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1 **What factors affect patients' ability to access healthcare? An**
2 **overview of systematic reviews**

3
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30

31 **Abstract**

32 **Objectives**

33 This overview aims to synthesise global evidence on factors affecting healthcare access, and
34 variations across low- and middle-income countries (LMICs) versus high-income countries (HICs); to
35 develop understanding of where barriers to healthcare access lie, and in what context, to inform
36 tailored policies aimed at improving access to healthcare for all who need it.

37 **Methods**

38 An overview of systematic reviews guided by a published protocol was conducted. Medline, Embase,
39 Global Health and Cochrane Systematic Reviews databases were searched for published articles.
40 Additional searches were conducted on the Gates Foundation, the World Health Organisation and
41 World Bank websites. Study characteristics and findings (barriers and facilitators to healthcare
42 access) were documented and summarised. The methodological quality of included studies was
43 assessed using an adapted version of the AMSTAR 2 tool.

44 **Results**

45 Fifty-eight articles were included, 23 presenting findings from LMICs, 35 presenting findings from
46 HICs. While many barriers to healthcare access occur in HICs as well as LMICs, the way they are
47 experienced is quite different. In HICs there is much greater emphasis on patient experience as
48 compared to the physical absence of care in LMICs.

49 **Conclusions**

50 As countries move towards universal healthcare access, evaluation methods that account for health
51 system and wider cultural factors that impact capacity to provide care, healthcare finance systems
52 and the socio-cultural environment of the setting are required. Consequently, methods employed in
53 HICs are unlikely to be appropriate in LMICs due to the stark differences in these areas.

54 **Systematic review registration**

55 PROSPERO CRD42019144775.

56

57 **Keywords**

58 Healthcare access, International health, Overview of systematic reviews, Systematic review,
59 Healthcare equity, 3 delays framework

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65 **Introduction**

66 Achieving access to healthcare for all is an internationally recognised global goal, reinforced by the
67 Universal Healthcare Movement and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (1). Yet, inequalities in
68 health persist both within and between countries, with poorer, more marginalised groups often
69 having the poorest health, compounded by also having the least entitlement to healthcare (2-4).

70 Inadequate access to healthcare is often synonymised with low uptake of services, frequently
71 assumed to be due to financial barriers on the demand-side. Consequently, following some success,
72 demand-side financing policies are used widely whenever low uptake is an issue (5-9). However,
73 uptake does not provide a full picture of factors influencing access, required to guide effective
74 policy. As such, success of demand-side financing policies can depend on the reason for low uptake
75 e.g. they may not be successful if low uptake is mainly due to socio-cultural factors such as stigma,
76 as financial incentives may have little impact (5, 8). Understanding where barriers lie, and in what
77 context, can help tailor policies aimed at improving access to healthcare.

78 While a considerable body of evidence on healthcare access already exists, it tends to focus on a
79 particular patient group and/or healthcare setting in a specific geographical region. However, the
80 Universal Healthcare Movement and SDGs are not condition specific goals, and a clear global picture
81 is needed to inform coherent macro level policies to achieve them. This review addresses that gap
82 using an overview of systematic reviews methodology, owing to the size of the body of primary
83 evidence and number of related systematic reviews already in existence (10, 11). It aims to identify
84 what factors act as facilitators or barriers to healthcare access; develop understanding of the most
85 important factors in different contexts; and examine variation in these factors in high-income
86 countries (HICs) versus low- and middle-income countries (LMICs).

87

88 **Methods**

89 This review was registered with the International Prospective Register of Systematic Reviews
90 (PROSPERO), registration number CRD42019144775.

91 Methods are described in full in the published protocol (12).

92 **Deviations from protocol: Eligibility criteria**

93 Several articles (n=16) presented evidence from a range of countries with different income
94 classifications and other characteristics, and data pertaining to the different groups could not be
95 identified. Therefore, we took the decision to exclude these articles. This is an additional exclusion
96 criterion to those presented in the protocol but was necessary to facilitate meaningful synthesis of
97 the evidence. Articles excluded for this reason were not systematically different in scope to the
98 articles included. Updated eligibility criteria and a table of articles excluded based on this additional
99 criterion and their characteristics are available in Supplementary appendices 1 and 2, respectively.

