suicides among patients diagnosed with a mental disorder in Canada (not statistically different from the average). This performance ranks Canada 12th out of 18 (table 8a).

^[24] The OECD (2015) notes that the prevalence of disease may explain some (though not all) of the cross-country variation in these rates.

^[25] While the 2022 version of this report did not include this indicator (as it was unavailable), it was included this year following the example of reports released before 2022.

	Diabetes-related lo extremity amputa	ower tion	Hip-fracture surgery initia hours after admission t	ted within 48 to hospital	Admission-based AMI 30-day in-hospital mortality		
	Age-sex standardized rate per 100,000 population; 15+	Rank (out of 24)	Crude rate per 100 patients; 65+	Rank (out of 21)	Age-sex standardized rate per 100 patients; 45+	Rank (out of 25)	
Australia	4.1 b	8		_	3.3 b	4	
Austria	10.1 w	20	91.4	9	5.8 a	13	
Belgium	4.9 b	9	90.6	11	4.3 b	7	
Canada	7.4 a	14	92.7	7	4.7 b	9	
Chile	7.7 a	16	_	_	7.2 a	17	
Czech Republic	24.4 w	24	79.2	14	6.2 a	14	
Denmark	7.7 a	16	97.6	3	4.6 b	8	
Estonia	10.2 w	21	78.7	15	11.3 w	24	
Finland	5.7 b	11	_	_	7.3 w	18	
France	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Germany	8.5 w	18	93.8	6	8.6 w	22	
Greece	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Iceland	0.6 b	1	98.7	1	1.7 b	1	
Ireland	3.6 b	5	86.5	13	5.4 a	12	
Israel	16.8 w	23	89.6	12	5.2 b	11	
Italy	2.5 b	2	66.8	17			
Japan	_	_	_	_	8.3 w	20	
Korea	2.6 b	3	_	_	8.4 w	21	
Latvia	8.7 a	19	47.5	20	15.9 w	25	
Lithuania	7 a	12	58.5	18	10.3 w	23	
Luxembourg	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Netherlands	5.5 b	10	96.1	4	2.9 b	3	
New Zealand	_	_	90.7	10	4.1 b	6	
Norway	3.9 b	7	98.1	2	2.6 b	2	
Portugal	11.1 w	22	46.5	21	8 w	19	
Slovenia	_	_	68.6	16	5.1 b	10	
Spain	7.5 a	15	57.1	19	6.5 a	15	
Sweden	2.6 b	3	94.5	5	3.6 b	5	
Switzerland	3.6 b	5	_	_	_	_	
United Kingdom	7 a	12	91.5	8	6.7 a	16	
OECD Average	7.2		81.7		6.3		

Table 8a, part 1: Clinical performance and quality, 2019, 2021: primary care, acute care, mental health care

Note: w = statistically worse than average; b = statistically better than average; a = not statistically different from average. Calculations by authors based on the upper and lower confidence intervals of each country in relation to the average upper and lower confidence intervals of all countries in each group.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

	Admission-based hemorrh 30-day in-hospital m	nagic stroke ortality	Admission-based ischer 30-day in-hospital m	nic stroke ortality	In-patient suicide among patients diagnosed with a mental disorder		
	Age-sex standardized rate per 100 patients; 45+	Rank (out of 25)	Age-sex standardized rate per 100 patients; 45+	Rank (out of 25)	Age-sex standardized rate per 100 patients; 15+	Rank (out of 18)	
Australia	18.4 b	7	4.8 b	5	_	_	
Austria	19.6 b	10	6.6 b	12	_	_	
Belgium	19.3 b	9	8.2 a	8.2 a 15		12	
Canada	22.3 a	12	7.7 a	14	0.06 a	12	
Chile	22 a	11	8.3 a	16	0.02 b	7	
Czech Republic	26.2 w	19	9.4 w	20	0 b	1	
Denmark	23.9 a	14	4.9 b	6	0.08 a	15	
Estonia	26.5 a	20	9 a	17			
Finland	24.6 a	17	9.1 w	19	0.05 a	11	
France	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Germany	24.1 a	16	6.6 b	12	_	_	
Greece	-	_	-	_	_	_	
Iceland	9.7 b	1	3.1 b	2	0.14 a	17	
Ireland	23.2 a	13	6.3 b	11	_	_	
Israel	17.9 b	6	5.4 b	8	0.08 a	15	
Italy	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Japan	11.4 b	2	2.9 b	1	_	_	
Korea	16 b	3	3.3 b	4	_	_	
Latvia	49.3 w	25	20.5 w	25	0 b	1	
Lithuania	31.1 w	23	15.4 w	24	0.01 b	4	
Luxembourg	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Netherlands	24 a	15	4.9 b	6	0.03 a	10	
New Zealand	18.9 b	8	5.9 b	10	_	_	
Norway	17 b	5	3.1 b	2	0.02 b	7	
Portugal	25 a	18	10.4 w	22	0.01 b	4	
Slovenia	31.2 w	24	12.1 w	23	0.06 a	12	
Spain	27.8 w	22	9.4 w	20	0.02 b	7	
Sweden	16.1 b	4	5.5 b	9	0.36 w	18	
Switzerland	_	_	_	_	0.01 b	4	
United Kingdom	27.5 w	21	9 w	17	0 b	1	
OECD Average	22.9		7.7		0.06		

Table 8a, part 2: Clinical performance and quality, 2019, 2021: primary care, acute care, mental health care

Note: w = statistically worse than average; b = statistically better than average; a = not statistically different from average. Calculations by authors based on the upper and lower confidence intervals of each country in relation to the average upper and lower confidence intervals of all countries in each group.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

Cancer care

Canada ranks 5th (out of 28) on the indicator measuring the rate of 5-year survival after treatment for breast cancer (statistically better than average), 11th (out of 28) for the rate of 5-year survival after treatment for cervical cancer (not statistically different from the average), 8th (out of 28) for the rate of 5-year survival after treatment for colon cancer (statistically better than average), and 6th (out of 28) for the rate of 5-year survival after treatment for rectal cancer (statistically better than average) (table 8b).). However, these indicators should be interpreted with caution: they are from 2010 to 2014 as the OECD has not updated these data.

Patient safety

Canada ranks 23rd (out of 23) for its performance on the indicator measuring obstetric trauma during a vaginal delivery with an instrument, and 23rd (out of 23) for its performance on the indicator measuring obstetric trauma during a vaginal delivery without an instrument (table 8b).

While Canada does well on five indicators of clinical performance and quality, its performance on the other six is either average or poor.

	Breast cancer		Cervical cance	r	Colon cancer		
	Five-year net survival, 2010-2014, female, 15+ years old, age- standardized survival, %	Rank (out of 28)	Five-year net survival, 2010-2014, female, 15+ years old, age- standardized survival, %	Rank (out of 28)	Five-year net survival, 2010–2014, 15+ years old, age-standardized survival, %	Rank (out of 28)	
Australia	89.5 b	1	66.4 a	15	70.7 b	3	
Austria	84.8 a	21	63.9 a	22	63.7 a	15	
Belgium	86.4 a	14	65.4 a	18	67.9 b	5	
Canada	88.6 b	5	67.3 a	11	67 b	8	
Chile	75.5 w	27	56.7 w	27	43.9 w	28	
Czech Republic	81.4 w	24	61 w	25	56.1 w	26	
Denmark	86.1 a	16	69.5 a	6	61.6 a	20	
Estonia	78.1 w	25	66.5 a	14	58.4 a	24	
Finland	88.5 b	6	67.4 a	9	64.9 a	9	
France	86.7 a	11	65 a	20	63.7 a	15	
Germany	86 a	17	65.2 a	19	64.8 a	12	
Greece	-	_	-	_	_	_	
Iceland	89.1 a	3	80.1 b	1	68.2 a	4	
Ireland	82 w	23	63.6 a	24	60.5 a	22	
Israel	88 b	7	66.6 a	13	71.7 b	2	
Italy	86 a	17	66.8 a	12	64.2 a	13	
Japan	89.4 b	2	71.4 b	4	67.8 b	6	
Korea	86.6 a	12	77.3 b	2	71.8 b	1	
Latvia	76.9 w	26	53.9 w	28	48.8 w	27	
Lithuania	73.5 w	28	59.2 w	26	56.9 w	25	
Luxembourg	-	_	_	_	_	_	
Netherlands	86.6 a	12	67.5 a	8	63.1 a	18	
New Zealand	87.6 b	8	67.4 a	9	64 a	14	
Norway	87.2 a	10	73.2 b	3	64.9 a	9	
Portugal	87.6 a	8	66.2 a	16	60.9 a	21	
Slovenia	83.5 a	22	65.5 a	17	61.9 a	19	
Spain	85.3 a	20	64.6 a	21	63.3 a	17	
Sweden	88.8 b	4	68.3 a	7	64.9 a	9	
Switzerland	86.2 a	15	71.4 a	4	67.3 b	7	
United Kingdom	85.6 a	19	63.8 a	23	60 w	23	
OECD Average	85.1	_	66.5	-	63.0		

