

1 **Spatial access by public transport and likelihood of healthcare consultations at hospitals**

2
3
4 **Boer Cui**

5 Department of Civil Engineering, McGill University

6 E-mail: boer.cui@mail.mcgill.ca

7
8 **Geneviève Boisjoly**

9 Department of Civil, Geological and Mining Engineering, Polytechnique Montreal

10 E-mail: gboisjoly@polymtl.ca

11
12 **Rania Wasfi**

13 Centre de Recherche du CHUM, Université de Montréal

14 rania.wasfi@crchum.qc.ca

15
16 **Heather Orpana**

17 Centre for Surveillance and Applied Research, Public Health Agency of Canada

18 heather.orpana@canada.ca

19
20 **Kevin Manaugh**

21 Department of Geography, McGill University

22 kevin.manaugh@mcgill.ca

23
24 **Ron Buliung**

25 Department of Geography and Planning, University of Toronto

26 ron.buliung@utoronto.ca

27
28 **Yan Kestens**

29 Centre de Recherche du CHUM, Université de Montréal

30 yan.kestens@umontreal.ca

31
32 **Ahmed El-Geneidy**

33 School of Urban Planning, McGill University

34 ahmed.elgeneidy@mcgill.ca

35
36
37 July 2019

38
39
40 Word count: 6135 words text + 3 tables * 250 words = 6885 words

41 For Citation please use: Cui, B., Boisjoly, G., Wasfi, R., Orpana, H., Manaugh, K., Buliung, R., Kestens, Y.,
42 & El-Geneidy A. (2020). *Spatial access by public transport and likelihood of healthcare consultations at*
43 *hospitals*. Paper to be presented at the Transportation Research Board 99th Annual Meeting.

44

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 As healthcare is a right in Canada, analyzing the distribution of spatial access to medical
3 consultations, which are crucial for the prevention, diagnosis and early treatment of illnesses, is
4 fundamental to understanding health equity. Spatial accessibility is a factor that can influence
5 whether individuals can reasonably reach the services they seek or not. However, as an indicator
6 of potential access, it does not guarantee realized access due to predisposing and need factors. This
7 study examines the influence of spatial accessibility to hospitals on the likelihood of consulting
8 with a healthcare professional at a hospital in eight Canadian metropolitan regions while
9 controlling for individual characteristics including need for care through multilevel regression
10 modelling. Spatial accessibility was computed using the two-step floating catchment area (2SFCA)
11 method. Self-reported consultations and socio-demographic characteristics were obtained from the
12 Canadian Community Health Survey. We found that the likelihood of consultations did not differ
13 by age nor sex but followed a positive household income gradient (high-income OR: 1.205 CI:
14 1.109-1.309; middle-income OR: 1.073 CI: 0.996-1.156; compared to low-income). Living in areas
15 with higher spatial accessibility was significantly and positively linked to consultations (OR: 1.012
16 CI: 1.005-1.020), even after controlling for perceived health (OR: 0.526 CI: 0.491-0.563), chronic
17 conditions (OR: 1.860 CI: 1.747-1.981) and having a regular doctor (OR: 1.251 CI: 1.116-1.402).
18 Policies that may improve spatial accessibility to healthcare services should be considered as doing
19 so may improve the ability of individuals to consult healthcare professionals, which could lead to
20 better health outcomes.

21

22 Keywords: spatial accessibility, healthcare utilization, consultations

23

24

1 **1. INTRODUCTION**

2 Healthcare utilization refers to the use of services by individuals to prevent and treat health
3 problems, promote well-being or obtain information about one's health (1). Consulting with a
4 healthcare professional is an important act of health-seeking individuals and can lead to better
5 health outcomes as illnesses can be addressed at an earlier stage or be prevented altogether. To
6 measure healthcare utilization, surveys are administered to the general public to collect self-
7 reported information, an example being the Canadian Community Health Survey. Such surveys
8 allow researchers to track the services that respondents report using over a period of time (e.g. the
9 number of visits to the doctor's office).

10 The utilization of healthcare, according to the Healthcare Utilization Model (2), is affected
11 by predisposing factors, enabling factors, and need. The enabling factors are the policies that are
12 in place that allow individuals to access services. One of the major barriers of access, especially
13 for vulnerable population (3), is the physical distance that separates individuals from the services
14 that they seek, which on a macroscopic level, is the result of both the distribution of healthcare
15 facilities throughout a region as well as the performance of the transport systems, where the level
16 of service provided by the transport system has an impact on the ability of individuals to reach
17 potential destinations within the cost threshold. This topic has been studied under the term of spatial
18 accessibility and it can be measured in the healthcare context using the two-step floating catchment
19 area (2SFCA) method which accounts for both capacity and demand, expressed through the
20 service-to-population ratio, and whether individuals can realistically reach that particular service
21 within a reasonable amount of time. The transport mode taken to access healthcare also strongly
22 influences care utilization as research has shown that, compared to driving or being driven, those
23 who use public transport are less likely to utilize healthcare services and unreliable or infrequent
24 service has resulted in more instances of missed appointments (4). Nonetheless, it is generally
25 found that disadvantaged groups in society rely more heavily on public transport to access services
26 related to their daily needs, highlighting the importance of research on spatial accessibility by
27 public transport.