100 **Quality assessment**

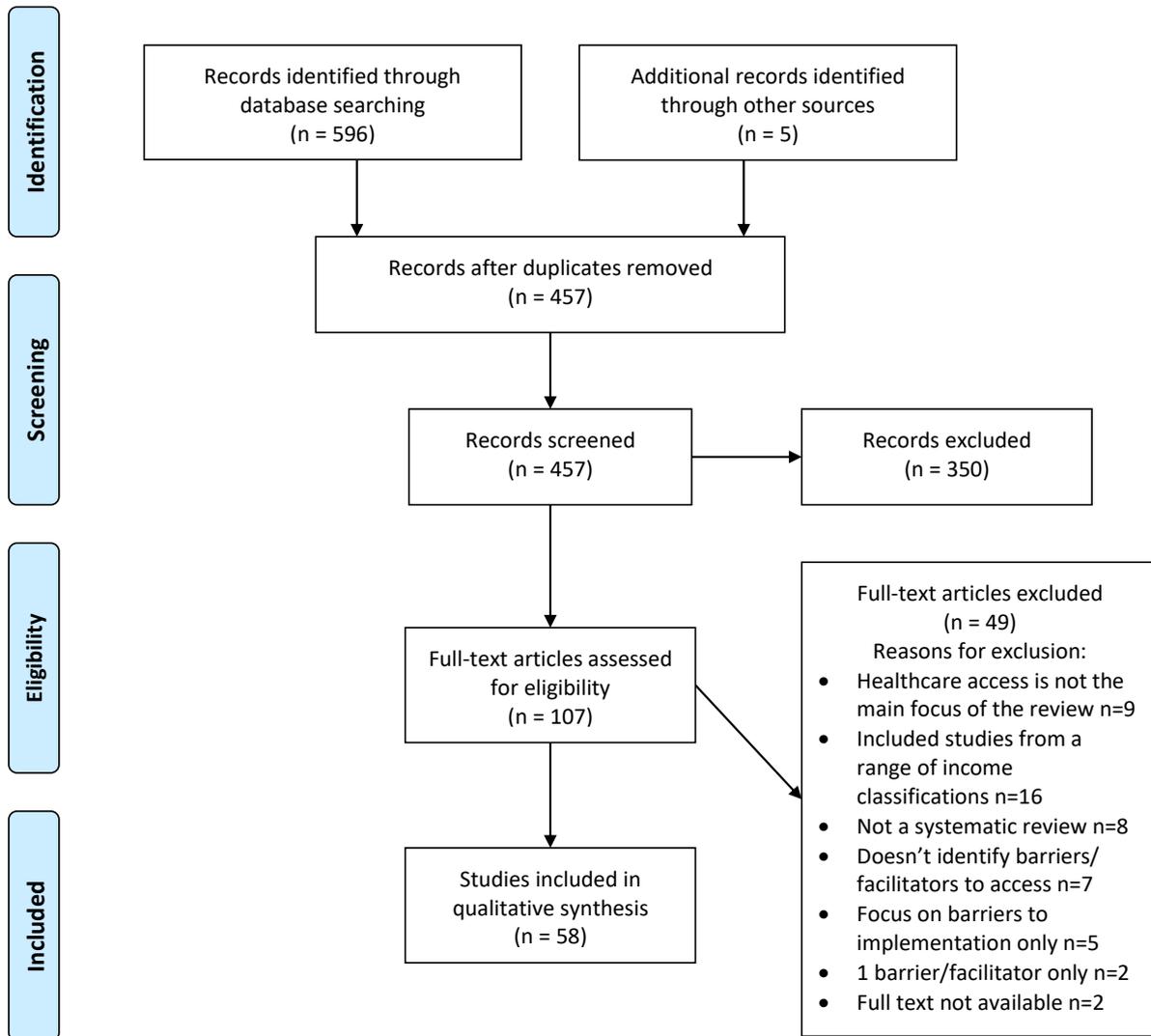
101 Methodological quality was assessed for each included study using an adapted version of the
102 AMSTAR 2 tool (13). The process of adapting the tool and the final appraisal questionnaire is
103 detailed in Supplementary appendix 3.

104 **Results**

105 **Study selection**

106 Fifty-eight systematic reviews were included in this overview (Figure 1). Agreement between
107 reviewers at each stage was good (>85%). Discrepancies were resolved easily through discussion.

108



109

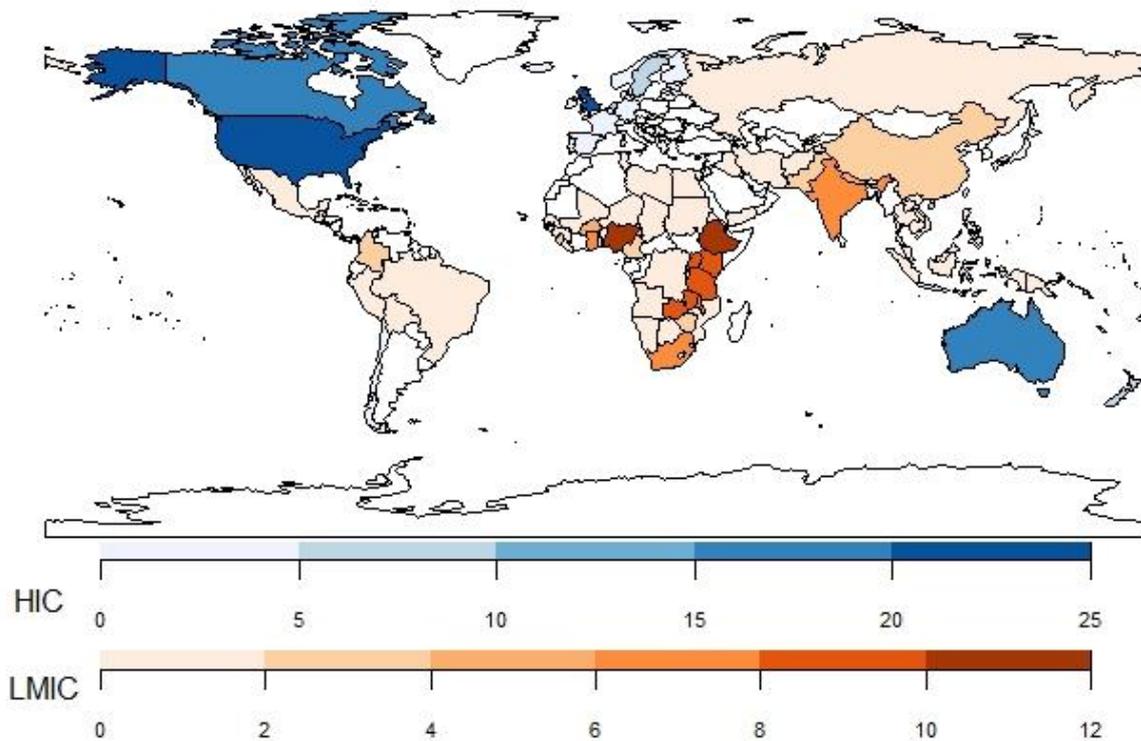
110 *Figure 1: PRISMA Diagram*

111

112 **Characteristics of included studies**

113 For characteristics of included studies see Supplementary appendix 4. Twenty-three articles present
114 findings from LMICs and 35 present findings from HICs. The number of studies across countries is
115 illustrated in Figure 2. Evidence is presented from 30 HICs and 70 LMICs (where specified). Most
116 studies synthesised results narratively with only 5 presenting meta-analysis. In terms of clinical area,
117 evidence from HICs was more diverse compared with LMICs where a high volume of evidence was
118 related to maternal and neonatal care.