Table 8b, part 1: Clinical performance and quality, 2010–2014: cancer care and patient safety

Note: w = statistically worse than average; b = statistically better than average; a = not statistically different from average. Calculations by authors based on the upper and lower confidence intervals of each country in relation to the average upper and lower confidence intervals of all countries in each group.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

	Rectal cancer		Obstetric trauma, va delivery with instru	iginal ment	Obstetric trauma, vaginal delivery without instrument		
	Five-year net survival, 2010-2014, 15+ years old, age-standardized survival, %	Rank (out of 28)	Crude rate per 100, 2021, vaginal deliveries; female; 15+ years oldr	Rank (out of 23)	Crude rate per 100, 2021, vaginal deliveries; female; 15+ years old	Rank (out of 23)	
Australia	71 b	2	5.5	13	2.2	18	
Austria	64.2 a	14	-	_	_	_	
Belgium	66.6 b	7	4.5	10	1	9	
Canada	67.1 b	6	15.8	23	3.5	23	
Chile	32.7 w	28		_		_	
Czech Republic	52.3 w	26	7.2	17	0.9	7	
Denmark	64.8 a	10	11.6	22	3	21	
Estonia	54.8 w	24	6	15	1	9	
Finland	64.4 a	13	3.1	7	1	9	
France	60.9 a	20	_	_		_	
Germany	62.3 a	17	6.1	16	1.5	14	
Greece	-	_	_	_	_	_	
Iceland	63 a	15	8.9	20	3.2	22	
Ireland	61.7 a	18	3.2	8	1.3	12	
Israel	67.8 b	4	1.4	2	0.5	3	
Italy	61.3 a	19	2.9	6	0.7	5	
Japan	64.8 b	10	_	_	_	_	
Korea	71.1 b	1	_	_	-	_	
Latvia	49.5 w	27	2.2	3	0.4	2	
Lithuania	52.7 w	25	1.1	1	0.3	1	
Luxembourg	-	_	_	_	-	_	
Netherlands	65.3 b	9	3.4	9	2.6	20	
New Zealand	66 b	8	7.2	17	2	16	
Norway	68.3 b	3	2.7	5	1.3	12	
Portugal	59.6 a	22	2.6	4	0.5	3	
Slovenia	60.3 a	21	5.3	12	0.8	6	
Spain	59.5 a	23	4.7	11	0.9	7	
Sweden	64.7 a	12	9.2	21	1.6	15	
Switzerland	67.3 b	5	7.4	19	2	16	
United Kingdom	62.5 a	16	5.7	14	2.2	18	
OECD Average	61.7		5.6		1.5		

Table 8b, part 2: Clinical performance and quality, 2010–2014, 2021: cancer care and patient safety

Note: w = statistically worse than average; b = statistically better than average; a = not statistically different from average. Calculations by authors based on the upper and lower confidence intervals of each country in relation to the average upper and lower confidence intervals of all countries in each group.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

4 Health status and outcomes

As can be seen in figure 1 (p. 3), the literature suggests that achieving a certain health status—the health outcome for a population—, though of great interest and importance, is a product of both medical and non-medical determinants of health and is thus not necessarily a good measure of the performance of a health system (Arah, Westert, Hurst, and Klazinga, 2006; Rovere and Skinner, 2012; Skinner, 2009). In fact, much research seems to indicate that the health outcomes for a population are not correlated to spending on medical care or the type of health-insurance system (Centre for International Statistics, 1998). Indeed,

factors such as clean water, proper sanitation, and good nutrition, along with additional environmental, economic, and lifestyle dimensions, are considerably more important in determining the outcomes a country experiences ... The actual contribution of medical and clinical services is usually considered to be in the range of 10 up to 25 per cent of observed outcome. (Figueras, Saltman, Busse, and Dubois, 2004: 83, citing Bunker, Frazier, and Mosteller, 1995; McKeown, 1976; Or, 1997)

However, such indicators (for example, life expectancy, mortality rates) are nevertheless widely used to provide a related view of how well a healthcare system may be performing its objectives. Further, while it is clear that life expectancy is not completely determined by access to high-quality health care, it is also true that longer life spans would not be as likely without these services (Esmail and Walker, 2008). Therefore, in order to provide a more complete (if only related) picture of how well each country's health-care system performs, we include five indicators of health status and outcomes: 1. life expectancy (LE) at birth; 2. healthy-age life expectancy (HALE); 3. infant mortality; 4. perinatal mortality; and 5. treatable mortality. Four of these indicators were previously used by Esmail and Walker (2008).

Measures of longevity

Perhaps the most commonly used measure of health status is life expectancy at birth, that is, the average number of years a person can be expected to live assuming age-specific mortality levels remain constant (OECD, 2015). Canada ranks 16th (out of 30) for its performance on the indicator measuring life expectancy at birth (calculated by the OECD) (table 9). The WHO calculates a related Table 9: Health Status—life expectancy at birth, healthy life expectancy, infant and perinatal mortality, and treatable mortality, 2019, 2020

	Life expectancy at birth (LE), 2020		Healthy life expectancy (HALE), 2019		Infant mortality rate, 2020		Perin morta rate, 2	atal ality 2020	Treatable mortality rate, 2019	
	Years	Rank (out of 30)	Years	Rank (out of 30)	Deaths per 1,000 live births	Rank (out of 30)	Deaths per 1,000 total births	Rank (out of 30)	* SDRs per 100,000	Rank (out of 30)
Australia	83.2	4	70.9	18	3.2	19	4.1	13	52.0	9
Austria	81.3	20	70.9	18	3.1	17	5.8	23	59.0	18
Belgium	80.8	24	70.6	23	3.3	21	5.9	25	57.0	15
Canada	81.7	16	71.3	13	4.5	28	5.6	22	58.0	16
Chile	80.8	24	70.0	26	5.6	30	6.4	26	82.0	26
Czech Republic	78.3	28	68.8	28	2.3	6	3.9	11	97.0	27
Denmark	81.6	17	71.0	15	2.4	7	3.7	8	56.0	13
Estonia	78.9	27	69.2	27	1.4	1	2.3	2	106.0	28
Finland	82.0	15	71.0	15	1.8	3	2.9	5	56.0	13
France	82.3	11	72.1	5	3.6	23	10.7	30	51.0	6
Germany	81.1	21	70.9	18	3.1	17	5.8	23	66.0	21
Greece	81.4	18	70.9	18	3.2	19	6.8	28	78.0	25
Iceland	83.1	5	72.0	7	2.9	15	3.3	6	48.0	3
Ireland	82.6	8	71.1	14	3.0	16	4.8	18	63.0	20
Israel	82.7	7	72.4	4	2.4	7	4.8	18	61.0	19
Italy	82.3	11	71.9	8	2.4	7	3.9	11	55.0	12
Japan	84.6	1	74.1	1	1.8	3	2.1	1	51.0	6
Korea	83.5	2	73.1	2	2.5	12	2.5	3	44.0	2
Latvia	75.5	29	66.2	30	3.5	22	4.6	17	154.0	30
Lithuania	75.1	30	66.7	29	2.8	14	4.4	16	149.0	29
Luxembourg	82.2	14	71.6	10	4.5	28	10.1	29	50.0	4
Netherlands	81.4	18	71.4	11	3.8	25	5.1	20	50.0	4
New Zealand	82.3	11	70.2	24	4.3	27	5.3	21	66.0	21
Norway	83.3	3	71.4	11	1.6	2	2.8	4	51.0	6
Portugal	81.1	21	71.0	15	2.4	7	3.4	7	66.0	21
Slovenia	80.6	26	70.7	22	2.2	5	3.7	8	58.0	16
Spain	82.4	9	72.1	5	2.6	13	4.2	14	52.0	9
Sweden	82.4	9	71.9	8	2.4	7	4.3	15	53.0	11
Switzerland	83.1	5	72.5	3	3.6	23	6.4	26	40.0	1
United Kingdom	81.0	23	70.1	25	3.8	25	3.8	10	71.0	24
OECD Average	81.4		70.9		3.0		4.8		66.7	

Note: * SDR = Age-standardized death rates.