28 While there have been numerous studies that make use of the 2SFCA method (5-7) to
29 measure accessibility, few have used it to evaluate the effect of spatial accessibility on the
30 realization of healthcare, specifically on health-seeking acts such as consultations. In this study,
31 we examine the relationship between spatial accessibility to hospitals and the likelihood of
32 consultations with a healthcare professional at a hospital using the 2SFCA method, using data
33 obtained for eight Canadian metropolitan regions (Figure 1). Self-reported consultations as well as
34 variables related to their predisposition and needs for healthcare are obtained from the Canadian
35 Community Health Survey (CCHS). Multilevel regression is carried out to model the effect of
36 spatial accessibility on the likelihood of consultations while controlling for predisposing factors
37 (e.g. age, sex, and household size etc.) and healthcare needs of individuals (e.g. presence of chronic
38 conditions and self-perceived health). This study contributes to the literature on healthcare
39 utilization and whether an adequate bed-to-population ratio and good access to hospitals by public
40 transport are positively associated with the likelihood of an individual consulting a healthcare
41 professional



Figure 1 Context map of the eight metropolitan regions in the study

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Health researchers have generally quantified spatial accessibility using relatively simple metrics such as the distance or time to the nearest service (8) or service-to-population ratios which measure the availability of the service once potential demand from the population is accounted for (9). At the same time, transport researchers quantify accessibility as the number of opportunities that can be reached from a point within a time threshold by a specific mode, e.g. number of hospitals that can be reached within 45 minutes by public transport, which is also referred to as cumulative accessibility (10). Other researchers have used gravity-based accessibility measures to account for the increased friction of distance associated with services that are located further away (11). However, cumulative measures are sometimes preferred for their ease of computation and interpretation while being highly correlated with gravity-based measures (12). Recent research has attempted to improve the measure of accessibility to incorporate variability in both the availability of opportunities at different times of the day (13) as well as availability of the transport system (14). However, Cui et al. (15) have shown that the use of more detailed data, which is time and resource-consuming to gather, does not always improve the evaluation of the impact of accessibility on various travel outcomes, such as commute duration and mode choice.

When used by themselves, these measures all have shortcomings: the service-to-population ratio does not consider whether an individual is able to realistically reach the healthcare service and is often calculated at aggregated spatial units too large to be meaningful (16); cumulative and gravity-based as well as distance to service measures do not consider the capacity of the service, i.e. the demand for access to one of 100 beds available at a hospital in a downtown centre is higher compared to one of 100 beds in a less dense suburban area. To address these shortcomings, researchers have developed the two-step floating catchment area (2SFCA) method (5; 6) to control

1 for travel impedance, capacity restrictions and competition effects (9). The 2SFCA method consists
2 of two stages where the service-to-population ratio is first generated for each hospital and then
3 accessibility to hospitals is generated where the service-to-population ratio for each hospital is
4 summed for travel times less than the threshold travel time.

5 There is a significant body of empirical research quantifying spatial accessibility using the
6 2SFCA method (17-20). Some of this research aims to identify healthcare professional shortage
7 areas using methods of spatial analysis (17) where others evaluate whether identified gaps are more
8 pronounced for more disadvantaged groups in society (19; 20). In addition, researchers have
9 examined the spatial accessibility to healthcare by various modes and found that accessibility is
10 greater by car than public transport and walking, implying that limited access to healthcare can also
11 be due to lack of access to a personal vehicle, or to inefficiencies in public transport systems (18).
12 In other words, transport can be a barrier for accessing healthcare, with some studies indicating
13 that individuals living in rural regions have it worse (21).

14 Few studies have evaluated the degree to which spatial accessibility to healthcare influences
15 reported healthcare utilization. Most studies use simple measures of spatial accessibility such as
16 travel distance or time to the care facility (8; 22; 23) which, as mentioned previously, do not
17 account for demand. However, two similar studies (24; 25) make use of the 2SFCA method with
18 a gravity-based accessibility measure to evaluate the role of accessibility to healthcare on the odds
19 of using emergency departments for primary care treatable conditions. In both studies, a lack of
20 resources for primary care was linked to higher rates of preventable hospitalizations.

21 Aside from spatial access, the use of healthcare also depends on the predisposition of the
22 individual to use services as well as their needs for care (2). Higher rates of consultation are
23 observed for females (26; 27) and between age groups, those at the extreme ends of the spectrum
24 exhibit higher consultation rates (26). However, for both sex and age, the difference is minimized
25 when the need for care is accounted for (28). Psychological and attitudinal factors such as perceived
26 susceptibility and perceived costs and benefits from seeking medical care are examples of
27 determinants reflecting the perceived need for care (29). A low perception of one's health is
28 correlated with more consultations (30). In addition, individuals who have chronic conditions that
29 necessitate regular check-ups are more likely to consult general practitioners (26; 31); as are those
30 who have a regular doctor whom they can visit easily (27; 32). Furthermore, utilization patterns
31 differ between income groups for different types of healthcare services, but findings are mixed.
32 Low-income populations have sometimes been linked to lower levels of regular and chronic care
33 service utilization Arcury et al. (21), and sometimes higher consultation rates for most types of
34 services except for preventative services (26). This is consistent with other research indicating that
35 preventive services are not delivered to those with the highest-risk (33).