Number of studies across countries



119

120 *Figure 2: Number of studies across countries*

121 **Factors affecting healthcare access**

122 Factors affecting healthcare access are categorised by the three delays model below (with additional
123 detail in Supplementary appendix 5), to identify where in the patient pathway barriers and
124 facilitators to accessing care occur. This comprises: 1) a delay in the decision to seek care, 2) a delay
125 in reaching an adequate facility, 3) a delay in receiving care once at the facility (14).

126 *Delay 1*

127 Factors affecting the decision to seek care are presented in Figure 3. Fear is a cross-cutting theme in
128 delay 1 and drives many factors outlined below, e.g. fear of discrimination, financial hardship or poor
129 treatment.

130 *Demographic factors*

131 An important barrier in all settings, gender (usually female) was the most common demographic
132 barrier in LMICs; often associated with socio-cultural perceptions of women, expectations about
133 gender roles and minimal female empowerment (15-17). For example, in some cultures males are
134 given preference over females, women face restricted movement outside the household, and often
135 have limited access to resources (including money) needed to access care (18-20). Furthermore,
136 gender intersects with other barriers and facilitators, e.g. females in poor/traditional households are
137 more disadvantaged in terms of access. This is particularly the case in patriarchal societies where,
138 “women’s expected submission to male partners and to their role in society as child bearers” causes
139 women to be disadvantaged, the extent of which may be underestimated since this is the status quo
140 (15).

141 Lack of education limits healthcare access in all settings and correlates with lack of knowledge and
142 perceived need. Ethnicity is found to affect healthcare access in all settings but is identified less
143 frequently in LMICs. Evidence on the impact of age is heterogenous indicating its impact may be
144 specific to certain conditions and affected by other factors.

145 [Socio-cultural factors](#)

146 Shame and stigma were more prominent for certain conditions and groups depending on socio-
147 cultural norms. For example, in some cultures elderly women felt shame in having to ask for help to
148 get healthcare needed (18). Shame was also expressed in relation to conditions deemed
149 embarrassing (17), or resulted from social stigma around certain conditions (15, 17, 21). Lack of
150 family/social support was also found to limit healthcare access. Conversely the presence of such
151 support was specifically identified as a facilitator.

152 Lack of decision-making power limited healthcare access in all settings but to a greater extent for
153 women in LMICs highlighting the intersection of socio-cultural norms with gender inequalities (17,
154 20). In HICs, lack of decision-making power for women was mainly reported in relation to certain
155 religions or migrant populations originating from more patriarchal countries (22). Alternatively, it
156 was associated with healthcare for children/young adults where decisions about their care were
157 made by parents or carers (23, 24).

158 Preference for traditional medicine was an important barrier to accessing effective healthcare in
159 LMICs but was only reported in HICs for migrant populations (22, 25). This reflects cultural
160 differences and the acceptance of medical pluralism in LMICs. Here, patients often visit a traditional
161 healer first, particularly if health problems are perceived as spiritual rather than physical (16). Many
162 people will seek care from a biomedical provider “only when they noticed a declined physical health
163 condition and that other forms of care have become ineffective” (21). In contrast, preference for
164 self-management/alternative treatments was more frequently reported in HICs indicating standard
165 practices are not always considered acceptable.

166 Language/communication barriers and fear of deportation/incarceration were frequently reported
167 in HICs but not in LMICs, reflecting the high number of HIC studies focused on migrant populations
168 or marginalised subgroups rather than the general population (26-29).

169 [Patient factors](#)

170 Lack of information about conditions and treatments and low perceived need reduced care-seeking
171 in all settings, as did lack of time or having other commitments. However, this was more frequently
172 reported for women in LMICs who had caring responsibilities or “were busy with housework”(17). In
173 HICs reasons were often related to work or other social commitments. Modesty related barriers,
174 common in all settings, were also gendered, with women avoiding care-seeking for fear of exposing
175 themselves during examination. This was particularly associated with male doctors and fear of lack
176 of privacy at the facility (17, 24, 30-32).

177 Lack of organisation, inconvenience and forgetfulness limited care-seeking in HICs but not LMICs,
178 reflecting that in HICs it is taken for granted that healthcare will be available. This cannot be
179 assumed so easily in LMICs. In HICs, there are cases of patients not considering healthcare access a
180 priority, but this mainly applies to homeless people who have other competing social issues (29, 33-
181 35). Severity of disease along with physical and mental co-morbidities are reported to limit
182 healthcare access in HICs, but less so in LMICs. Problems navigating the healthcare system limit
183 healthcare access for migrants and other marginalised groups in HICs. These groups may be less
184 familiar with the healthcare system and need additional support to obtain care required.