Sources: OECD, 2023; WHO, 2021; calculations by authors

measure called healthy life expectancy (HALE) that reflects how long individuals in a country will live in a good state of health (or not in a poor state of health). [26] Canada ranks 13th (out of 30) for its performance on this indicator.

These two measures can be combined to determine the number of years lost to illness or the percentage of expected lifetime that individuals can expect to live in full health. This measure (HALE/LE) may allow some additional insight into the ability of the health-care system to provide care for individuals who may as a result of their illnesses soon endure a significantly negative effect on their standard of living. Canada ranks 16th (out of 30) on this measure.

Measures of mortality

The diametric opposite of measures of the length of life and the proportion of that lifetime that can be enjoyed in full health are measures of mortality. The most basic measures of mortality commonly used to compare health status are infant and perinatal mortality rates. Though these mortality statistics can be affected by immigration from poor countries, unhealthy outlier populations, and other population demographics (Seeman, 2003), they can also serve as indicators of a well-functioning health-care system. Zeynep Or notes that these mortality statistics are a useful way to gauge the performance of a health-care system since "the performance of a health system is often judged by its capacity to prevent deaths at the youngest ages" and notes that perinatal mortality is an important indicator of "effectiveness of health care interventions during pregnancy and childbirth" (2001: 8). Canada ranks 28th (out of 30) for its performance on the indicator measuring infant mortality (figure 7a), and 22nd (out of 30) for perinatal mortality (table 9).

Adjusted measures of mortality

Unfortunately, the use of HALE, LE, and infant and perinatal mortality as measures of the effectiveness of a health system includes a number of effects that are not related to the health system. Measures such as crime rates, pollution, water quality, and public sanitation systems affect life expectancy in addition to those directly related to the health-care systems that have been compared in this report. A potentially finer way of breaking down mortality is to use the treatable-mortality measure recently adopted by the OECD. In 2018, the OECD and other partners developed a new list of treatable and preventable mortality. These lists were built on the work of Nolte and Mckee (2004, 2011); these two studies formed the basis of the measure, Mortality

^[26] Since the publication of Barua and Moir (2020), the WHO has made retrospective changes in how HALE data from previous years has been reported. As a result, readers should exercise caution when interpreting these results and rankings, particularly when comparing them to previous iterations of this report.



Figure 7a: Infant mortality per thousand live births, 2020 or most recent

Amenable to Health Care, found in previous versions of this report. According to the OECD, the measure of treatable mortality focuses on "[c]auses of death that can be mainly avoided through timely and effective health care interventions, including secondary prevention such as screening, and treatment (i.e., after the onset of diseases, to reduce case-fatality)" (OECD, 2020: 1). The list of diseases included, their corresponding ICD-10 codes, their age thresholds, and the rationale for their inclusion are available in the OECD's documentation (OECD, 2019a). The OECD draws data from the WHO Mortality Database when making this calculation, and reports these data as both "absolute numbers and as standardized death rates according to age" (OECD, 2020: 1). While the measure used in previous versions of this report (mortality amenable to health care) included codes with a variety of age ranges for specific illnesses, the list used for this measure (treatable mortality) uses a single age band of 0–74 for all included ICD-10 codes.

Table 9 presents the available data for Treatable Mortality for the categories of illness presented in table 10. Canada ranked 16th for its performance on the indicator measuring treatable mortality among the 30 countries ranked (figure 7b).

Sources: OECD, 2022; calculations by authors.

Table 10: Cause of death considered treatable by health care

	,
Infectious diseases	Diseases of the respiratory system
Tuberculosis (50%)	Upper respiratory infections
Scarlet fever	Pneumonia, not elsewhere classified or organism unspecified
Sepsis	Acute lower respiratory infections
Cellulitis	Asthma and bronchiectasis
Legionnaires disease	Adult respiratory distress syndrome
Streptococcal and enterococci infection	Pulmonary oedema
Other meningitis	Abscess of lung and mediastinum pyothorax
Meningitis due to other and unspecified causes	Other pleural disorders
Cancer	Diseases of the digestive system
Cervical cancer (50%)	Gastric and duodenal ulcer
Colorectal cancer	Appendicitis
Breast cancer (female only)	Abdominal hernia
Uterus cancer	Cholelithiasis and cholecystitis
Testicular cancer	Other diseases of gallbladder or biliary tract
Thyroid cancer	Acute pancreatitis
Hodgkin's disease	Other diseases of pancreas
Lymphoid leukaemia	
Benign neoplasm	Diseases of the genitourinary system
	Nephritis and nephrosis
Endocrine and metabolic diseases	Obstructive uropathy
Diabetes mellitus (50%)	Renal failure
Thyroid disorders	Renal colic
Adrenal disorders	Disorders resulting from renal tubular dysfunction
	Unspecified contracted kidney, small kidney of unknown cause
Diseases of the nervous system	Inflammatory diseases of genitourinary system
Epilepsy	Prostatic hyperplasia
Diseases of the circulatory system	Pregnancy, childbirth, and pernatal period
Aortic aneurysm (50%)	Pregnancy, childbirth and the puerperium
Hypertensive diseases (50%)	Certain conditions originating in the perinatal period
Ischaemic heart diseases (50%)	
Cerebrovascular diseases (50%)	Congenital malformations
Other atherosclerosis (50%)	Congenital malformations of the circulatory system (heart defects)
Rheumatic and other heart disease	
Venous thromboembolism*	Adverse effects of medical and surgical care
	Drugs, medicaments and biological substances causing adverse effects in therapeutic use*
	Misadventures to patients during surgical and medical care*
	Medical devices associated with adverse incidents in diagnostic and therapeutic use*

Note *: Some of these conditions that are mainly acquired when people are hospitalized or in contact with health services might also be considered to be preventable, in the sense that the incidence of these health-care-associated infections or health problems might be reduced through greater prevention in health-care facilities.

Source: adapted from OECD and Eurostat, 2022.





Sources: OECD, 2022; calculations by authors.

Conclusion

Canada spends more on health care as a percentage of GDP than every other high-income OECD country with a universal health-care system, and ranks 9th highest for spending per capita (out of 30), on an age-adjusted basis. Despite this level of spending, Canada has significantly fewer physicians, somatic-care beds, and psychiatric beds per thousand compared to the average OECD country—though it ranks close to the average for nurses and long-term care beds per thousand over the age of 65. Further, while Canada performs well on Gammacamera density (per million population), it has fewer other medical technologies (such as MRI and CT scanners) than the average high-income OECD country with universal health care for which comparable inventory data is available.

Canada's performance is mixed for use of resources. Performing below the OECD average on all broad utilization indicators and higher than the average OECD country on just over half of the detailed utilization indicators examined (for example, coronary artery bypass grafts and knee replacements), with average to lower rates on the rest, Canada reports the least hospital activity (as measured by curative-care discharge rates) in the group of countries studied.

Canada ranked last (or close to last) on all four indicators of timeliness of care; and ranked seventh (out of ten) on the indicator measuring the percentage of patients who reported that cost was a barrier to access.

Finally, while Canada does well on five indicators of clinical performance and quality (such as rates of survival for breast, colon, and rectal cancers), its performance on the seven others are either no different from the average or in some cases—particularly obstetric trauma—worse.

Canada ranks among the most expensive universal health-care systems in the OECD (on an age-adjusted basis). However, its performance for availability and access to resources is generally below that of the average OECD country, while its performance for use of resources and quality and clinical performance is mixed. Clearly, there is an imbalance between the value Canadians receive and the relatively high amount of money they spend on their health-care system.