36 37 **3. DATA AND METHODOLOGY**

38 **3.1 Consultation with healthcare professionals (outcome of interest)**

39 The dependent variable that we are concerned with is whether or not an individual, living in one of
40 the eight Canadian metropolitan regions, has consulted a healthcare professional at a hospital. As
41 consultations can be, in some cases, a voluntary act of health-seeking individuals as opposed to
42 emergent care, it's more worthwhile to examine the impact of spatial accessibility on this type of
43 healthcare service. This information was obtained from the 2012, 2013, and 2014 cycles of the
44 annual component of the Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS) collected by Statistics
45 Canada. The CCHS is a national, cross-sectional survey that collects information related to the
46 health status, healthcare utilization and health determinants for the Canadian population. Each

1 cycle of the survey, which has been conducted annually since 2007, relies on a sample of 65,000
2 participants from all provinces and territories (although not all components of the survey are
3 answered by respondents in all provinces and territories depending on the survey cycle). Sample
4 respondents are selected from the household Canadian population 12 years of age and older with
5 an exclusion rate of 3%.

6 In the survey (where the wording was exactly the same for the three survey cycles that were
7 used), a series of questions were asked regarding consultations with healthcare professionals. First,
8 respondents were asked “[In the last 12 months,] have you seen, or talked to any of the following
9 health professionals about your physical, emotional or mental health” with the healthcare
10 professionals being: a) a family doctor or general practitioner (CHP_03), b) eye specialist
11 (CHP_06), c) other medical doctor or specialist (CHP_08), d) nurse (CHP_11), and e) dentist,
12 dental hygienist or orthodontist (CHP_14).

13 For each healthcare professional category, the respondents were then asked about the
14 frequency of visit in the last 12 months. They were also asked about the location of the most recent
15 contact (consultation) with a family doctor or general practitioner, another medical doctor or
16 specialist, or a nurse. Since the accessibility data that we generated is to beds at a hospital, we
17 consider a respondent as having consulted a healthcare professional at a hospital, if they have
18 consulted with one of these healthcare professionals at a hospital (hospital emergency room or
19 hospital outpatient clinic), as opposed to the other possible locations such as a doctor’s office. A
20 respondent observation was given a value of zero for the dependent variable if they did not consult
21 these healthcare professionals or if they did not do so at a hospital.

22 For each respondent, their measured spatial accessibility (for the census tract of their
23 residence) was matched using the postal code associated with each respondent against a vector data
24 file containing the locations of postal code centroids to identify the census tract that each postal
25 code is located within.

26 **3.2 Spatial accessibility to hospital-based healthcare services**

27 Three data inputs are required to generate accessibility measures to healthcare at the census tract
28 level using the two-step floating catchment area (2SFCA) method: population, supply of healthcare
29 services, and travel time by public transport between census tracts. Population data for each census
30 tract was obtained from the 2016 Census. In this study, we define the supply of healthcare services
31 to be the number of hospital beds staffed and in operation. This information was obtained through
32 the Canadian Institute for Health Information (CIHI) for Canadian provinces in 2015-2016 (34)
33 where the total number of beds associated with each hospital (including emergency rooms,
34 outpatient clinics and specialized care) was provided and then geocoded using a Google API using
35 the hospital name and address. Since this data was not available for Quebec (at the time of analysis),
36 our geographic scope of analysis is limited to eight metropolitan regions, and does not include
37 Ottawa-Gatineau, Montreal and Quebec City.

38 We decided to focus on hospitals as the healthcare service location of interest for two
39 reasons: access to hospitals is generally less restricted across the country (e.g. physicians/family
40 doctors can exercise discretion when choosing to take on patients so meaningful spatial access
41 cannot be generated for these practices) and geographic access to these services implies longer
42 travel distances which would require users to travel via motorized modes such as public transport.
43 Furthermore, the specification of access to the number of beds available at each hospital captures
44 the healthcare supply available to individuals and is a proxy for the level of service provided by
45 the hospital (35).

1 To compute travel time by public transport between census tracts, the General Transit Feed
 2 Specification (GTFS) data containing the scheduled service for May 2017 (or as close as possible
 3 to May 2017) was first obtained from the transport agencies operating in each of the metropolitan
 4 areas. Then, using the *Add GTFS to a network dataset* toolbox in ArcGIS, a joint network between
 5 public transport and streets was created which enabled computation of travel time matrices between
 6 all pairs of census tracts within each metropolitan region. The matrix was computed using fastest
 7 route calculations at 10 a.m. representing off-peak level of service on a regular Tuesday. The public
 8 transport travel time includes access, egress, waiting, in-vehicle, and transfer times as applicable.

