Understanding Cross-country Differences in Health Status and Expenditures: Health prices matter

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### Motivation : well-known stylized facts

- Large differences in how much countries spend on health
- Differences in health outcomes

1.000 0.975 -1.000 0.975 -1.000 0.975 -1.000 0.925 -0.850 -0.825 -0.825 -0.825 -0.800 -0.06 0.08 0.10 0.12 0.14 0.16 GDP share health expenditures

### Our contribution

### Objective

To measure the **size**, the **impact** and the **welfare costs** of health price differences across OECD countries

### Method

A structural approach because health prices are not observable

### ► Theory :

- Heterogeneous-agent GE model à la Aiyagari (1994)
- with a health production function as in Grossman (1972)
- Introduction of health prices as a key mechanism that shapes health outcomes and health expenditures

### What we do

Structural estimation using a sample of 8 countries g

 $g \in \{DE, DK, FR, IT, NL, SE, SP, US\}$ 

Health price relative to the U.S. : Health price gaps

- After controlling for key country-specific features
  - $\rightarrow$  TFP gaps relative to the US (Macro)
  - $\rightarrow$  Others differences (Micro) :
    - health risks (health production function),
    - income risks,
    - health insurance (co-insurance rate)

### What we deduce

- Counterfactual analysis : to compute the U.S. equilibrium if the health price is equal to the average European price.
  - $\rightarrow\,$  from the estimation of the price differences to an original measure of there impacts on health expenditures, health status and health inequalities.
- Welfare analysis : to compute the extra cost of living induced by high health prices
  - $\rightarrow\,$  from the WTP to an original extension of the Lifetime cost-of-living index to dynamic-stochastic models.

## Plan

- Stylized facts : how to explain differences in health expenditures? Why do health price differences matter?
- Model presentation
- Model estimation
- Model implications :
  - counterfactuals
  - welfare analysis

## 1. Decomposition of Growth in Health Expenditures

### Empirical evidence 1970-2007

- Classical view : Differences in GDP growth and population aging can explained cross-country differences in health expenditures.
- We show that these explanatory variables can only account for a fraction of the differences

Estimate the regression (country g, year t)

 $\log(pm_{g,t}) = a\log(y_{g,t}) + b\log(p65_{g,t}^{+}) + c_g + \eta_t + e_{g,t}$ 

- health expenditures per capita pmg,t
- real GDP per capita y<sub>g,t</sub>
- the 65+ population share  $p65_{g,t}^+$
- For each country, we can decompose growth into a component due to economic growth, population aging and a residual

## 1. Growth Accounting

LT growth rates (%)	DE	DK	FR	NL	SE	SP	US	Europe Av.
GDP growth	1.1	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.9	1.8	1.5
Pop. Aging	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.4	1.0	0.4	0.7
Residual	1.0	0.1	1.4	0.5	0.2	1.5	1.9	1.1

From  $\log(pm_{g,t}) = a \log(y_{g,t}) + b \log(p65^+_{g,t}) + c_g + \eta_t + e_{g,t}$ . We obtain estimates  $\hat{a} = 0.90$  and  $\hat{b} = 0.70$ . 1970-2007

- Economic growth  $\approx$  1.1 to 1.9 percentage points long-term annual growth in health expenditures for each country
- Population aging contributes much less and the contribution is similar across countries
- The residual component varies the most across countries and for which the U.S. has the highest growth

2. Excess Health Inflation : Explaining the Residual

• We look at data on inflation in health prices  $\pi_m$ 

- BLS, Eurostat, 1996-2007
- We compute health inflation  $\pi_m$  minus CPI inflation  $\pi$  :

excess health inflation

We compute counterfactual health expenditure

• 
$$s = \frac{pm}{y}$$
 in data

- ► counterfactual  $\hat{s} = \frac{\overline{pm}}{y} = p_{1996} \frac{m}{y}$  under the assumption of zero health inflation
- compare s to ŝ to infer the contribution of excess health inflation to growth in health expenditures

## 2. Inflation in Health Prices and GDP Share of Health Expenditures

(%)	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP	US	Europe Av.
health $\overline{\pi}_m$	2.45	1.29	1.81	2.33	2.98	2.40	1.31	3.62	2.10
overall $\overline{\pi}$	1.36	1.80	1.55	2.059	2.06	1.48	2.63	2.31	1.81
$\overline{\pi}_m - \overline{\pi}$	1.08	-0.50	0.25	0.274	0.92	0.92	-1.31	1.31	0.28
$s = p \frac{m}{v}$	10.62	9.34	10.62	8.25	9.24	9.03	8.12	15.03	9.55
$\widehat{s} = p_{1996} \frac{m}{v}$	9.37	10.02	10.43	7.82	8.13	8.25	9.24	12.41	9.16
<u><u>s-ŝ</u></u>	13.39	-6.81	1.83	5.50	13.68	9.46	-12.14	21.10	4.22