185 [Treatment/service factors](#)

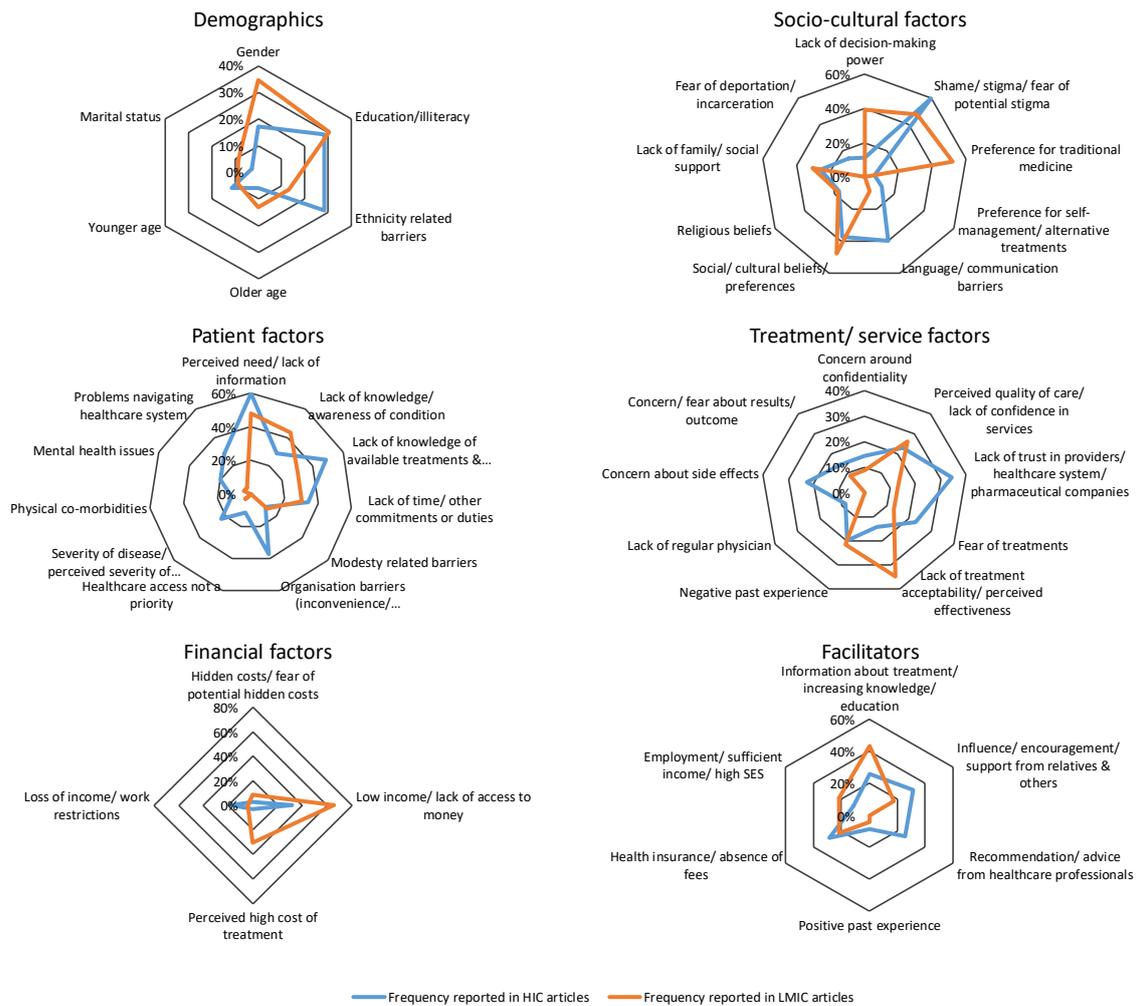
186 Perception of services is affected by past experiences, where negative past experiences are barriers
187 to care-seeking (20, 36, 37) and positive experiences are facilitators (16, 28, 38). Lack of treatment
188 acceptability and perceived effectiveness limit care-seeking in LMICs. This can manifest because
189 practices of modern medicine conflict with cultural preferences and norms. For example, traditional
190 birthing preferences may not be observed in facility deliveries, limiting acceptability (16, 39).
191 Alternatively, patients may have experienced poor-quality care due to under-resourcing of
192 healthcare personnel and equipment. This links with barriers around perceived quality of care and
193 lack of confidence around services.

194 In HICs, lack of trust in providers often limits care-seeking. In the USA, this mainly relates to mistrust
195 of pharmaceutical companies and, sometimes, healthcare providers (24). This reflects limited
196 protection for patients against high prices for medications or demand inducing practices of
197 providers. In other HICs, this barrier is mainly reported for migrant populations who fear disclosure
198 of their settlement status to other authorities(28). Interestingly, despite lack of trust in providers in
199 LMICs being well documented in grey literature, it is rarely reported in this review. This reflects
200 limited academic research on this topic in LMICs (40, 41).

201 In HICs, healthcare provider recommendations facilitate healthcare access, but this is not reported in
202 LMICs. This is likely due to greater focus on preventative medicine, e.g. screening, in HICs and the
203 role of general practitioners in encouraging uptake of these initiatives.

204 [Financial factors](#)

205 In LMICs, low income or lack of access to money was the most common barrier to care-seeking, with
206 direct costs described as “prohibitively high” (16, 20). Here, patients often pay for healthcare out of
207 their own pocket meaning many families face hardship if healthcare is required. Bohren et al.
208 explain, as there are few money lenders and “exorbitant interest rates” are charged by those that
209 exist, “family members [are] often sent around the community to collect money from their
210 neighbours” to cover healthcare costs (16). Even when healthcare is free or even incentivised (e.g.
211 maternity care), indirect costs still deter use of services (32, 42). Hidden informal healthcare costs
212 are also common, further discouraging care-seeking (17). In HICs, financial factors were mainly
213 reported in the USA where health insurance can be costly and healthcare must be paid for by
214 patients without it (34, 43). In other HICs, financial barriers were associated with gaps in insurance
215 coverage or indirect costs of obtaining healthcare(34). They are also reported for hard to reach
216 groups such as migrants and the homeless who may not have the same entitlement to healthcare as
217 the general population(29, 35).