9 The first step of the 2SFCA method is to generate the service to population ratio V_j for each
 10 hospital using:

$$11 \quad V_j = \frac{S_j}{\sum_k P_k f(t_{kj})} \text{ and } f(t_{kj}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_{kj} \leq 45 \text{ minutes} \\ 0 & \text{if } t_{kj} > 45 \text{ minutes} \end{cases}$$

12 Where j denotes a hospital, S_j represents the capacity of the hospital (number of beds), P_k is the
 13 population in census tract k and t_{kj} is the travel time between census tract k and hospital j .
 14 $P_k f(t_{kj})$ can therefore be interpreted as the population at location k that can reach the hospital
 15 within 45 minutes by transit, assuming on-board capacity is unrestrained.

16 Then, accessibility to healthcare services A_i is computed by summing the service-to-
 17 population ratios for the hospitals that can be reached from each census tract centroid within 45
 18 minutes:

$$19 \quad A_i = \sum_j V_j f(t_{ji}) \text{ and } f(t_{ji}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t_{ji} \leq 45 \text{ minutes} \\ 0 & \text{if } t_{ji} > 45 \text{ minutes} \end{cases}$$

20 Where i denotes a census tract, V_j is the service-to-population ratio for hospital j , and t_{ji} is the
 21 travel time between j and i via public transport. This measure indicates the number of beds that
 22 can be accessed within the threshold while accounting for the impact of competition as summarized
 23 by the service-to-population ratio. As specialized healthcare is typically provided at the
 24 metropolitan rather than the neighborhood level, the travel time threshold was selected to reflect
 25 regional accessibility where 45 minutes is commonly used in transport planning (36).

26 3.3 Other covariates and model development

27 In addition to the main outcome of interest (accessibility), covariates obtained from the CCHS for
 28 each respondent living in one of the eight metropolitan regions of interest included: socio-
 29 demographic characteristics; self-perceived health; the presence of chronic disease conditions and
 30 whether they lived in an urban or rural area (Table 1). In addition, the survey cycle years (*Year*)
 31 are also included in the model as dummy variables to control for temporal effects.

32 Multilevel mixed effects logit models, extensions of logit regressions to address variability
 33 at both the census tract and region level, were developed to determine the effects of spatial
 34 accessibility of the home census tract, mediated by various socio-demographic characteristics, on
 35 the likelihood of an individual consulting a healthcare professional at a hospital using information
 36 collected in eight metropolitan areas. A three-level multilevel model is appropriate for this study
 37 due to the innately hierarchical structure of the survey data for survey respondents located within
 38 different census tracts within different metropolitan regions. This type of model account for the
 39 variations that occur not only with respondents from the same census tract, but also between census
 40 tracts (Level 2) and between the metropolitan regions (Level 3) considered in the study.
 41 Furthermore, a bootstrap technique was employed to minimize the effects of sampling error that

1 arise when the model is run only once. By drawing samples each with a size n out of N observations
2 with replacement and then repeating the regression process 50 times, we ensure that the models
3 have converged and that the significance and confidence intervals of the explanatory variables are
4 representative of the data.

5 Various trials of multilevel mixed-effects logit regressions models were carried out to test
6 the influence of the various socio-demographic variables. We found that the work status of the
7 respondent and his/her personal education level are correlated with their household income level.
8 As a result, variables related to the work status and personal educational level were removed from
9 the final model. In addition, variables that were found to be insignificant (and did not upset model
10 stability) as well those that did not improve model fit were removed from the final model. These
11 variables include the number of children aged 5 or younger in the household and whether the
12 respondent is a recent immigrant.

13 **4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

14 **4.1 Descriptive analysis**

15 Descriptive statistics of the sample (the population that consulted with a healthcare professional at
16 a hospital) were first conducted (Table 2) where a few trends can be observed. A greater percentage
17 of respondents who live in very high access census tracts, are older than 64, have four people living
18 in the household, have no children aged 5 and or younger under and including the age of 5, are
19 part-time workers, have household income less than \$50,000 CAD, have a post-secondary
20 education, have a negative perception of their health, have a chronic condition or have a regular
21 doctor reported having consulted with a healthcare professional at a hospital. Interestingly, the
22 difference in the percentage of females who consulted compared to males are minimal. However,
23 the subsequent step of regression modelling would provide more accurate results on the influence
24 of each of these variables on the likelihood of consultation, while controlling for the influence of
25 all others.

26

27

1 **TABLE 1 Variables used from the 2012, 2013, and 2014 cycles of CCHS**

Variable	Description	Coding	Question in CCHS
Access	Accessibility to hospitals in 45 minutes	0...99.975	N/A
Age	Age of the respondent	12, ...,102	DHH_AGE
HHsize	Number of persons in the household	0, ..., 14	DHHDHSZ
Sex	Sex of the respondent	1 = female 0= male	DHH_SEX
HH5yr	Number of children 5 years old or younger in the household	0, ..., 4	DHHDLE5
Work status	Work status of the respondent	1 = full-time 0 = part-time	LBSDPFT
Recent immigrant	Whether the respondent immigrated to Canada within 5 years of the year of the survey	1 = recent immigrant 0 = not recent immigrant	Coded using SDCFIMM
HHincome	Household income of the respondent	1 = none to \$49,999 2 = \$50,000 to \$99,999 3 = more than \$100,000	Coded using INCDHH
Pers. Edu.	Highest education level of the respondent	1 = Less than secondary 2 = secondary 3 = post-secondary	Coded using EDUDR04
Pos. Health	Whether the respondent has a positive perception of his/her general health	1 = good, very good, excellent 0 = poor, fair	Coded using GENDHDI
Chronic	Whether the respondent has a chronic condition*	1 = has a chronic condition 0 = does not have a chronic condition	CCC_031 – CCC_290
Regular Doc	Whether the respondent has a regular medical doctor	1 = has a regular doctor 0 = does not have a regular doctor	HCU_1AA