Suggestive evidence that health prices matter

Limitation : this is inflation, not relative prices across countries 

Price and Efficiency Use and Supply of Health Care R&D Activities and Outcomes

# 3. Impact on Health Differences : Prevalence of Various Health Conditions (SHARE & HRS 2004)

	hyper-					total		Life
	tension	diab.	lung	heart	stroke	cond.	ADLs	exp.(50)
DE	0.339	0.105	0.043	0.092	0.035	0.613	0.069	31.14
DK	0.281	0.069	0.060	0.065	0.040	0.516	0.070	30.15
FR	0.256	0.089	0.049	0.105	0.025	0.524	0.073	32.56
IT	0.359	0.115	0.064	0.087	0.026	0.651	0.076	32.66
NL	0.240	0.077	0.061	0.092	0.035	0.506	0.052	31.22
SE	0.264	0.081	0.027	0.114	0.031	0.517	0.056	32.11
SP	0.290	0.124	0.045	0.078	0.018	0.556	0.070	32.26
EU	0.310	0.104	0.050	0.092	0.028	0.584	0.070	31.96
US	0.440	0.149	0.070	0.159	0.046	0.865	0.112	30.65
Δ	0.130	0.045	0.020	0.067	0.018	0.281	0.042	-1.31
(%)	41.9	43.8	40.9	73.3	62.1	48.1	59.2	-4.1

In relative terms, the prevalence of various health conditions is 40.9 to 73.3% higher in the U.S. than in Europe.

### Putting the Pieces Together

Consider a static model for households  $(g \in \{US, EU\}) 
ightarrow ext{health risk}$ 

For each income level  $y_{g,i}$ ,  $\forall i = 1, ..., 4$  (quartiles),

$$\max_{\substack{m_{g,i} \\ m_{g,i}}} \left\{ \frac{(y_{g,i} - p_g m_{g,i})^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \phi \left[1 - \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_0 m_{g,i})\right] \right\}$$
$$m_{g,i} \leftarrow p_g(y_{g,i} - p_g m_{g,i})^{-\sigma} = \alpha_0 \phi \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_0 m_{g,i})$$

We get the following mapping to aggregate moments :

$$s_{g} \equiv \frac{p_{g} m_{g}}{y_{g}} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i} m_{g,i}(\phi, \alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1,g})$$
$$\overline{\pi}_{g} = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{i} (1 - \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_{0} m_{g,i}(\phi, \alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1,g})))$$
$$\frac{\overline{\pi}_{g,4}}{\overline{\pi}_{g,1}} = \frac{1 - \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_{0} m_{g,4}(\phi, \alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1,g}))}{1 - \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_{0} m_{g,1}(\phi, \alpha_{0}, \alpha_{1,g}))}.$$

### Putting the Pieces Together

- Consider 4 income quartiles in each country  $\{y_{g,i}\}_{i=1}^4$
- $y_{US}$  normalized to unity,  $y_{EU} = 0.78y_{US}$
- We set  $\sigma = 2$ , a value used by Hall and Jones (2007)
- For the U.S. where *p* is normalized to unity

$$\left\{s, \overline{\pi}, \frac{\overline{\pi}_4}{\overline{\pi}_1}\right\}_{US} = \{0.15, 0.89, 1.27\} \Rightarrow \{\phi, \alpha_0, \alpha_{1, US}\} = \{2.95, 7.19, 1.47\}$$

For Europe, given  $\{\phi, \alpha_0\}$ 

 $\{s,\overline{\pi}\}_{EU} = \{0.09, 0.93\} \Rightarrow \{p_{EU}, \alpha_{1,EU}\} = \{0.54, 1.86\}$ 

### Results :

▶ 
$$p_{EU} < p_{US}$$
 Higher price in the US  
▶  $\alpha_{1,US} < \alpha_{1,EU}$  More risky behaviors in the US  
▶  $\frac{\overline{\pi}_{4,EU}}{\overline{\pi}_{1,EU}} = 1.13 < \frac{\overline{\pi}_{4,US}}{\overline{\pi}_{1,US}} = 1.27$  Larger inequalities in the US

### Model : Preferences

A general equilibrium model à la Aiyagari (1994) including a health production function as in Grossman (1972).

- Agents have infinite lifetime horizon
- health *h* takes **2 values** : h = 1 good health, h = 0 bad health
- utility is additive in consumption c and health h :

$$u(c,h)=rac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma}+\phi h.$$

with utility benefit  $\phi > 0$  of good health.