218

219 *Figure 3: Delay 1 barriers and facilitators to healthcare access*

220 *Delay 2*

221 Factors affecting reaching an adequate facility are presented in Figure 4.

222 *Geographic/environmental factors*

223 Geographic and environmental barriers to healthcare access are more extreme in LMICs. For
 224 example, distance to services limits healthcare access in all settings but in HICs usually relates to
 225 inconvenience of travel, or sometimes travel costs, to access specialist services. Whilst in LMICs the
 226 general scarcity of healthcare providers means patients often have to travel long distances to access
 227 the nearest facility, with these journeys made more difficult by rough terrain and poor road
 228 infrastructure(18, 19, 39, 42, 44).

229 *Transport/infrastructure*

230 Similarly, challenges with travel can be more acute in LMICs. In HICs ‘transportation difficulties’ or
 231 “perceived difficulty in travelling to see the doctor”(45) are described, indicating although transport
 232 was available, there may be issues around timing, paying or parking(46, 47). In LMICs ambulances
 233 are often scarce and a complete absence of obtainable transport is common with reports that
 234 “transportation is costly or sometimes non-existent”(16, 19). In these cases, patients have no choice
 235 but to seek more arduous transport such as rickshaw, bicycle or walking. Combined with difficulties
 236 travelling due to their condition and often “dilapidated infrastructure”, travelling long distances to

237 reach care becomes almost impossible(16, 20, 48). Furthermore, even when transport is available,
238 patients can be excluded from using it due to their condition(19).

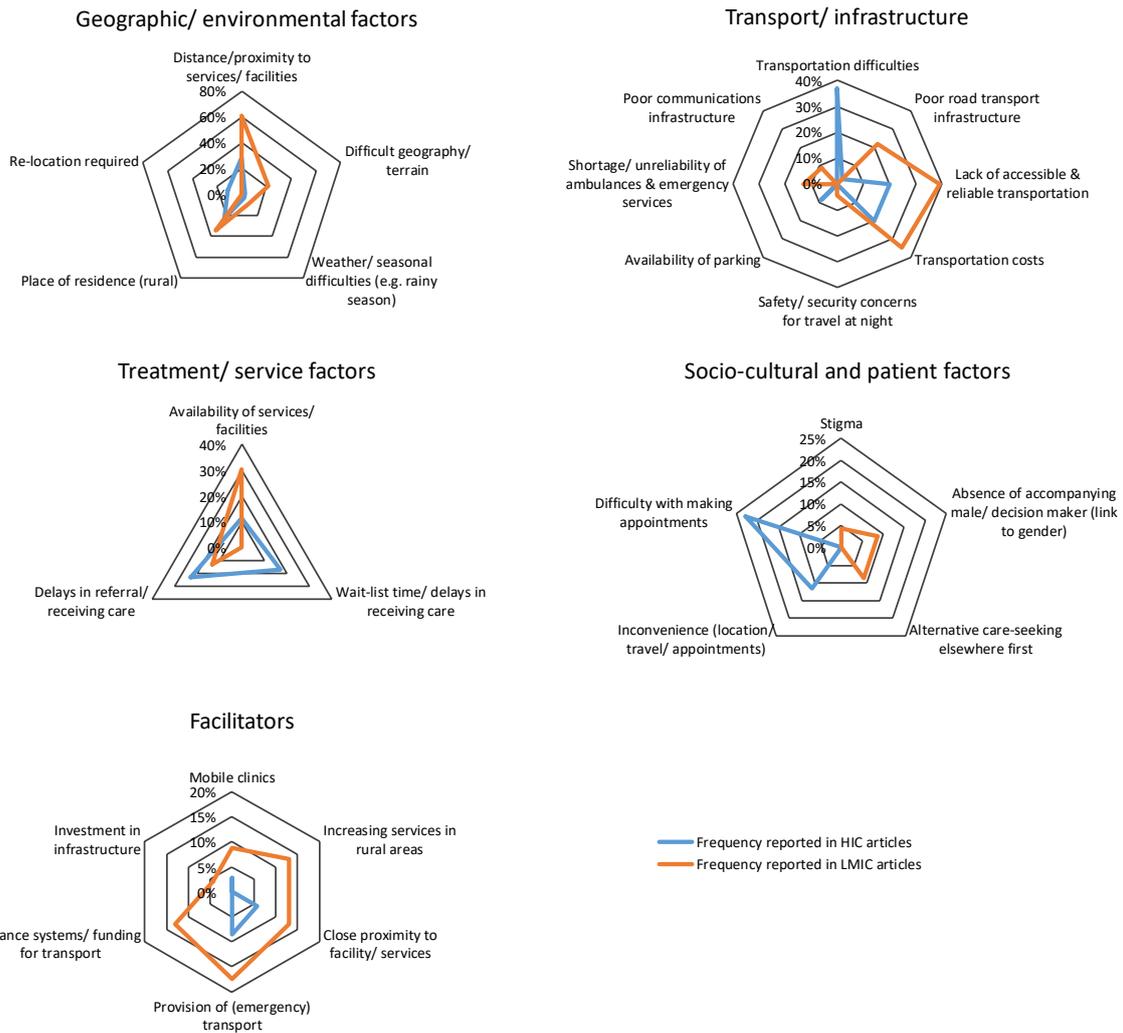
239 Treatment/service factors

240 In LMICs, unavailability of services commonly delayed reaching an adequate facility(16, 18, 31),
241 whilst in HICs waiting list times and delays in referral were more common barriers(25, 49, 50). This
242 emphasises the difference in healthcare systems and infrastructure in the two settings. In HICs,
243 while appropriate services usually physically exist, demand for them at a given time may exceed
244 availability. Here, health systems infrastructure is equipped to manage waiting lists and facilitate
245 referrals across providers and to specialists. In LMICs appropriate services are more likely to be
246 physically non-existent and complex referral systems are much less common, compounding
247 difficulties faced in accessing already sparse services.