2 *Chronic conditions include asthma, arthritis, back problems, high blood pressure, migraine headaches, COPD, diabetes, heart
3 disease, cancer, stomach or intestinal ulcers, effects of stroke, urinary incontinence, bowel disorder, Alzheimer’s disease or
4 dementia, mood disorder, anxiety disorder, fibromyalgia (2013 & 2014), scoliosis (2013 & 2014), chronic fatigue (2013 & 2014),
5 and chemical sensitivities (2013 & 2014)

6
7

1 **TABLE 2 Descriptive statistics of the population that consulted with a healthcare**
 2 **professional at a hospital in past 12 months, CCHS 2012, 2013, and 2014 cycles**

	Variable	Observations	Consulted a professional at a hospital (%)
Access	< 45 th percentile	26,589	12.5
	45 th to 90 th percentile	27,524	12.4
	> 90 th percentile	5,645	14.3
Year	2012	14,630	12.2
	2013	15,100	12.3
	2014	30,028	13.0
Age category	12-17	464	9.7
	18-24	4,657	9.9
	25-64	31,960	12.1
	65+	16,099	15.6
HHsize category	1	15,277	12.8
	2	20,300	12.4
	3	9,149	13.8
	4	9,730	14.5
	5+	5,302	11.7
Sex	Female	33,002	9.6
	Male	26,756	9.4
HH5yr category	0	53,301	12.9
	1	4,497	10.8
	2	1,748	8.5
	3+	212	10.4
Work status	Full-time	24,340	11.0
	Part-time	6,026	12.5
Recent immigrant	Yes	1,982	6.9
	No	15,847	11.2
HHincome category	0 to 49,999	21,440	13.4
	50,000 to 99,999	19,969	12.1
	> 100,000	18,349	12.2
Pers. Edu.	< Secondary	11,367	11.4
	Secondary	14,158	12.5
	Post-secondary	32,995	13.1
Pos. Health	Yes	52,150	11.1
	No	7,491	24.4
Chronic	Yes	35,361	16.3
	No	24,397	7.7
Regular Doc	Yes	54,513	13.0
	No	5,185	8.8

3

4

4.2 Statistical analysis

The aim of this paper is to understand the relationship between accessibility by public transport to hospitals and the likelihood of consultations with a healthcare professional within these hospitals. Results of the multilevel logit regression (Table 3) show that living in a census tract with higher spatial accessibility increased an individual's odds of consultation with a healthcare professional at a hospital, while controlling for predisposing and need factors. Specifically, we found that a one unit increase in accessibility (one additional bed/1000 individuals) is associated with an increased likelihood of hospital consultation of 1.2%.

This result has two implications for professionals. The availability of healthcare services, measured using a service-to-population ratio, considers the balance between supply of services and potential competition between users. In other words, either the supply of services at the hospitals (proxied by the number of beds) or the demand from individuals within reach of the hospital can be managed. On the supply side, an increase in the number of beds or variety of services at hospitals can be beneficial to improve the consultation rates of health-seeking individuals. On the demand side, while it is undesirable to reduce competition for these services by limiting certain individuals' access to them, measures can be taken to manage the demand. For example, healthcare service providers can ensure that individuals are informed of the availability of beds or services at all nearby hospitals to distribute demand more appropriately.

On the other hand, adequate access to healthcare is also dependent on the quality of the transport system. As planners advocate for the use of public transport as opposed to private vehicles, it is important to consider its implications on access to healthcare and subsequent impacts on individuals' health outcomes. When public transport is unreliable or infrequent, (37) this makes it difficult for users to reach facilities on time for appointments or treatments. This issue is particularly evident for those who are older or have lower income and therefore less likely to have access to a personal vehicle. Therefore, improvements in transport services may be a way to improving public transport accessibility. As well, it is important to recognize healthcare facilities as key destinations to be connected to the existing system when planning for system expansions in order to improve access to these facilities.

Regarding the predisposing and need factors, we found that older individuals were not more likely to consult (based on a linear relationship) despite results from the summary statistics shown in Table 2. This finding has been observed by Nabalamba and Millar (27) as well where they cite that this is perhaps due to the inclusion of other factors in the model that better address the need for consultations like the presence of chronic conditions which are more prevalent in older individuals. We also found that females were not more likely than males to consult and this finding has been attributed to the inclusion of need-based factors a well where researchers found that after accounting for medications for common morbidities, the difference between the consultation rates of the two sexes diminish (28). In addition, it is possible that by limiting the location of consultations in the present study to hospitals could have impacted these results.