• Agents of all countries share the same preferences  $(\sigma, \phi, \beta)$ 

### Model : Health "Production"

The probability of being in good health next period is

$$\pi(h'=1|h,m)=\max\left\{0,1-e^{-(lpha_0m+lpha_{1h})}
ight\}$$

- m use of medical services
- $\triangleright \alpha_0$  return of health services on health outcome
- α<sub>1h</sub> next period probability of good health depends on current health status h
- We expect  $\alpha_{11} > \alpha_{10}$  : advantage of being in good health
- α<sub>1h</sub> are country specific to account for differences across countries of risky behaviors.
- α<sub>0</sub> is common to all countries : each new treatment is integrated by individuals in the same way all over the world

### Model : Resource Constraint

Wealth dynamics :

$$\mathsf{a}' = \mathsf{a}(1+\mathsf{r}) + \mathsf{we}(1- au) - \mathsf{c} - \mu \mathsf{p}\mathsf{m}$$

• Borrowing constraint,  $a' \ge 0$ .

country specific parameters/variables

- Earnings risk *e* follows AR(1) with parameters  $(\rho_e, \sigma_e)$
- Health insurance : τ and co-insurance μ
- Price of health services (estimated and country-specific) : p
- The interest rate r, the wage per unit of human capital w and tax rate \(\tau\) are determined at the general equilibrium.

### Model : Consumer Problem

The consumer solves :

$$V(a, h, e) = \max_{m,c} \left\{ \frac{c^{1-\sigma}}{1-\sigma} + \phi h + \beta \sum_{e'} \sum_{h'} \widetilde{\pi}(e'|e) \pi(h'|h, m) V(a', h', e') \right\}$$
  
s.t.
$$\begin{cases} a' = a(1+r) + we(1-\tau) - c - \mu pm \\ a' \ge 0 \\ \pi(h'|h, m) = \max\{0, 1-e^{-(\alpha_0 m + \alpha_{1h})}\} \\ \widetilde{\pi} : e' = \rho_e e + \sigma_e \epsilon \quad \epsilon \sim N(0, 1) \end{cases}$$

## Model : Health service market

Microfoundations for differences in health prices

- Agents on the health market are
  - ► Physicians → information rent
  - ▶ providers of medical services → Cournot competition
  - ▶ payers (or insurers) → perfect competition

 $\underbrace{b_h \to b = zb_h}_{\text{Physicians}} \to \underbrace{p_p b \to p_r m_r(i)}_{\text{Providers}} \to \underbrace{p_r m_r(i) \to p m_r(i)}_{\text{Payers}}$ 

- 3 sources of inefficiency :
  - ► Information frictions ⇔ The quality of the health service is not perfectly observed by patients (Arrow (1963))
  - Imperfect competition among providers of medical services
  - Administrative costs
- Profits induced by rents are used to pay fixed costs and entry costs : no dividend is paid to households

### Model : Inefficiency on health services market

Assuming linear production functions on health market,



- $\zeta \in (0,1)$  : probability to detect a shirking medical care provider
- P : number of providers of medical services
- $\iota \in (0,1)$  : administrative cost
- > z : TFP of the health sector (thus  $\frac{1}{z}$  is the marginal cost)

 $\{1/P; \zeta; \iota; z\}$  are country specific

 $\Rightarrow$  health price is country specific

### Model : Production of Goods

Production Y is CRS using aggregate capital K and labor N as inputs :

$$Y = AK^{\alpha}N^{1-\alpha}$$

- Capital depreciation rate is  $\delta_k$
- Input prices are determined on competitive markets (r and w).
- A captures technological progress incorporated in production sector (TFP).
- $\{A, \delta_k, \alpha\}$  are country-specific.

### Solving the model

(a.) Factor inputs, tax revenues, and transfers are obtained aggregating over households :

$$K = \sum_{e} \sum_{h} \sum_{a} a\lambda(a, h, e), \quad N = \sum_{j} e_{j}N_{j}$$

(b.) Given K and N, marginal productivities give r and w. (c.) The price of health services is  $p = \frac{1}{\zeta(1-\iota)z(1-1/P)}$  (No profit). (d.) Given  $r, w, p, \tau$ , households solve their decision problem. (e.)  $\tau$  adjusts the health insurance budget • Health insurance budget (f.) The goods market clears :

$$Y = \delta_k K + \sum_e \sum_h \sum_a [c(a, h, e) + pm(a, h, e)]\lambda(a, h, e)$$

where  $\sum_{e} \sum_{h} \sum_{a} pm(a, h, e)\lambda(a, h, e) =$  Health Supply (g.) The measure of households  $\lambda(a, h, e)$  is stationary.