248 Socio-cultural and patient factors

249 Socio-cultural barriers to reaching an adequate facility were only reported in LMICs, often linked
250 with gender imbalances making healthcare access more difficult for women. For example, women
251 may be delayed due to lack of an accompanying male(32, 51), or could be refused access to public
252 transport due to stigma associated with certain conditions affecting women(19). In HICs, patient
253 factors were related with inconvenience and difficulty making appointments(36, 43, 52).

254



255

256 *Figure 4: Delay 2 barriers and facilitators to healthcare access*

257

258 *Delay 3*

259 Factors affecting receiving care once at the facility are presented in Figure 5.

260 *Socio-cultural and patient factors*

261 Treatment non-adherence and lack of an established relationship with healthcare providers are
 262 reported exclusively in HICs(22, 33, 53, 54). However, treatment non-adherence is unlikely to be
 263 recorded in LMICs even if it occurs due to limited health records and follow-up care. Problems with
 264 communication also affect receipt of appropriate care for migrants in HICs (22, 54, 55). In addition,
 265 societal norms influence provision of services deemed unacceptable by some healthcare providers
 266 (most often reported for abortion) (15, 52).

267 *Healthcare provider factors*

268 Whilst healthcare providers will inevitably experience heavy workload due to the demand for
 269 healthcare in all settings, this is more pronounced in LMICs where workforce shortages are more
 270 extreme(15, 18-20, 31, 39, 48). Inexperience and lack of competence are also common in all settings,
 271 however in LMICs staff shortages exacerbate limited opportunities for professional development and
 272 mean little/no support from more experienced practitioners(20, 31, 48, 56). In HICs these more
 273 often refer to inexperience with specific patient groups or certain specialities(46, 53, 54). Poor

274 provider attitude was often reported due to patients feeling they were treated insensitively in HICs.
275 In LMICs, although there were some cases of this kind(15), there were also reports of abuse and
276 neglect by providers (16). In part this is inevitably due to strain placed on individuals by the limited
277 infrastructure and scarcity of resources, but also likely due to lack of appropriate training and
278 support(15, 18, 57).

279 [Treatment/service factors](#)

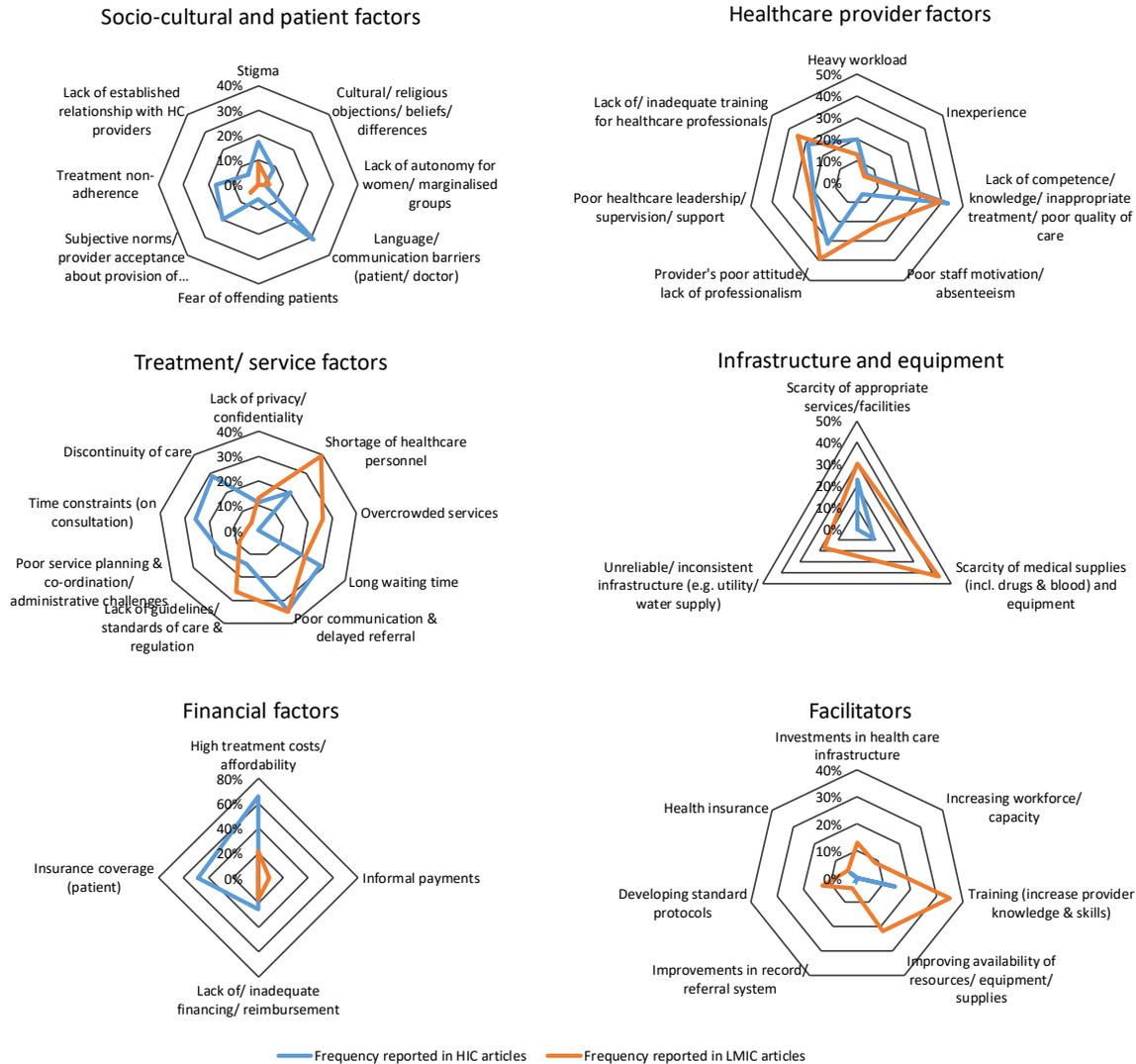
280 Many treatment/service factors are reported with similar frequencies across settings, but the
281 realities can be starkly different. In HICs waiting time is linked to the impact on patient experience,
282 “up to 60% of oncology outpatients reported that waiting times of more than 15 min contributed to
283 poor experiences within health services” (47). In contrast, in LMICs long wait times result from
284 facilities being closed when patients present, especially at night, or lacking appropriate staffing to
285 manage the problem(16). In HICs personnel or service shortages often means a shortage of
286 specialists or limited choice of providers. In LMICs this can mean a shortage of any/all healthcare
287 personnel, and few, or sometimes a complete absence of, facilities within a distance feasible to
288 travel(15, 16, 19). In HICs the need for training relates to training for specialist services(29, 53)
289 whereas in LMICs this relates to general training of healthcare professionals and links with the
290 absence of trained healthcare workers, especially in rural areas(39, 58).