Moreover, the likelihood of consultation did differ between income groups and a consultation gradient was observed where, compared to the low-income, the middle- and high-income households, were more likely to consult for healthcare although the difference was less pronounced for middle-income households. This finding has been previously observed as well (27). While this is contrary to what was observed in Table 2, this may demonstrate that there are additional factors at play that when controlled for, decrease the likelihood of consulting for the low-income group. In addition, household size has a negative impact on consultations where an increase of one additional person decreases the likelihood of consultation by 4.7%. As expected, having a positive perception of one's health status decreases the likelihood of consultation

1 significantly by around 50% whereas the presence of a chronic condition greatly increases the
 2 likelihood of consultations by 86%. Lastly, having a regular doctor increases the likelihood of
 3 consultations at a hospital by 25% as individuals with regular doctors are more likely to have more
 4 health problems (27), so even if they have a family doctor as their regular doctor, they would be
 5 more likely to visit a hospital for a consultation with a specialist or other professional other than
 6 their regular doctor. Note that the survey year did not affect the likelihood of consultation and these
 7 cycle variables were dropped from the final model output.

8 **TABLE 3 Results of multilevel mixed-effects logit regression model**

Variable	Odds Ratio		95% CI	
Access	1.012	***	1.005	1.020
Age	0.999		0.998	1.001
HHsize	0.953	***	0.929	0.978
Sex (ref. = male)	0.973		0.919	1.030
HHincome (ref. = low)				
<i>Middle</i>	1.073	*	0.996	1.156
<i>High</i>	1.205	***	1.109	1.309
Pos. Health (ref. = negative)	0.526	***	0.491	0.563
Chronic (ref. = no)	1.860	***	1.747	1.981
Regular Doc (ref. = no)	1.251	***	1.116	1.402
Constant	0.109	***	0.089	0.132
No. of observations	59,581			
Log likelihood	-20169			
AIC BIC	40365.82 40491.75			
Intraclass correlation	Estimate	Std. Err.	95% CI	
<i>ctuid</i>	3.21E-33	4.43E-18	.	1
<i>cma/ctuid</i>	0.077	0.006	0.066	0.090
Random-effects parameters	Estimate	Std. Err. [†]	95% CI [†]	
<i>Var. of level two intercept</i>	1.15E-32	0.122	.	.
<i>Var. of level three intercept</i>	0.274	0.132	0.106	0.706

9 * p<0.05 ** p<0.01 *** p<0.001

10 [†] Bootstrapped standard error and confidence interval

11 **5. CONCLUSION**

12 This study examines the association of spatial accessibility to hospitals by public transport with the
 13 likelihood of the last medical consultation with a medical doctor or nurse at a hospital using data
 14 for eight Canadian metropolitan regions. We used the preferred method for measuring spatial
 15 accessibility – the two-step floating catchment area (2SFCA) method – to account for both the
 16 supply and demand for healthcare as quantified by the service-to-population ratio and the
 17 performance of the public transport system. A multi-level logit regression model was then
 18 developed to estimate the impact of accessibility, while controlling for factors reflecting the
 19 individual predisposition to seek healthcare and the need for care, on the likelihood of hospital
 20 consultations. Self-reported consultations and socio-demographic information were obtained from

1 multiple cycles of the Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS) for respondents residing in the
2 eight metropolitan regions.

3 This study confirms that spatial accessibility was positively associated with the likelihood
4 of consultations where an one unit (one bed/1000 individuals) increase in accessibility correlated
5 to a 1.2% increase in the likelihood of an individual consulting a healthcare professional at a
6 hospital, after controlling for the effects of other determinants of healthcare utilization related to
7 individual characteristics and their need for healthcare. We also observed a positive income
8 gradient. Age and sex were not significant variables, as observed in other studies when the need
9 for healthcare, whether perceived or real, are accounted for. Regarding need, a positive perception
10 of health, the existence of chronic conditions and access to a regular doctor were strong predictors
11 of hospital consultations.

12 However, there is potentially still a disconnect between spatial accessibility and healthcare
13 utilization as individuals may not be aware of their actual spatial accessibility and, for various
14 reasons, have a different perception of the accessibility of their home location to healthcare than
15 the one that can be measured. As mentioned in Section 2, researchers can obtain information about
16 individual's perceived access to healthcare using surveys that are specific to this topic. Future
17 studies should capitalize on this information to examine whether measured spatial accessibility
18 (e.g. computed using the 2SFCA method) corresponds with individuals' perceptions of
19 accessibility. If there is a significant mismatch between the two, further improvements to improve
20 their objective spatial access may not necessarily be effective and more analysis is needed to
21 decipher the real reasons for the perceived barrier when there isn't one.