### Estimating the model

- ▶ 8 countries : = {DE, DK, FR, IT, NL, SE, SP, US}
- Calibrating auxiliary parameters using external information :
  - common to all countries :  $\beta$
  - country-specific : co-insurance rate  $\mu$ , income risk  $(\rho_e, \sigma_e)$ , technology  $(\alpha, \delta_k)$  Auxiliary
- Method of Simulated Moments : find parameter values to minimize distance between moments from model and data

• We normalize  $A_{US} = 1$  and  $p_{US} = 1$ 

- Empirical strategy : 2-step procedure
  - US data
  - European data

### Moments of Simulated Moments

The vector of estimated parameters is :

$$\Theta_{US} = \{\sigma, \phi, \alpha_0, \alpha_{10,US}, \alpha_{11,US}\}$$
  
$$\Theta_{g \neq US} = \{\alpha_{10,g}, \alpha_{11,g}, A_g, p_g | \sigma, \phi, \alpha_0\}$$

Θ is such that :

$$\min_{\Theta_{g \neq US}} \left( \left[ m_{S}(\Theta_{g \neq US}) - m_{\mathsf{data},g \neq US} \right]' W_{g \neq US} \left[ m_{S}(\Theta_{g \neq US}) - m_{\mathsf{data},g \neq US} \right] \right)$$
  
s.t.  $\Theta_{US} = \operatorname{argmax} \left( \left[ m_{S}(\Theta_{US}) - m_{\mathsf{data},US} \right]' W_{US} \left[ m_{S}(\Theta_{US}) - m_{\mathsf{data},US} \right] \right)$ 

The constraint provides  $\Theta_{US}$  and thus  $\{\sigma, \phi, \alpha_0\}$  taken as given for the estimation of  $\Theta_{g \neq US}$ .

- W<sub>g</sub> is a diagonal matrix with elements equal to the inverse of the variance of each moment.
  - To compute these variances, we use the bootstrap method for moments involving microdata, and time-series variation for aggregate moments.

## Moments *m*data

Identifying moments  $m_{data}$  for each country g

$$\begin{split} m_{\mathsf{data},US} &= \left\{ C/Y, s, \tilde{\pi}_{1|0}, \tilde{\pi}_{1|1}, \overline{\pi}_2, \overline{\pi}_3, \overline{\pi}_4 \right\} \\ m_{\mathsf{data},g \neq US} &= \left\{ \tilde{Y}, s, \tilde{\pi}_{1|0}, \tilde{\pi}_{1|1}, \overline{\pi}_2, \overline{\pi}_3, \overline{\pi}_4 \right\} \end{split}$$

- Ratio of consumption to GDP (C/Y) : Penn World Tables
- Relative GDP per capita to the US  $(\tilde{Y}_g)$  : OECD
- Share of health spending in GDP  $(s = \frac{pm}{Y})$  : OECD
- Transition rate from bad to good health π
  <sub>1|0</sub> and good to good health π
  <sub>1|1</sub> : SHARE-2004/2006 and HRS-2004/2006.
- ► Health-income gradient π : Fraction of individuals in good health by net income quartiles, SHARE 2004 and HRS 2004



### Estimation results : Common Parameters

σ	$\phi$	$\alpha_0$
2.105	0.397	0.161
(0.048)	(0.006)	(0.009)

- \$\phi\$ : individuals are on average willing to accept a loss of 1% of their permanent consumption to increase their probability of being in good health by 1 percentage point De Nardi et al (2018) : 3%
- Elasticity of *pm* to the co-insurance μ : our model -0.27 RAND Health Insurance Experiment : -0.2 to -0.3
- Income elasticity of pm : 0.5 Acemoglu et al (2013) : 0.55 (std=0.230) to 0.8 (std=0.155)

## Estimation results : Country-specific Parameters

	US	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP
α <sub>10</sub>	-0.988	-1.282	-1.602	-1.099	-0.831	-1.390	-1.394	0.002
	(0.069)	(0.069)	(0.025)	(0.009)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.047)	(0.061)
$\alpha_{11}$	3.511	4.029	4.273	3.786	3.917	3.992	4.311	3.434
	(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.007)	(0.020)	(0.027)	(0.004)	(0.053)	(0.024)
p Pus	1	0.836	0.888	0.604	0.695	0.657	0.891	0.642
105	-	(0.072)	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.019)	(0.111)	(0.007)	(0.105)
$\frac{A}{Aus}$	1	1.011	1.260	0.922	0.613	0.989	0.795	0.795
05	-	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.023)	(0.010)	(0.024)	(0.023)	(0.044)

The US health price is 25% higher than the European average health price

Model Fit Model Fit on un-targeted moment

## Correlation between Price Estimates and Proxies for Distortions •••••



## Health Behaviors and Country-Specific Effects on Transitions to Good Health Conce



(e) Health Behaviors : sum of the prevalence of individuals with at least one of the risky behavior (obesity, smoking, absence of physical activity and drug consumption). Source : HRS, Share, Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network.