291 Scarcity of medical supplies, including medications, blood and equipment are reported much more
292 commonly in LMICs demonstrating extremely limited resources for even basic healthcare(42, 51, 58).
293 In HICs medical supply chains are more robust and well regulated. Limitations with medical
294 infrastructure such as unreliability of power or water supplies and absence of toilets in healthcare
295 facilities are reported solely in LMICs (16, 20).

296 In contrast, time constraints on consultation and discontinuity of care are commonly reported
297 barriers to healthcare access in HICs but not LMICs(30, 33, 59, 60). We note, however, that time
298 constraints are also an issue in LMICs but are perhaps not picked up due to less focus on patient
299 experience of care in evidence from LMICs. This may demonstrate differences in expectations of
300 healthcare provision in different settings.

301 [Financial factors](#)

302 Financial barriers to receiving care at the facility are more frequently reported in HICs, particularly in
303 the USA, when there are gaps in health insurance or unexpected and costly co-payments (34, 36,
304 46). Although financial barriers are reported for all 3 delays in LMICs, they are reported less
305 frequently for delay 3. This may indicate that perceptions about cost of treatment, ability to pay and
306 access to money feature more in the decision to seek care (delay 1) in LMICs, meaning many who
307 would have faced financial difficulty at the facility, never actually make it there. However, informal
308 payments limit healthcare access in LMICs but not in HICs(31, 61).



309

310 *Figure 5: Delay 3 barriers and facilitators to healthcare access*

311 **Quality assessment**

312 For results of the quality assessment see Supplementary appendix 6. Methodological quality was
 313 variable with some high-quality reviews (e.g. 54, 61, 62, 63) and others meeting few criteria (e.g. 18,
 314 64). There was no trend in methodological quality of articles by study setting, study characteristics,
 315 or according to the topic of the review. Of the 58 included studies, 37 undertook assessments of
 316 quality/risk of bias. However, only 15 discussed their interpretation of findings with reference to this
 317 assessment. For this type of research question, detailed analysis of risk of bias may have been
 318 considered less important than, for example, reviews determining intervention effectiveness. There
 319 was 100% agreement between reviewers on the quality assessment.

320

321 **Discussion**

322 **Key findings**

323 Fifty-eight systematic reviews were included in this overview. All included articles provided evidence
324 on barriers to healthcare access, while only a subset also provided evidence on facilitators. The
325 methodological quality of included studies was variable across all settings. To improve this, review
326 authors should ensure comprehensive searches are conducted in several databases and searches are
327 expanded to include grey literature. Authors should also adhere to reporting guidelines to ensure
328 quality can be judged appropriately.

329 In every country around the world patients encounter challenges when healthcare is needed. Whilst
330 some factors are reported in HICs as well as LMICS, the way they are experienced is often quite
331 different depending on the healthcare system and socio-cultural factors. In HICs, there is greater
332 emphasis on patient experience, compared to the physical absence of care in LMICs where barriers
333 to healthcare access are more numerous and more extreme. Additionally, whilst LMIC articles focus
334 on access issues affecting the general population, HIC articles often raise issues pertaining to specific
335 subgroups, with around 1/3 focusing on hard to reach populations. These groups face greater
336 challenges as they often have less entitlement to healthcare than the general population.

337 A key theme across all 3 delays is capacity to provide healthcare needed. In HICs, this is managed
338 with rationing, waiting lists and systems to manage referrals and prioritise patients according to
339 need. As such, although patients may not always have immediate access to care for less urgent
340 healthcare needs, emergency healthcare can be prioritized, and so fewer capacity-related barriers
341 are faced in HICs for emergency care. However, capacity constraints in LMICs are more extreme and
342 are at the root of many of the barriers to healthcare faced in this setting. Here, a complete absence
343 of available healthcare in some areas means capacity related barriers are experienced at all levels,
344 for all conditions and regardless of the severity of need. In addition, limitations in healthcare
345 capacity are often exacerbated by deficiencies in other key sectors, such as education and transport,
346 to a greater extent in LMICs than HICs.