Appendix—additional tables and data

- Table A1. Addition and removal of variables over time / 41
- Table A2. Health-care spending, 2020 / 42
- Table A3.Availability of human and capital resources,
per thousand population, 2019/2020 / 43
- Table A4. Availability of technological and diagnostic imaging resources, per million population, 2019, 2020 / 44
- Table A5. Use of resources, 2019, 2020 / 45
- Table A6. Use of resources, by specialty, per 100,000 population, age-adjusted, 2019 / 46–47
- Table A7. Use of resources, by specialty, per 100,000 population, 2019 / 48-49

	2016	2017	2018	2019	2020	2021	2022	2023
Digital Subtraction Angiography units (per million population)	+	0	-					
Lithotriptors (per million population)	+	0	-					
Transplantation of kidney (per hundred thousand population)	+	0	-					
Waiting time of more than four weeks for getting an appointment with a specialist (%)	+	0	0	0	0	-		
Colorectal cancer five year relative survival (%)	+	0	-					
Colon cancer five-year net survival (%)			+	0	0	0	0	0
Rectal cancer five-year net survival (%)			+	0	0	0	0	0
Long-term care beds (Hospital + Residential long-term care beds) (per thousand pop, 65 years +)					+	0	0	0
Long-term care beds (Hospital + Residential long-term care beds) (per thousand pop)					+	0	0	0
Hospital discharges (per hundred thousand population)	+	0	0	0	-			
Curative-care discharges (per hundred thousand population)					+	0	0	0
Post-operative wound dehiscence (per hundred thousand hospital discharges)					+	-		
Post-operative sepsis after abdominal surgery (per hundred thousand hospital discharges)					+	-		
Mortality amenable to health care (MAH [SDRs per 100,000])	+	0	0	0	-			
Treatable mortality (Deaths per 100,000 population)					+	0	0	0
Waited 2 months or more for specialist appointment (%)	+	0	0	0	0	_		
Waited 4 months or more for elective surgery (%)	+	0	0	0	0	_		
Waited less than four weeks for specialist appointment (%)						+	0	0
Waited less than four months for non-emergency or elective surgery (%)						+	0	0
Curative (acute) care beds (per thousand population)	+	0	0	0	0	0	-	
Somatic Care Bed (per thousand population)							+	0
Diabetes lower extremity amputation (per hundred thousand population)	+	0	0	0	0	0	-	+

Table A1: Addition and removal of variables over time

Legend: + = added; - = removed; O = present

Sources: OECD, 2022a; calculations by authors.

	Spending as p	ercentage of GDP	Spending	nding per capita	
	Percentage	Rank (out of 30)	US\$ PPP	Rank (out of 30)	
Australia	10.6	14	6,225.5	10	
Austria	12.1	5	6,690.1	5	
Belgium	11.0	11	6,022.3	12	
Canada	12.3	3	6,277.5	7	
Chile	9.3	23	2,665.0	30	
Czech Republic	9.5	19	4,303.0	19	
Denmark	10.8	12	6,372.1	6	
Estonia	7.5	28	3,083.4	28	
Finland	10.3	15	5,251.5	15	
France	12.3	4	6,105.6	11	
Germany	12.9	1	7,518.2	2	
Greece	9.2	24	2,736.4	29	
Iceland	9.7	18	5,106.5	16	
Ireland	6.7	29	5,860.7	13	
Israel	7.9	26	3,258.0	26	
Italy	9.4	21	4,042.6	22	
Japan	11.3	8	4,899.1	18	
Korea	9.3	22	4,189.1	20	
Latvia	9.0	25	3,121.6	27	
Lithuania	7.8	27	3,336.5	25	
Luxembourg	5.7	30	6,273.6	8	
Netherlands	11.4	7	6,785.3	4	
New Zealand	10.1	16	4,921.2	17	
Norway	9.9	17	7,042.6	3	
Portugal	11.1	10	3,829.8	24	
Slovenia	9.5	20	3,884.8	23	
Spain	10.7	13	4,086.8	21	
Sweden	11.2	9	6,227.6	9	
Switzerland	11.8	6	7,582.2	1	
United Kingdom	12.4	2	5,466.6	14	
OECD average	10.1		5,105.5		

Table A2: Health-care spending, 2021

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

	Physicians		Nu	Nurses		tic beds	Psychia	tric beds	Long care be	Long-term care beds (2021)*	
	per '000	Rank (out of 30)	per '000	Rank (out of 30)	per '000	Rank (out of 29)	per '000	Rank (out of 29)	per '000	Rank (out of 16)	
Australia	4.02	14	12.81	5	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Austria	5.41	3	10.60	14	6.20	4	0.72	13	9.31	8	
Belgium	3.25	23	11.07	11	4.08	8	1.41	2	12.97	2	
Canada	2.77	28	10.25	16	2.21	24	0.37	21	9.11	9	
Chile	2.94	27	3.74	30	1.82	28	0.14	28	_	_	
Czech Republic	4.26	12	8.95	18	5.80	5	0.86	10	9.07	10	
Denmark	4.38	9	10.24	17	1.99	26	0.52	17	_	_	
Estonia	3.43	19	6.49	24	3.89	10	0.50	18	_	_	
Finland	3.61	17	18.92	1	2.43	21	0.33	26	11.85	3	
France	3.18	24	8.58	21	4.86	7	0.79	12	_	-	
Germany	4.53	5	12.03	8	6.45	3	1.31	3	11.84	4	
Greece	6.29	1	3.77	29	3.57	12	0.70	14	_	_	
Iceland	4.38	9	14.95	4	2.48	20	0.35	24	7.64	13	
Ireland	4.02	14	12.73	6	2.57	18	0.32	27	6.48	14	
Israel	3.35	21	5.36	27	2.53	19	0.38	20	2.38	16	
Italy	4.10	13	6.21	26	3.04	15	0.08	29	5.15	15	
Japan	2.60	29	12.10	7	10.04	2	2.58	1	_	-	
Korea	2.56	30	8.77	19	11.50	1	1.28	4	9.49	7	
Latvia	3.36	20	4.19	28	4.06	9	1.11	6	_	_	
Lithuania	4.47	7	7.88	22	5.18	6	0.87	9	8.12	12	
Luxembourg	2.98	26	11.72	9	3.34	14	0.80	11	11.54	6	
Netherlands	3.90	16	11.38	10	1.83	27	1.12	5	15.21	1	
New Zealand	3.53	18	10.92	12	2.31	23	0.36	22	_	-	
Norway	5.16	4	18.32	3	2.39	22	1.01	7	_	-	
Portugal	5.60	2	7.44	23	2.86	16	0.64	15	_	-	
Slovenia	3.34	22	10.49	15	3.61	11	0.64	15	_	_	
Spain	4.49	6	6.34	25	2.60	17	0.36	22	8.99	11	
Sweden	4.32	11	10.67	13	1.60	29	0.40	19	_	_	
Switzerland	4.44	8	18.39	2	3.48	13	0.95	8	11.67	5	
United Kingdom	3.18	24	8.68	20	2.08	25	0.34	25		_	
OECD Average	3.93		10.13		3.82		0.7		9.4		

Table A3: Availability of human and capital resources per thousand population, 2021

Note*: This measure takes the raw number of long-term care beds in hospitals and residential facilities in each country, divides each figure by the country's population in 000's, and then adds them together.

Sources: OECD, 2023; calculations by authors.