22 There are certain limitations associated with the data and methodologies employed in this
23 study. While we considered accessibility to hospitals at 10 a.m. when public transport is operating
24 at a lower level of service to reflect a more realistic view of the behavior of health-seeking
25 individuals who may schedule non-emergent appointments at off-peak times, it may be valuable to
26 examine the impact of accessibility on utilization at different times of day, including at night. In
27 addition, a squared age variable should be incorporated in the model to demonstrate the potential
28 difference between the consultation likelihood for very young and very old individuals. As well,
29 the interaction between the socio-demographic variables and accessibility can be examined further
30 in the model to reveal additional changes in the income gradient. Also, while consultations do occur
31 frequently at hospitals, it may be even more valuable to examine whether spatial accessibility to
32 other facilities for consultations including doctor's offices and clinics has a different effect on the
33 likelihood of consultations. In addition, the use of hospital beds to reflect the capacity of hospitals
34 may not be completely suitable when examining the likelihood of consultations where beds are not
35 necessarily needed. However, information about more relevant indicators such as the number of
36 doctors or services available were not available to us but would be useful in future studies. Lastly,
37 it is important to note that the CCHS does not specify the type of consultation that was done but
38 this information would be useful for future studies to reveal additional socio-demographic
39 differences, particularly between sexes and age groups, on the likelihood of consultations for
40 different purposes.

41 This research demonstrates the important role that spatial accessibility plays to enable
42 individuals to access healthcare services. Particularly, better spatial accessibility to hospitals may
43 lead to higher rates of healthcare consultations and this could have far-reaching implications for
44 public health: as more individuals, particularly those with chronic health conditions or with higher
45 needs for care, are able to consult healthcare professionals, it may be more likely that illnesses can
46 be addressed early on to improve overall quality of life and to alleviate stress on the healthcare
47 system. At the same time, it is unlikely that increased spatial accessibility would induce

1 unnecessary trips as the impact of perceived health is a stronger determinant of consultations in the
2 context of this study. Moreover, more equitable spatial accessibility could be a mechanism to
3 reduce disparities in health between advantaged and disadvantaged groups.

4 **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

5 This study was conducted with the financial support of the Canadian Social Sciences and
6 Humanities Research Council. This research was also supported by funds to the Canadian Research
7 Data Centre Network (CRDCN) from the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council
8 (SSHRC), the Canadian Institute for Health Research (CIHR), the Canadian Foundation for
9 Innovation (CFI), and Statistics Canada. Although the research and analysis are based on data from
10 Statistic Canada, the opinions expressed do not represent the views of Statistics Canada. The
11 authors would like to thank the McGill-Concordia Laboratory of the Quebec Inter-University
12 Centre for Social Statistics (QICSS) for providing the microdata for the Canadian Community
13 Health Survey. The authors would also like to thank Robbin Deboosere for generating the public
14 transport travel time matrix.

15 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS**

16 The authors confirm contribution to the paper as follows: study conception and design: Boisjoly,
17 Wasfi, Orpana, Manaugh, Buliung, Kestens, & El-Geneidy; data collection: Cui, Boisjoly, Wasfi,
18 Orpana, Kestens, & El-Geneidy; analysis and interpretation of results: Cui, Boisjoly, Wasfi & El-
19 Geneidy; draft manuscript preparation Cui, Wasfi, Orpana, Manaugh, Buliung, Kestens, & El-
20 Geneidy. All authors reviewed the results and approved the final version of the manuscript.

21 **REFERENCES**

- 22 [1] Carrasquillo, O. Health Care Utilization. In *Encyclopedia of Behavioral Medicine*, Springer,
23 New York, NY, 2013.
- 24 [2] Andersen, R. *A behavioral model of families' use of health services*. Center for Health
25 Administration Studies, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, 1968.
- 26 [3] Williamson, D., M. Stewart, K. Hayward, N. Letourneau, E. Makwarimba, J. Masuda, K. Raine,
27 L. Reutter, I. Rootman, and D. Wilson. Low-income Canadians' experiences with health-related
28 services: implications for health care reform. *Health Policy*, Vol. 76, No. 1, 2006, pp. 106-121.
- 29 [4] Silver, D., J. Blustein, and B. Weitzman. Transportation to clinic: Findings from a pilot clinic-
30 based survey of low-income suburbanites. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health/Center for*
31 *Minority Public Health*, Vol. 14, No. 2, 2012, pp. 350-355.
- 32 [5] Joseph, A. E., and P. R. Bantock. Measuring potential physical accessibility to general
33 practitioners in rural areas: A method and case study. *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 16, 1982,
34 pp. 85 - 90.
- 35 [6] Luo, W., and F. Wang. Measures of spatial accessibility to health care in a GIS environment:
36 synthesis and a case study in the Chicago region. *Environment and Planning B: Planning and*
37 *Design*, Vol. 30, 2003, pp. 865 - 884.
- 38 [7] McGrail, M. R., and J. S. Humphreys. Measuring spatial accessibility to primary care in rural
39 areas: Improving the effectiveness of the two-step floating catchment area method. *Applied*
40 *Geography*, Vol. 29, 2009, pp. 533 – 541.
- 41 [8] Goodman, D., E. Fisher, T. Stukel, and C. Chang. The distance to community medical care and
42 the likelihood of hospitalization: is closer always better? *American Journal of Public Health*, Vol.
43 87, No. 7, 1997, pp. 1144-1150.