347 Financial barriers are also more severe in LMICs where inability to pay prevents healthcare access
348 earlier, often resulting in patients failing to present to healthcare providers altogether. Here, welfare
349 systems are often less advanced and health insurance is limited or non-existent. Better healthcare
350 financing support in HICs means patients are more likely to experience financial difficulties later in
351 the process if insurance does not cover all healthcare or co-payments are required (particularly in
352 USA).

353 Socio-cultural factors are also critical to healthcare access. However, the ways in which they
354 manifest vary depending on the socio-cultural environment. For example, stigma limits healthcare
355 access across all delays and in all settings but the reasons for the stigma and the conditions it is
356 associated with vary in different contexts. These differences can be linked with the prevalence of
357 certain conditions such as obstetric fistula which can cause extreme stigmatisation in LMICs but is
358 much less common in HICs due to developments in modern medicine. Such differences can also be
359 linked with social and historical influences as is the case with HIV where “memories of suffering and
360 death among AIDS patients” (21) are still clear for some and contribute to continued stigma.
361 Elsewhere, efforts to tackle HIV related stigma, for example in mass media campaigns, have had
362 some success. Another example is the importance of traditional medicine in some cultures resulting
363 in accepted medical pluralism in some countries whilst in others the health system is dominated by
364 provision of allopathic healthcare (usually the case in HICs). Social and cultural issues related to
365 gender, social roles and expectations of men versus women can also be very different across
366 countries which can exacerbate inequalities in access to healthcare and consequently inequalities in
367 health. For example, in patriarchal societies men are expected breadwinners and control family
368 finances, while women’s role in society may be linked with childbearing along with an expected

369 submission to male partners. Understanding the socio-cultural environment in each setting is
370 therefore critical in order to understand factors affecting healthcare access. Whilst the importance
371 of increasing capacity of healthcare systems and developing healthcare financing options is already
372 recognised in guidance on how to achieve universal health coverage (e.g. 65), such guidance does
373 not currently recognise the role of the socio-cultural environment which is needed for strategies to
374 be successful.

375 **Limitations**

376 Due to the synthesis of evidence from a global perspective, the results of this overview are
377 heterogenous. Arguably, though, such heterogeneity can be viewed positively as the aim was to
378 examine variations in factors affecting healthcare access in different settings.

379 Although a range of clinical areas are represented, some are better represented than others, and
380 indeed, many are not represented at all. A similar trend exists in relation to the countries covered by
381 the included articles. Furthermore, while this review has enabled identification of the most reported
382 barriers and facilitators, the data is insufficient to determine the weight of each barrier/facilitator's
383 impact, relative to others. The overview methodology, although necessary, has meant that only
384 factors affecting access where there is sufficient primary evidence for it to have been synthesised in
385 a systematic review are represented. Inevitably this means that important topics, which may be well
386 documented in primary literature, but for which there is not yet sufficient data for them to emerge
387 as priorities in systematic reviews, may not be represented in this review.

388 Country income classifications provide groupings according to level of development. However,
389 although country income is likely correlated with development it does not always translate to good
390 standards of living. Also, as this approach is based on country averages, where income inequality is
391 high it is unlikely to be representative. This review highlights greater barriers faced by certain groups
392 such as migrants, homeless people and women (versus men); but groupings based on average
393 income are unlikely to capture these within country inequalities in healthcare access. As such
394 categorising countries by level of inequality (e.g. Gini coefficient) may have highlighted additional
395 nuances in the results. However, use of other metrics (e.g. the human development index) would
396 likely have produced similar groupings to income. Furthermore, the decision to exclude articles for
397 which the evidence could not be grouped in this way may have limited the capacity to explore
398 factors affecting healthcare access in further depth.

399 In addition, findings are grouped into evidence from LMICs and evidence from HICs. This grouping
400 was based on what is common within the literature. Yet breaking down the results further e.g.
401 splitting LMICs into low-income and middle-income, would likely have yielded additional contrasts.

402 **Implications**

403 It is important to identify and understand key healthcare and system needs to understand how
404 barriers to healthcare access will be experienced. Until the implications of these barriers can be
405 understood with respect to the needs in a country they cannot be effectively overcome. Importantly,
406 improvements in healthcare provision and developments in healthcare systems in LMICs cannot be
407 measured using standards and expectations from HICs.

408 Deficiencies in healthcare capacity limit healthcare access around the world but are relatively well
409 managed in HICs. In LMICs availability of healthcare facilities, trained healthcare professionals,
410 medical supplies and equipment must be improved if healthcare access is to improve markedly. This
411 must be accompanied with improvements in systems and support for healthcare financing.

412 However, any developments to these systems must take account of the socio-cultural environment
413 in the setting in order to be effective.

414 **Conclusions**

415 Patients face barriers to healthcare access all around the world, but they are more numerous and
416 experienced much more extremely in LMICs where resources for healthcare are often very scarce
417 both on a health system level and on a patient level. Efforts to understand and overcome these
418 barriers requires understanding of the healthcare and system needs, and the socio-cultural
419 environment. Evaluation of efforts to overcome these barriers requires methods that account for
420 the health system and wider cultural factors that impact capacity to provide care, the healthcare
421 finance systems and the socio-cultural environment of the setting. As such, evaluation methods
422 employed in HICs are unlikely to be appropriate in LMICs due to the stark differences in these areas.

423

424

425 **Declarations**

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438 **References**

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