	MRI Units		CT Scanners		PET S	PET Scanners		Cameras	Mammographs	
	Per million	Rank (out of 29)	Per million	Rank (out of 30)	Per million	Rank (out of 26)	Per million	Rank (out of 25)	Per million	Rank (out of 24)
Australia	14.8	17	69.8	2	3.8	5	18.6	2	20.6	11
Austria	25.0	8	28.7	11	2.7	11	10.3	9	21.1	9
Belgium	11.5	24	24.1	16	2.9	9	24.8	1	36.4	3
Canada	10.1	26	14.6	28	1.5	20	15.3	3	17.5	13
Chile	12.3	23	24.2	15	_	_	_	_	_	_
Czech Republic	10.4	25	16.4	23	1.6	18	11.4	7	11.1	22
Denmark	_	_	40.6	5	8.3	1	14.6	4	15.9	17
Estonia	14.3	19	18.8	19	2.3	13	2.3	25	11.3	21
Finland	28.8	6	16.3	24	3.3	8	7.6	14	30.9	6
France	15.3	14	18.1	21	2.5	12	6.9	17	_	_
Germany	34.7	2	35.3	10	_	_	_	_	_	_
Greece	31.9	4	42.5	4	1.3	23	13.6	5	70.6	1
Iceland	19.4	9	47.2	3	2.8	10	8.3	11	16.4	16
Ireland	15.8	13	21.3	17	1.8	15	5.9	19	16.9	15
Israel	5.2	29	9.8	29	1.4	21	9.3	10	11.1	23
Italy	30.2	5	36.5	9	3.6	7	7.9	13	34.1	4
Japan	55.2	1	111.5	1	4.6	2	11.5	6	33.8	5
Korea	32.0	3	39.6	6	3.7	6	5.9	20	67.8	2
Latvia	15.2	16	37.1	8	1.6	19	3.7	21	27.1	8
Lithuania	14.0	20	26.5	12	0.7	26	2.9	24	17.9	12
Luxembourg	14.5	18	16.1	25	1.6	17	11.3	8	10.9	24
Netherlands	13.8	21	14.9	27	4.5	3	7.4	15	_	_
New Zealand	15.3	15	15.3	26	1.0	25	3.6	22	20.7	10
Norway	17.4	11	26.4	13	1.1	24	3.6	23	11.8	20
Portugal	10.0	27	17.8	22	_	_	_	_	_	_
Slovenia	12.5	22	18.2	20	1.4	21	8.1	12	14.7	18
Spain	17.6	10	19.2	18	1.8	16	6.7	18	17.3	14
Sweden	16.6	12	26.2	14	2.2	14	7.1	16	12.4	19
Switzerland	25.1	7	38.7	7	3.9	4	_	_	29.9	7
United Kingdom	7.4	28	8.8	30	_	-	_	_	_	_
OECD Average	18.8		29.3		2.6		9.1		24.1	

Table A4: Availability of technological and diagnostic imaging resources, per million population, 2019, 2021

Source: OECD 2023; calculations by authors.

	Doctor consultations		Curative discharg	e-care e rates	MRI ex	ams	CT exams	
	Per capita	Rank (out of 28)	Per 100,000 (2020)	Rank (out of 27)	Per 1,000	Rank (out of 26)	Per 1,000	Rank (out of 26)
Australia	6.8	7	16,661.7	3	51.4	23	141.0	14
Austria	5.8	10	19,312.7	2	148.0	2	196.2	7
Belgium	6.2	8	14,764.2	7	98.1	7	204.9	5
Canada	4.7	17	7,536.6	27	62.0	18	144.1	13
Chile	2.2	28	_	_	28.6	26	111.7	20
Czech Republic	7.3	5	15,203.9	6	60.1	19	114.1	19
Denmark	4.0	22	-	_	90.6	8	190.2	9
Estonia	4.1	20	12,758.0	15	50.8	24	136.2	15
Finland	4.0	21	13,777.7	11	53.1	22	67.2	26
France	5.0	15	13,608.5	12	122.8	3	198.6	6
Germany	9.5	3	20,122.8	1	149.8	1	151.2	12
Greece	2.7	26	-	_	87.4	10	195.4	8
Iceland	-	_	10,707.9	21	108.3	5	232.1	2
Ireland	5.8	11	13,089.6	14	_	_	_	_
Israel	6.8	6	14,118.6	10	47.5	25	158.9	11
Italy	5.2	13	8,810.6	25	75.4	13	97.3	23
Japan	11.1	2	11,283.0	20	_	_	_	_
Korea	14.7	1	14,619.7	8	73.8	14	248.5	1
Latvia	5.1	14	12,027.0	18	69.2	15	184.2	10
Lithuania	6.1	9	15,840.0	4	67.0	17	132.5	16
Luxembourg	4.4	18	12,219.3	17	90.6	8	224.1	3
Netherlands	8.4	4	8,019.8	26	59.5	20	110.9	21
New Zealand	3.8	23	11,713.8	19	_	_	_	_
Norway	3.7	24	14,432.8	9	116.6	4	85.9	24
Portugal	3.0	25	10,266.1	24	56.5	21	216.0	4
Slovenia	5.3	12	13,591.7	13	80.1	12	84.0	25
Spain	4.9	16	10,389.1	22	99.1	6	124.3	17
Sweden	2.2	27	12,567.3	16	_	_	_	_
Switzerland	4.3	19	15,221.3	5	81.2	11	120.6	18
United Kingdom		_	10,382.1	23	67.7	16	103.3	22
OECD Average	5.6		13,075.8		80.6		152.8	

Table A5: Use of resources, 2019, 2020, 2021

Source: OECD 2023; calculations by authors

	Cataract surgery		Translumina angiop	al coronary plasty	Coronar bypass	y artery s graft	Stem cell transplantation		
	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 28)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 25)	
Australia	1,265.0	6	204.8	14	53.2	2	11.6	1	
Austria	1,339.7	3	324.0	2	34.4	11	6.6	16	
Belgium	1,236.6	7	280.4	7	56.2	1	8.3	7	
Canada	1,024.9	14	145.3	22	47.2	5	6.8	14	
Chile	246.9	28	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Czech Republic	1,204.0	8	194.2	16	34.4	10	6.4	17	
Denmark	819.0	22	164.2	21	48.7	4			
Estonia	1,266.7	5	206.6	12	24.1	18	6.1	19	
Finland	1,123.9	12	224.7	10	25.0	16	5.8	20	
France	1,324.5	4	272.5	8	24.0	19	7.5	11	
Germany	1,043.5	13	357.9	1	41.0	6	8.9	5	
Greece	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	
Iceland	919.8	16	205.0	13	20.4	21	0.0	24	
Ireland	760.0	24	177.2	18	33.7	12	7.0	13	
Israel	993.1	15	321.0	4	40.0	7	9.0	3	
Italy	775.5	23	191.6	17	25.0	15	8.7	6	
Japan	_	_	_	_	_	_	3.6	22	
Korea	1,634.3	2	174.6	20	9.6	27	_	_	
Latvia	1,144.2	10	311.1	5	19.6	25	0.0	24	
Lithuania	885.5	17	284.1	6	38.8	9	7.6	10	
Luxembourg	1,650.9	1	145.2	23	20.3	23	_	_	
Netherlands	1,187.2	9	225.6	9	51.7	3	9.2	2	
New Zealand	410.8	27	132.2	25	32.5	13	6.7	15	
Norway	413.6	26	212.1	11	23.4	20	8.0	9	
Portugal	832.9	21	90.7	27	20.3	24	3.2	23	
Slovenia	853.7	18	197.8	15	31.6	14	5.5	21	
Spain	838.0	20	121.5	26	14.2	26	7.5	12	
Sweden	1,134.1	11	177.0	19	24.1	17	8.3	8	
Switzerland	458.6	25	322.4	3	39.0	8	8.9	4	
United Kingdom	844.1	19	133.5	24	20.3	22	6.2	18	
OECD Average	986.8		214.7		31.6		6.7		

Table A6: Use of resources, by specialty, per 100,000 population, age-adjusted, 2021