(f) Disability Adjusted Life Years (DALYs) measure the sum of years of potential life lost due to premature mortality and the years of productive life lost due to disability induced by selected risky behaviors. Source : Global Burden of Disease Collaborative Network.

### Robustness : 2 extensions of the model

- Those in worse health earn less (Model 1)  $a' = (1 + r)a + (1 - \tau)we\Gamma(h) - c - \mu pm$
- co-insurance rate depends on household earnings (Model 2)  $a' = (1 + r)a + (1 - \tau)we - c - \mu(e)pm$

### Estimation results

- the ranking of countries remain the same
- US still pay the price for health services

Model extensions

# Counterfactual : Decomposition of the Differences between U.S and Europe

	GDP share of health expenditure						
	US	Europe	$\Delta = US - EU$				
Baseline	14.013	9.004	5.009				
Price	11.034	9.471	1.562				
TFP	15.684	9.490	6.193				
Health risks	9.707	9.866	-0.159				

- "Price" : model predictions when p<sub>US</sub> = p<sub>EU</sub> and p<sub>g≠US</sub> = p<sub>EU</sub>
- 68% fall in the gap in health expenditures due to price convergence

# Counterfactual : Decomposition of the Differences between U.S and Europe

	Fraction	Fraction in good health							
	US	Europe	$\Delta = US - EU$						
Baseline	89.654	95.563	-5.908						
Price	92.570	95.297	-2.726						
TFP	88.703	95.802	-7.098						
Health risks	93.763	94.618	-0.854						

- "Price" : model predictions when p<sub>US</sub> = p<sub>EU</sub> and p<sub>g≠US</sub> = p<sub>EU</sub>
- ▶ 54% fall in the gap in good health due to price convergence

# Counterfactual : Decomposition of the Differences between U.S and Europe

	Health	Health gradient $\overline{\pi}_4$							
	US Europe $\Delta = US - EU$								
Baseline	1.275	1.059	0.216						
Price	1.182	1.075	0.107						
TFP	1.299	1.056	0.243						
Health risks	1.160	1.084	0.075						

- "Price" : model predictions when  $p_{US} = p_{EU}$  and  $p_{g \neq US} = p_{EU}$
- ▶  $\overline{\pi}_4$  is the relative probability to be in good health in the fourth income quartile (Income-health gradient)
- 50% fall in the gap in health inequalities due to price convergence

### Welfare analysis

Results : Disparity in health prices matters

- The US are paying the price
- TFP differences do not matter
- Why shall we care?
  - Health price wedges have large impact on welfare.
  - We develop a new measure of the welfare costs, measuring directly the "extra cost of living".

Expenditures pus	,	Lifetime Expenditures $ \{p_{US}, V(a + \mathcal{P}, s   p_{US})\}$
Expenditures peu	$\rightarrow$	Lifetime Expenditures $ \{p_{EU}, V(a, s   p_{EU})\} $
Laspeyres index		Lifetime index

where the willingness to pay  $\mathcal{P}$  is defined for each agent (a, s) by  $V(a + \mathcal{P}, s | p_{US}) = V(a, s | p_{EU}) \bigoplus Welfare$ 

## Welfare : Lifetime cost-of-living

		e <sub>0</sub>	e <sub>4</sub>	<i>e</i> g	Aggregate	
GE	Bad health 100.4		101.785	103.307	102.010	
	Good health	100.876	101.905	103.071	102.019	
DE	Bad health	100.076	100.617	100.776	100 454	
ΓĽ	Good health	100.221	100.452	100.542	100.454	

- ▶ PE : The extra-cost of living is 0.45%
- ▶ GE : The extra-cost of living is 2%
- Laspeyres is index 0.87%

WTP graphs

## Conclusion

- We use a GE framework to uncover sources of differences in health and health expenditures between the U.S. and Europe.
- We find that
  - US health prices are 25% higher than in Europe
  - High prices are related to inefficiencies in the health sector
  - Disparity in health prices matters :
  - $\Rightarrow$  If  $p_{US} = p_{EU}$ , then the gaps are reduced by

    - 68% for health expenditures54% for individuals in good health50% for health inequalities
  - Moderate welfare consequences of health prices differences
  - $\Rightarrow$  The US bear an extra lifetime cost of living of 2%