Source: OECD 2023; calculations by authors

Append	ectomy	Cholecys	stectomy	Repa inguina	air of I hernia	H replac	ip ement	Kn replac	ee ement
Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 26)
177.3	1	252.5	1	188.9	9	211.8	13	269.9	2
136.0	11	191.6	9	253.3	1	287.3	2	195.3	4
142.6	9	228.3	3	206.7	6	271.3	4	163.6	8
111.9	22	192.8	8	148.8	15	156.0	22	155.2	11
_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
130.2	14	161.4	16	127.9	20	190.2	15	104.0	20
125.3	16	135.0	24	149.6	14	229.5	12	168.7	7
148.3	8	171.0	14	128.4	19	166.0	20	90.7	22
132.9	12	156.8	18	160.0	12	254.8	7	233.9	3
98.2	23	178.2	12	200.7	7	229.8	11	156.8	10
123.4	18	210.5	6	163.2	11	276.1	3	184.7	6
_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
167.1	4	245.5	2	250.1	3	256.7	6	_	_
152.7	6	143.4	21	118.8	22	254.3	8	136.0	13
130.6	13	169.4	15	221.0	5	90.4	26	89.6	23
51.1	27	137.8	23	141.9	17	169.8	18	110.9	17
_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
169.8	3	193.3	7	70.6	27	69.6	27	162.4	9
127.3	15	151.4	19	105.4	24	144.1	23	61.3	26
148.8	7	217.6	5	153.3	13	184.0	16	72.1	24
119.1	19	188.6	10	231.0	4	238.6	10	192.2	5
93.6	24	157.0	17	164.6	10	250.0	9	152.9	12
138.8	10	146.4	20	97.1	25	162.0	21	113.0	16
153.5	5	138.3	22	112.7	23	265.6	5	126.4	14
68.6	26	129.3	26	124.3	21	98.5	25	68.6	25
112.8	20	181.1	11	146.4	16	167.3	19	106.8	19
112.3	21	172.6	13	191.3	8	126.7	24	118.7	15
124.0	17	133.6	25	138.6	18	210.0	14	97.3	21
170.2	2	220.0	4	252.4	2	327.5	1	277.5	1
86.1	25	117.3	27	93.6	26	182.5	17	109.7	18
127.9		174.8		160.8		202.6		143.0	

Table A6, continued

fraserinstitute.org

	Cataract surgery		Transluminal coronary angioplasty		Coronary artery bypass graft		Stem cell transplantation	
	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 28)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 25)
Australia	1,179.4	11	190.9	16	49.6	4	10.8	1
Austria	1,339.8	4	324.0	3	34.4	10	6.6	15
Belgium	1,236.7	8	280.4	7	56.2	1	8.3	7
Canada	1,003.3	14	142.2	22	46.2	5	6.7	13
Chile	201.3	28	_	_	_	_	_	_
Czech Republic	1,252.8	6	202.1	15	35.8	9	6.7	13
Denmark	841.9	20	168.8	19	50.1	3		
Estonia	1,310.1	5	213.7	12	24.9	18	6.3	17
Finland	1,250.7	7	250.0	9	27.8	16	6.4	16
France	1,416.6	3	291.4	5	25.7	17	8.0	8
Germany	1,136.7	13	389.9	1	44.7	6	9.7	3
Greece	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
Iceland	799.4	23	178.2	18	17.7	24	0.0	24
Ireland	662.6	24	154.5	21	29.4	14	6.1	18
Israel	802.2	22	259.3	8	32.3	12	7.3	12
Italy	887.0	18	219.2	11	28.6	15	9.9	2
Japan	_	_	_	_	_	_	4.8	22
Korea	1,509.8	1	161.3	20	8.9	27	_	_
Latvia	1,205.2	10	327.7	2	20.6	22	0.0	24
Lithuania	904.7	16	290.3	6	39.6	7	7.8	9
Luxembourg	1,430.5	2	125.8	24	17.6	25	_	_
Netherlands	1,205.6	9	229.1	10	52.5	2	9.3	4
New Zealand	372.6	27	119.9	26	29.5	13	6.1	18
Norway	397.6	26	203.9	14	22.5	20	7.7	10
Portugal	915.6	15	99.7	27	22.3	21	3.5	23
Slovenia	893.8	17	207.1	13	33.1	11	5.8	21
Spain	853.6	19	123.8	25	14.5	26	7.6	11
Sweden	1,162.2	12	181.4	17	24.7	19	8.5	6
Switzerland	451.7	25	317.6	4	38.4	8	8.8	5
United Kingdom	833.9	21	131.9	23	20.1	23	6.1	18
OECD Average	980.6		214.2		31.4		6.8	

Table A7: Use of resources, by specialty, per 100,000 population, 2021

Source: OECD 2023; calculations by authors

Appendectomy		Cholecystectomy		Repair of inguinal hernia		Hip replacement		Knee replacement	
Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 27)	Per 100,000	Rank (out of 26)
165.3	2	235.4	1	176.1	11	197.5	15	251.6	3
136.0	10	191.6	7	253.3	1	287.3	3	195.3	5
142.6	9	228.3	3	206.7	5	271.3	5	163.6	9
109.5	20	188.7	10	145.7	17	152.7	21	151.9	11
_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_	_
135.5	11	167.9	15	133.1	20	197.9	14	108.2	19
128.8	15	138.8	21	153.8	15	235.9	9	173.4	6
153.4	4	176.9	12	132.8	21	171.7	20	93.8	22
147.9	6	174.5	14	178.1	9	283.5	4	260.3	2
105.0	22	190.6	8	214.7	4	245.8	8	167.7	7
134.4	12	229.3	2	177.8	10	300.8	2	201.2	4
_	_	-	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
145.2	8	213.4	6	217.4	3	223.1	10	_	_
133.1	14	125.0	26	103.6	24	221.7	11	118.6	16
105.5	21	136.8	23	178.5	8	73.0	26	72.4	25
58.4	27	157.6	19	162.3	13	194.2	16	126.9	13
_	_	_	-	_	_	_	_	_	_
156.9	3	178.6	11	65.2	27	64.3	27	150.0	12
134.1	13	159.5	17	111.0	22	151.8	22	64.6	26
152.0	5	222.3	4	156.6	14	188.0	17	73.7	24
103.2	23	163.4	16	200.2	6	206.7	13	166.5	8
95.0	24	159.4	18	167.1	12	253.9	7	155.3	10
125.9	17	132.8	25	88.1	26	146.9	23	102.5	20
147.5	7	132.9	24	108.3	23	255.3	6	121.5	14
75.4	26	142.1	20	136.7	19	108.3	25	75.4	23
118.1	18	189.6	9	153.3	16	175.2	19	111.8	17
114.4	19	175.8	13	194.9	7	129.1	24	120.9	15
127.1	16	136.9	22	142.0	18	215.2	12	99.7	21
167.6	1	216.7	5	248.6	2	322.6	1	273.3	1
85.1	25	115.9	27	92.5	25	180.3	18	108.4	18
126.0		173.4		159.2		202.0		142.6	

Table A7, continued

References

Arah, Onyebuchi A., Gert P. Westert, Jeremy Hurst, and Niek S. Klazinga (2006). A Conceptual Framework for the OECD Healthcare Quality Indicators Project. *International Journal for Quality in Healthcare* (September): 5–13.

Barua, Bacchus (2013). Provincial Healthcare Index 2013. Fraser Institute.

Barua, Bacchus (2015). *Waiting Your Turn: Wait Times for Health Care in Canada, 2015 Report.* Fraser Institute.

Barua, Bacchus, and Mackenzie Moir (2020). *Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries, 2020*. Fraser Institute.

Barua, Bacchus, Milagros Palacios, and Joel Emes (2016). *The Sustainability of Health Care Spending in Canada*. Fraser Institute.

Barua, Bacchus, Ingrid Timmermans, Ian Nason, and Nadeem Esmail (2016). *Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries, 2016*. Fraser Institute.

Barua, Bacchus, Sazid Hasan, and Ingrid Timmermans (2017). *Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries, 2017.* Fraser Institute.

Björnberg, Arne (2012). *Euro Health Consumer Index 2012 Report*. Health Consumer Powerhouse.

Buckley, Claire M., Karen Kearns, Patricia M. Kearney, Ivan J. Perry, and Colin P. Bradley (2014). Lower Extremity Amputation in People with Diabetes as a Marker of Quality of Diabetes Care. *Clin Res Foot Ankle* S3: 009; doi:10.4172/2329-910X.S3-009. http://www.esciencecentral.org/journals/lowerextremity-amputation-in-people-with-diabetes-as-a-marker-of-quality-of-diabetescare-2329-910X.S3-009.pdf, as of November 7, 2023.

Bunker, J.P., H.S. Frazier, and F. Mosteller (1995). The Role of Medical Care in Determining Health: Creating an Inventory on Benefits. In B.J. Amick, S. Levine, A.R. Tarlov, and D. Chapman Walsh (eds.), *Society and Health* (Oxford University Press): 305–341. Canadian Institute for Health Information [CIHI] (2011a). *Health Care Cost Drivers: The Facts*. Canadian Institute for Health Information.