## Appendix

### Price and Efficiency Differences Across Countries (2013 dollars)

#### Back to slides

	US	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP
Prices								
Angiogram	914			264				125
relative US	1			0.288				0.136
Bypass surgery	73420			22344		14061		17437
relative US	1			0.304		0.191		0.275
Drug price index	1	0.34		0.268	0.285	0.272	0.306	0.275
relative US								
Hospital spending per discharge	18788	5251	11468	5348		13909	9953	
relative US	1	0.28	0.61	0.28		0.74	0.53	
Efficiency								
Case-fatality rate after AMI (%)	6.66	5.5	9.85	7.05	7.25	9.5	6.3	10.3
relative US	1	0.82	1.47	1.05	1.08	1.42	0.94	1.54

### Supply and Utilization of Health Care Services Back to slides

	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP	US
Supply								
Hospital beds $(a)^*$	8.54	3.89	7.25	4.09	4.50	3.00	3.35	3.24
Magnetic scanner (b)*	13.62	0.18	1.63	5.49	0.40	-	1.93	9.03
Resonance imaging $(b)^*$	13.09	-	1.02	4.59	0.40	3.52	-	12.02
Radiotherapy equipment (b)*	-	12.6	-	6.4	7.20	-	4.4	11.3
Nurses (a)*	11.18	9.62	8.08	6.25	11.40	10.52	4.65	10.67
Doctors (a)*	3.43	3.30	3.30	3.68	2.71	3.44	3.42	2.39
Utilization								
Doctors' consultations (c)*	8.25	4.42	6.95	6.33	5.72	2.86	8.23	3.94
Waiting time specialists $(d)^*$	72	-	51	-	75	54	-	76
Waiting time doc/nurse (e)*	76	-	57	-	63	58	-	48
Hospital discharge rate (b)*	21.96	15.92	17.58	15.41	10.40	15.97	10.65	12.94
Length hospital stay $(f)^*$	8.93	3.63	5.82	6.76	7.14	6.29	6.71	5.60

(a) per 1,000 inhabitants. (b) per 1,000,000 inhabitants. (c) per capita. (d) Waiting time for a doctor specialist appointment of less than 4 weeks (%). (e) Waiting time for a doctor or a nurse appointment on the same day or the next day when sick or needed care (%). (f) Days. OECD Data : \* 2000-2010, \* 2001-2014.

### R&D Activities and Outcomes Back to slides

	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP	US
Medical R&D in GDP (a)	0.39	0.85	0.42	0.10	0.23	0.61	0.13	0.61
Medical patents (b) <sup>◊</sup>	1989	201	817	454	404	325	156	7313
Share of medical patents $(c)^{\diamond}$	9.47	24.13	11.05	12.55	15.79	15.67	17.29	20.05

(a) GDP share (%) of R&D of business sector in "Pharmaceuticals" and "Medical, precision instruments". OECD Analytical Business Enterprise Research and Development database (ANBERD). (b) Numbers of patents in medical and pharmaceutical domains. (c) Share (%) of patents in medical and pharmaceutical domains in the country total patents. OECD Data : • 2005-2006,  $\diamond$  1990-2016.

### Putting the Pieces Together Dack to slide

The exponential form,  $\overline{\pi}_g(m_{g,i}) = 1 - \exp(-\alpha_{1,g} - \alpha_0 m_{g,i})$ , fits well the US data (Medical Expenditure Survey). For g = US and i = 1, ..., 10 (deciles) :



Figure – Exponential Production Function and Data. We test the linearity by including a square term in  $log(1 - \overline{\pi}_{i,g})$ . The t-statistic is 0.246

### Model : Health insurance system

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- ► The government provides health insurance.
- Health insurance reimburses medical expenditures using proportional taxes on labor income :

$$\tau wN = (1-\mu)p\sum_{e}\sum_{h}\sum_{a}m(a,h,e)\lambda(a,h,e)$$

where  $\lambda(a, h, e)$  is the stationary distribution of individuals across individual states (a, h, e).

- Given the co-insurance rate μ, the tax rate τ must finance expenditures.
- The SS parameters are country specific.

## Auxiliary Parameters : step 1

#### ▶ back to Main

The observable heterogeneity among countries is introduced to purge the wedge measures from well known differences.

- ► Income Risk : micro data on income, PSID ECHP Estimates
- Co-insurance rates  $\mu$  : OECD Health Data Estimates
- Production of goods : country-specific shares of capital (α) and the depreciation rates (δ<sub>k</sub>), Penn World Table (Feenstra et al. 2015) Estimates

## Earnings risk

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	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP	US
$\rho_e$	0.9436	0.9182	0.9588	0.9433	0.9697	0.9182	0.9798	0.959
$\sigma_e^2$	0.0285	0.0150	0.0191	0.0303	0.0108	0.0150	0.0111	0.0396
$\sigma_u^2$	0.0967	0.0751	0.1143	0.0806	0.1192	0.0751	0.1364	0.1257
$\frac{\sigma_e^2}{1-\rho_e^2}$	0.26	0.0956	0.2367	0.275	0.181	0.0956	0.2776	0.493

Table – Covariance Structure of Income Process : Parameter estimates by minimum distance as outlined in text.  $\rho_e$  refers to the persistence of permanent shocks,  $\sigma_e^2$  the variance of permanent shocks and  $\sigma_u^2$  the variance of transitory shocks (assumed measurement error in model and set to zero).

### Production functions and depreciation rates



	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP	US
$\mu$	0.127	0.149	0.088	0.237	0.097	0.162	0.228	0.136
$\alpha$	0.372	0.360	0.379	0.470	0.393	0.461	0.373	0.384
$\delta_k$	0.039	0.043	0.04	0.039	0.041	0.046	0.037	0.048

 $\alpha$  refers to the expenditure share of capital.  $\delta_k$  refers to the depreciation rate on capital.

### Out-of-Pocket $\mu$

• Back to Appendix







(c) Transition from Bad to (d) Transition from Good Good Health to Good Health

(e) Health-Income Gradient





Figure – Relative GDP per capita  $\tilde{Y}$ 





Figure – GDP share of health exp.  $s = \frac{pm}{Y}$ 

## Fit



Figure – Transition bad to good health  $\tilde{p}_{10}$ 

## Fit



Figure – Transition goog to good health  $\tilde{p}_{11}$ 



Figure – Fraction in good health  $\tilde{p}_1$ ]



Figure – Income-health gradient  $\overline{p}_2$ 



Figure – Income-health gradient  $\overline{p}_3$ ]



Figure – Income-health gradient  $\overline{p}_4$ 

### Fit on un-targeted moment

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Figure – Total Health Expenditures as a Function of Income in MEPS. Sample age 25-84, 1996-2008. The figure shows the ratio of average out-of-pocket health expenditures to average total health expenditures by income group relative to group 5 (middle income group). The income group are obtained by regressing log household income on age dummies and then creating 10 equally spaced groups. The model outcomes are derived from the steady-state distribution of agents and the decision rule for medical consumption.

#### Back to main slides

	Comr	non paran	U.S. specific		
	$\sigma$	$\sigma \phi$		$lpha_{10}$	$\alpha_{11}$
Baseline	2.105 0.397		0.161	-0.988	3.511
	(0.048)	(0.006)	(0.009)	(0.069)	(0.035)
Model 1	2.122	0.367	0.190	-0.980	3.597
Model 2	2.097	0.377	0.146	-0.990	3.604

Table – Parameters Based on U.S. Data. Estimates by method of simulated moments. Standard errors in parenthesis. Baseline : benchmark. Model 1 : productivity reduced when individual is in bad health (-20%). Model 2 : Out-of-pocket increasing with household's income.

		US	DE	DK	FR	IT	NL	SE	SP
	Ref.	-0.988	-1.282	-1.602	-1.099	-0.831	-1.390	-1.394	0.002
$\alpha_{10}$		(0.069)	(0.069)	(0.025)	(0.009)	(0.004)	(0.003)	(0.047)	(0.061)
	M1	-0.980	-1.286	-1.545	-1.218	-0.677	-1.301	-1.398	-0.316
	Ref.	3.511	4.029	4.273	3.786	3.917	3.992	4.311	3.434
$\alpha_{11}$		(0.035)	(0.035)	(0.007)	(0.020)	(0.027)	(0.004)	(0.053)	(0.024)
	M1	3.597	4.012	4.403	3.809	3.943	4.012	4.399	3.573
	Ref.	1	0.836	0.888	0.604	0.695	0.657	0.891	0.642
		-	(0.072)	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.019)	(0.111)	(0.007)	(0.105)
P05	M1	1	0.821	0.941	0.592	0.750	0.649	0.899	0.633
	Ref.	1	1.011	1.260	0.922	0.613	0.989	0.795	0.795
$\frac{A}{A_{US}}$		-	(0.011)	(0.006)	(0.023)	(0.010)	(0.024)	(0.023)	(0.044)
03	M1	1	1.009	1.271	0.921	0.630	0.992	0.799	0.916

Table - Country-Specific Parameters. Estimated by method of simulated moments.

Standard errors in parenthesis. Baseline (Ref.) : benchmark. Model 1 (M1) : productivity reduced when individual is in bad health (-20%).