Canadian Institute for Health Information [CIHI] (2011b). *Health Indicators* 2011. Canadian Institute for Health Information.

Canadian Institute for Health Information [CIHI] (2011c). *Learning from the Best: Benchmarking Canada's Health System*. CIHI.

Canadian Institute for Health Information [CIHI] (2021a). *How Canada Compares Results from the Commonwealth Fund's 2020 International Health Policy Survey of the General Population in 11 Countries.* https://www.cihi.ca/sites/default/files/document/how-canada-compares-cmwf-survey-2020-chartbook-en.pdf>, as of October 29, 2021.

Canadian Institute for Health Information [CIHI] (2021b). *National Health Expenditure Trends*, 2021 – *Snapshot*. CIHI. https://www.cihi.ca/en/national-health-expenditure-trends-2021-snapshot, as of October 12, 2022.

Centre for International Statistics (1998). Health Spending and Health Status: An International Comparison. In *Canada Health Action: Building on the Legacy*, vol. 4 of papers commissioned by the National Forum on Health, Striking a Balance: Healthcare Systems in Canada and Elsewhere (National Forum on Health; Health Canada; Canadian Government Publishing, Public Works and Government Services Canada; Editions MultiMondes): 153–172.

Chamot, E., A. Charvet, and T.V. Perneger (2009). Overuse of Mammography during the First Round of an Organized Breast Cancer Screening Programme. *Journal of Evaluation in Clinical Practice* 15, 4 (August): 620–625.

Commonwealth Fund (2015). International Profiles of Health Care Systems 2014.

Commonwealth Fund (2017). International Profiles of Health Care Systems.

Cremieux, Pierre-Yves, Marie-Claude Meilleur, Pierre Ouellette, Patrick Petit, Martin Zelder, and Ken Potvin (2005). Public and Private Pharmaceutical Spending as Determinants of Health Outcomes in Canada. *Health Economics* 14: 107–116.

Day, Brian (2013). The Consequences of Waiting. In Steven Globerman, ed., *Reducing Wait Times for Health Care: What Canada Can Learn from Theory and International Experience* (Fraser Institute): 43–75.

Esmail, Nadeem (2009). *Waiting Your Turn. Hospital Waiting Lists in Canada* (19th Edition). Fraser Institute.

Esmail, Nadeem, and Michael Walker (2008). *How Good Is Canadian Health-care? 2008 Report: An International Comparison of Healthcare Systems*. Fraser Institute.

Esmail, Nadeem, and Dominika Wrona (2008). *Medical Technology in Canada*. Fraser Institute.

Figueras, Josep, Richard B. Saltman, Reinhard Busse, and Hans F.W. Dubois (2004). Patterns and Performance in Social Health Insurance Systems. In Saltman, Richard B., Reinhard Busse, and Josep Figueras (eds.), *Social Health Insurance Systems in Western Europe* (European Observatory on Health Systems and Policies Series, Open University Press): 81–140. <http://www.euro.who.int/__data/assets/pdf_file/0010/98443/E84968.pdf>, as of November 7, 2023.

Frech III, H.E., and Richard D. Miller, Jr. (1999). *The Productivity of Health-care and Drugs: An International Comparison*. American Enterprise Institute Press.

Grenon, André (2001). *Health Expenditure in Canada by Age and Sex:* 1980-81 to 2000-01. Health Canada. http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/english/care/expenditures/exp_age_sex.html, as of November 7, 2023.

Kelly, Edward, and Jeremy Hurst (2006). *Healthcare Quality Indicators Project: Conceptual Framework Paper*. OECD Health Working Papers No. 23. OECD.

Kleinke, J.D. (2001). The Price of Progress: Prescription Drugs in the Healthcare Market. *Health Affairs* 20, 5: 43–60.

Korenstein, Deborah, Raphael Falk, Elizabeth A. Howell, Tara Bishop, and Salomeh Keyhani (2012). Less Is More. Overuse of Healthcare Services in the United States. An Understudied Problem. *Archives of Internal Medecine* 172, 2: 171–178.

Lichtenberg, Frank R., and Suchin Virabhak (2002). *Pharmaceutical-Embodied Technical Progress, Longevity, and Quality of Life: Drugs as "Equipment for Your Health"*. NBER Working Paper W9351. National Bureau of Economic Research.

McKeown, T. (1976). *The Role of Medicine—Dream, Mirage or Nemesis?* Rock Carling Lecture, Nuffield Trust.

Murray, C.J., and J. Frenk (2000). A Framework for Assessing the Performance of Health Systems. *Bulletin of the World Health Organization* 78, 6: 717–731.

Morgan, Steven, and Colleen Cunningham (2011). Population Aging and the Determinants of Healthcare Expenditures: The Case of Hospital, Medical and Pharmaceutical Care in British Columbia, 1996 to 2006. *Healthcare Policy* 7, 1: 2,011.

Nolte, Ellen, and Martin McKee (2004). *Does Healthcare Save Lives*? The Nuffield Trust, London. http://www.nuffieldtrust.org.uk/sites/files/nuffield/ publication/does-healthcare-save-lives-mar04.pdf>, as of March 10, 2016.

Nolte, Ellen, and Martin McKee (2011). Variations in Amenable Mortality— Trends in 16 High-Income Nations. *Health Policy* 103, 1: 47–52.

Or, Zeynep (1997). *Determinants of Health Outcomes in Industrialized Countries: A Pooled, Timeseries Analysis.* The OECD Working Party on Social Policy Ad Hoc Meeting of Experts in Health Statistics, Document No. 8. OECD.

Or, Zeynep (2001). *Exploring the Effects of Health Care on Mortality across OECD Countries*. Labour Market and Social Policy—Occasional Papers 46.

Or, Zeynep, Jia Wang, and Dean Jamison (2005). International Differences in the Impact of Doctors on Health: A Multilevel Analysis of OECD Countries. *Journal of Health Economics* 24: 531–560.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2011). *Health at a Glance 2011: OECD Indicators*. OECD.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2015). *Health at a Glance 2015: OECD Indicators.* OECD.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2017). *Health at a Glance 2017: OECD Indicators*. OECD.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2019). *Health at a Glance 2019*. https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/social-issues-migration-health/health-at-a-glance-2019_4dd50c09-en, as of November 1, 2022.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development Definition Library (2020). *Avoidable Mortality*. http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/fileview2. aspx?IDFile=45e44f0c-cc88-4a22-bc52-13114f8ba860>, as of November 6, 2020.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2021). *Health at a Glance 2021.* http://www.oecd.org/health/health-systems/health-at-a-glance-19991312.htm>, as of October 12, 2022.

Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] (2022). *Total Hospital Beds and Breakdown by Function of Health Care*. http://stats.oecd.org/wbos/fileview2.aspx?IDFile=261f59d6-0bbe-4c86-ae5c-0dccd5f59f3e [download], as of November 2, 2022.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] (2023). *OECD Health Statistics 2023*. OECD.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD] and Eurostat (2022). *Avoidable Mortality: OECD/Eurostat Lists of Preventable and Treatable Causes of Death* (January 2022 version). https://www.oecd.org/health/health-systems/Avoidable-mortality-2019-Joint-OECD-Eurostat-List-preventable-causes-of-death.pdf>, as of November 13th, 2023

Pinsonnault, Paul-Andre (2011). *Effects of Population Aging on Healthcare Costs: Crunching Some Numbers*. Weekly Economic Letter. Economy and Strategy Group and National Bank Financial Group.

Rovere, Mark, and Brett J. Skinner (2012). *Value for Money from Health Insurance Systems in Canada and the OECD, 2012 edition*. Fraser Institute.

Schneider, Eric C., Arnav Shah, Michelle M. Doty, Roosa Tikkanen, Katharine Fields, and Reginald D. Williams II (2021). *Mirror, Mirror 2021: Reflecting Poorly*. The Commonwealth Fund. https://doi.org/10.26099/01dv-h208, as of October 29, 2021.

Seeman, Neil (2003). Canada's Missing News—Part II: Lower Infant Mortality Rankings. *Fraser Forum* (March): 20–21.

Skinner, Brett J. (2009). *Canadian Health Policy Failures: What's Wrong? Who Gets Hurt? Why Nothing Changes.* Fraser Institute.

Skinner, Brett J., and Mark Rovere (2011). *The Misguided War against Medicines 2011*. Fraser Institute.

Statistics Canada (2006). *Access to Healthcare Services in Canada: January to December 2005*. Catalogue No. 82-575-XIE. Statistics Canada.

Tchouaket, Éric N., Paul A. Lamarchel, Lise Goulet, and André-Pierre Contandriopoulos (2012). Healthcare System Performance of 27 OECD Countries. *International Journal of Health Planning and Management* 27, 2 (April/ June): 104–129. http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1002/hpm.1110/full (subscription required); https://doi.org/10.1002/hpm.1110/full (sub-

Watson, Diane E., and Kimberlyn M. McGrail (2009). More Doctors or Better Care? *Healthcare Policy* 5, 1: 26–31.

World Bank (2023). *World Bank Country and Lending Groups*. https://datahelpdesk.worldbank.org/knowledgebase/articles/906519-world-bank-country-and-lending-groups, as of November 7, 2023.

World Health Organization [WHO] (2000). *The World Health Report: Health Systems: Improving Performance*. http://www.who.int/entity/whr/2000/en/whr00_en.pdf, as of November 7, 2023.

World Health Organization [WHO] (2021). Global Health Observatory Data Repository. ">http://apps.who.int/gho/data/view.main.HALEXv?lang

About the Authors

Mackenzie Moir

Mackenzie Moir is a Policy Analyst at the Fraser Institute. He holds a Bachelor of Science in Nursing from York University and a Master of Science in Health Policy and Research from the University of Alberta. Mr Moir has previous clinical experience and has provided direct care in general medicine, palliative care, cardiology, oncology, and neurology settings. In addition to several academic publications, his commentaries have



appeared in *University Affairs*, the *Financial Post*, and *Globe and Mail*. His research focuses on the performance of health-care systems, patient choice, and health-related quality of life.

Bacchus Barua

Bacchus Barua is the Director of the Fraser Institute's Centre for Health Policy Studies. He completed his B.A. (Honours) in Economics at the University of Delhi (Ramjas College) and received an M.A. in Economics from Simon Fraser University. Mr. Barua has conducted research on a range of key health-care topics including hospital performance, access to new pharmaceuticals, the sustainability of health-care spending,



the impact of aging on health-care expenditures, and international comparisons of health-care systems. He also designed the *Provincial Healthcare Index* (2013), co-led the creation of *Comparing Performance of Universal Health Care Countries* (2016) and co-authored the Fraser Institute's annual survey of wait times, *Waiting Your Turn*, for over a decade (2010–2022). In 2022, Bacchus was invited to provide testimony as part of a panel of witnesses for the House of Commons Standing Committee on Health (HESA). Mr. Barua is a frequent commentator on radio and television, and his articles have appeared in wellknown news outlets including the *National Post, Wall Street Journal, Globe and Mail, Maclean's*, and *forbes.com*.

Acknowledgments

The authors wish to thank the Lotte & John Hecht Memorial Foundation for its generous support of this project. They would also like to acknowledge the contributions of Ian Nason, Nadeem Esmail, and Ingrid Timmermans to the original (2016) version of this report upon which this update is based, David Jacques and Sazid Hasan for their assistance with subsequent updates, as well as the helpful comments and insights of several anonymous reviewers.

Any remaining errors or oversights are the sole responsibility of the authors. As the researchers have worked independently, the views and conclusions expressed in this study do not necessarily reflect those of the Board of Directors of the Fraser Institute, the staff, or supporters.

About the Fraser Institute

Our mission is to improve the quality of life for Canadians, their families and future generations by studying, measuring and broadly communicating the effects of government policies, entrepreneurship and choice on their well-being.

Notre mission consiste à améliorer la qualité de vie des Canadiens et des générations à venir en étudiant, en mesurant et en diffusant les effets des politiques gouvernementales, de l'entrepreneuriat et des choix sur leur bien-être.

Publishing Information

Distribution

These publications are available from <http://www.fraserinstitute.org> in Portable Document Format (PDF) and can be read with Adobe Acrobat[®] or Adobe Reader[®], versions 7 or later. Adobe Acrobat Reader[®] DC, the most recent version, is available free of charge from Adobe Systems Inc. at <http://get.adobe. com/reader/>. Readers having trouble viewing or printing our PDF files using applications from other manufacturers (e.g., Apple's Preview) should use Reader[®] or Acrobat[®].

Ordering publications

To order printed publications from the Fraser Institute, please contact us via e-mail: sales@fraserinstitute.org; telephone: 604.688.0221, ext. 580 or, toll free, 1.800.665.3558, ext. 580; or fax: 604.688.8539.

Media

For media enquiries, please contact our communications department via e-mail: communications@fraserinstitute.org; telephone: 604.714.4582.

Copyright

Copyright © 2023 by the Fraser Institute. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced in any manner whatsoever without written permission except in the case of brief passages quoted in critical articles and reviews.

ISBN 978-0-88975-759-2

Citation

Mackenzie Moir and Bacchus Barua (2023). *Comparing Performance of Univer*sal Health Care Countries, 2023. Fraser Institute. http://www.fraserinstitute.org.

Supporting the Fraser Institute

To learn how to support the Fraser Institute, please contact us via post: Development Department, Fraser Institute, Fourth Floor, 1770 Burrard Street, Vancouver, British Columbia, V6J 3G7, Canada; telephone: toll-free to 1.800.665.3558, ext. 548; e-mail: development@fraserinstitute.org; or visit our webpage: <http://www.fraserinstitute.org/support-us/overview.aspx>.

Purpose, Funding, and Independence

The Fraser Institute provides a useful public service. We report objective information about the economic and social effects of current public policies, and we offer evidence-based research and education about policy options that can improve the quality of life.

The Institute is a non-profit organization. Our activities are funded by charitable donations, unrestricted grants, ticket sales, and sponsorships from events, the licensing of products for public distribution, and the sale of publications.

All research is subject to rigorous review by external experts, and is conducted and published separately from the Institute's Board of Directors and its donors.

The opinions expressed by authors are their own, and do not necessarily reflect those of the Institute, its Board of Directors, its donors and supporters, or its staff. This publication in no way implies that the Fraser Institute, its directors, or staff are in favour of, or oppose the passage of, any bill; or that they support or oppose any particular political party or candidate.

As a healthy part of public discussion among fellow citizens who desire to improve the lives of people through better public policy, the Institute welcomes evidence-focused scrutiny of the research we publish, including verification of data sources, replication of analytical methods, and intelligent debate about the practical effects of policy recommendations.

Peer review—validating the accuracy of our research

The Fraser Institute maintains a rigorous peer review process for its research. New research, major research projects, and substantively modified research conducted by the Fraser Institute are reviewed by experts with a recognized expertise in the topic area being addressed. Whenever possible, external review is a blind process. Updates to previously reviewed research or new editions of previously reviewed research are not reviewed unless the update includes substantive or material changes in the methodology.

The review process is overseen by the directors of the Institute's research departments who are responsible for ensuring all research published by the Institute passes through the appropriate peer review. If a dispute about the recommendations of the reviewers should arise during the Institute's peer review process, the Institute has an Editorial Advisory Board, a panel of scholars from Canada, the United States, and Europe to whom it can turn for help in resolving the dispute.

Editorial Advisory Board

Members

Prof. Terry L. Anderson	Prof. Herbert G. Grubel
Prof. Robert Barro	Prof. James Gwartney
Prof. Jean-Pierre Centi	Prof. Ronald W. Jones
Prof. John Chant	Dr. Jerry Jordan
Prof. Bev Dahlby	Prof. Ross McKitrick
Prof. Erwin Diewert	Prof. Michael Parkin
Prof. Stephen Easton	Prof. Friedrich Schneider
Prof. J.C. Herbert Emery	Prof. Lawrence B. Smith
Prof. Jack L. Granatstein	Dr. Vito Tanzi

Past members

Prof. Armen Alchian*	Prof. F.G. Pennance*
Prof. Michael Bliss*	Prof. George Stigler*†
Prof. James M. Buchanan*†	Sir Alan Walters*
Prof. Friedrich A. Hayek* ⁺	Prof. Edwin G. West*
Prof. H.G. Johnson*	

* deceased; [†] Nobel Laureate