## Health supply

Back to main slides

- Provider competition : degree of patient choice for physicians, specialists and hospitals, i.e. the choice among providers.
- Regulation : (i) workforce supply legislation (existence of quotas for medical students and for location), (ii) hospital supply legislation (regulation for opening, bed supply, services, high-cost equipment in hospitals), (iii) regulation of price for physician services (degree of flexibility for physicians' fees), (iv) regulation of price for hospital services (degree of flexibility for setting hospital service prices), (v) regulation of price (degree of flexibility for setting hospital service prices), (v) regulation of price (degree of flexibility that companies have to set their prices), (vi) regulation of prices charged to third-party (regulation of fees paid to providers by third-party payers), (vii) incentives for higher volume in physician payment mechanisms (salary arrangements, capitation or fee-for-service), (viii) incentives for higher volume in hospital payment mechanisms to hospital based on lineitem budgets, the volume of procedures, bundle of services, e.g. diagnosis-related groups).
- Incentives for quality : (i) incentives for health care quality (patient outcomes and satisfaction), (ii) guidelines/protocol adherence incentives (including financial), and (iii) sanctions for physicians and/or specialists and/or hospitals.
- Administrative Costs : OECD administrative cost includes private insurers ("health administration and health insurance : private") as well as public health providers ("General government administration of health, including social security").



Figure – Risky Health Behaviors. (a) to (d) : Fraction of the population exposed. (e) : Index



### Figure – DALYs : total and by risky behaviors.

The number of years lost each year per individual (x) is obtained by dividing the raw data by the population of each country. Thus, an individual dying at 70 could have lived up to 70/(1-x) years if he did not have a particular risky behavior, which made him lose 70/(1-x) - 70 years of life.

### Welfare

#### Back to main slides

Measuring the welfare impact of price distortions

► The willingness to pay (P(a, s)) : how much money is it necessary to transfer to the agent living in the economy with high health price (p<sup>high</sup>) in order she reaches the same welfare than if she lives in the economy with low health price (p<sup>low</sup>)?

$$V(a + \mathcal{P}(a, s), s|p^{high}) = V(a, s|p^{low})$$

### Welfare

#### Back to main slides

- Measuring the welfare impact of price distortions
  - The willingness to pay (P(a, s)) : how much money is it necessary to transfer to the agent living in the economy with high health price (p<sup>high</sup>) in order she reaches the same welfare than if she lives in the economy with low health price (p<sup>low</sup>)?

$$V(a + \mathcal{P}(a, s), s|p^{high}) = V(a, s|p^{low})$$

Cost of living : Conditional on reaching the same welfare in each scenarii, how expensive is it to live in an economy with high health price versus in an economy with low health price?

$$I_{LT}(a, s) = \frac{\text{Lifetime Expenditures} \mid \{p^{high}, V(a + \mathcal{P}, s | p^{high})\}}{\text{Lifetime Expenditures} \mid \{p^{low}, V(a, s | p^{low})\}}$$

### Welfare

#### Back to main slides

- Measuring the welfare impact of price distortions
  - The willingness to pay (P(a, s)) : how much money is it necessary to transfer to the agent living in the economy with high health price (p<sup>high</sup>) in order she reaches the same welfare than if she lives in the economy with low health price (p<sup>low</sup>)?

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• Link : it is necessary to compute WTP to deduce  $I_{LT}$ 

Welfare : from the WTP to the "cost of living"

Back to main slides

Cost of living :

- Ratio of expenditure functions under two price regimes, given that both economies yield the same utility level
- Laspeyres index. Under the two price regimes (*p*<sub>US</sub> vs. *p*<sub>EU</sub>), the cost of living approximated by :

$$I_{L} = \frac{\text{Expenditures}|p_{US}}{\text{Expenditures}|p_{EU}} \times 100 = \frac{\overline{c}_{US} + \mu p_{US} \overline{m}_{US}}{\overline{c}_{US} + \mu p_{EU} \overline{m}_{US}} \times 100 = 100.36\%$$

- Same utility level iff static choices and no-substitution effects (Identical basket of goods { c
   *US*, m
   *US*}).
- Limitations : representative agent in static and deterministic model (impossible to distinguish GE vs. PE)
- **Solution :** Our measure of the Lifetime cost of living  $I_{LT}$ .



### Figure - Compensation for Higher Prices in the U.S.. We report the

compensation required for maintaining welfare fixed at higher price. We do this for three types of agents : low-income (e = 0), middle-income (e = 4) and high-income (e = 9). For each agent, we compute the willingness-to-pay as a function of health status (h = 0 for bad health and h = 1 for good health) and asset level a. The willingness-to-pay is reported in consumption units in partial equilibrium (dotted line) and general equilibrium (solid line). Difficult to measure the price of health

Lorenzini et al (2017). OECD.

- Price collection for non-market goods and services such as health
- Output-based method : Given that output prices for health and hospital products are not readily observable in open and competitive market transactions, "quasi prices" are imputed to approximate what a market price might have been, if there were a market.
- The input-based method, traditionally applied in PPP comparisons of non-market products, such as health services, consists of comparing the prices of inputs in the production process of non-market services. Example : compare the wage rate of a surgeon in different countries.