- 1 [9] Neutens, T. Accessibility, equity and health care: Review and research directions for transport
2 geographers. *Journal of Transport Geography*, Vol. 43, 2015, pp. 14 - 27.
- 3 [10] Wickstrom, G. Defining balanced transportation: A question of opportunity. *Traffic Quarterly*,
4 Vol. 25, No. 3, 1971, pp. 337-349.
- 5 [11] Weibull, J. An axiomatic approach to the measurement of accessibility. *Regional Science and*
6 *Urban Economics*, Vol. 6, 1976, pp. 357 - 379.
- 7 [12] El-Geneidy, A., and D. Levinson. *Access to Destinations: Development of Accessibility*
8 *Measures*. University of Minnesota Digital Conservancy, Minneapolis, MN.
9 <http://hdl.handle.net/11299/638>.
- 10 [13] Boisjoly, G., and A. El-Geneidy. Daily fluctuations in transit and jobs availability: A
11 comparative assessment of time-sensitive accessibility measures. *Journal of Transport Geography*,
12 Vol. 52, 2016, pp. 73-81.
- 13 [14] Stepniak, M., J. Pritchard, and K. Geurs. The impact of temporal resolution on public transport
14 accessibility measurement: Review and case study in Poland. *Journal of Transport Geography*,
15 Vol. 75, 2019, pp. 8-24.
- 16 [15] Cui, B., E. Grise, A. Stewart, and A. El-Geneidy. Measuring the added effectiveness of using
17 detailed spatial and temporal data in generating accessibility measures. *Transport Findings*, 2019.
- 18 [16] Guagliardo, M. F. Spatial accessibility of primary care: concepts, methods and challenges.
19 *International Journal of Health Geographics*, Vol. 3, No. 3, 2004.
- 20 [17] Luo, W. Using a GIS-based floating catchment method to assess areas with shortage of
21 physicians. *Health & Place*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 2004, pp. 1-11.
- 22 [18] Khakh, A., V. Fast, and R. Shahid. Spatial accessibility to primary healthcare services by
23 multimodal means of travel: Synthesis and case study in the City of Calgary. *International journal*
24 *of environmental research and public health*, Vol. 16, No. 2, 2019, p. E170.
- 25 [19] Bissonnette, L., K. Wilson, S. Bell, and T. I. Shah. Neighbourhoods and potential access to
26 health care: The role of spatial and aspatial factors. *Health & Place*, Vol. 18, 2012, pp. 841 - 853.
- 27 [20] Shah, T. I., S. Bell, and K. Wilson. Spatial accessibility to health care services: Identifying
28 under-serviced neighbourhoods in Canadian urban areas
29 *PLoS ONE*, Vol. 11, No. 12, 2016, p. 0168208.
- 30 [21] Arcury, T., J. Preisser, W. Gesler, and J. Power. Access to transportation and health care
31 utilization in a rural region. *Journal of Rural Health*, Vol. 21, No. 1, 2006, pp. 31-38.
- 32 [22] Al-Taiar, A., A. Clark, J. Longenecker, and C. Whitty. Physical accessibility and utilization
33 of health services in Yemen. *International Journal of Health Geographics*, Vol. 9, No. 1, 2010, p.
34 38.
- 35 [23] Stentzel, U., J. Bahr, D. Fredrich, J. Piegsa, W. Hoffmann, and N. van den Berg. Is there an
36 association between spatial accessibility of outpatient care and utilization? Analysis of
37 gynecological and general care. *BMC Health Services Research*, Vol. 18, No. 1, 2018, p. 322.
- 38 [24] Fishman, J., S. McLafferty, and W. Galanter. Does spatial access to primary care affect
39 emergency department utilization for nonemergent conditions? *Health Services Research*, Vol. 53,
40 No. 1, 2016, pp. 489-508.
- 41 [25] Huang, Y., P. Meyer, and L. Jin. Neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics, healthcare
42 spatial access, and emergency department visits for ambulatory care sensitive conditions for
43 elderly. *Preventive Medicine Reports*, Vol. 12, 2018, pp. 101-105.
- 44 [26] Carr-Hill, R., N. Rice, and M. Roland. Socioeconomic determinants of rates of consultation in
45 general practice based on fourth national morbidity survey of general practices. *British Medical*
46 *Journal*, Vol. 312, No. 7037, 1996, pp. 1008-1012.

- 1 [27] Nabalamba, A., and W. Millar. Going to the doctor. *Health Reports*, Vol. 18, No. 1, 2007, pp.
2 23-35.
- 3 [28] Wang, Y., K. Hunt, I. Nazareth, N. Freemantle, and I. Petersen. Do men consult less than
4 women? An analysis of routinely collected UK general practice data. *BMJ Open*, Vol. 3, 2013, p.
5 003320.
- 6 [29] Campbell, S., and M. Roland. Why do people consult the doctor? *Family Practice*, Vol. 13,
7 No. 1, 1996, pp. 75-83.
- 8 [30] Kapur, N., I. Hunt, M. Lunt, J. McBeth, F. Creed, and G. Macfarlane. Psychosocial and illness
9 related predictors of consultation rates in primary care – a cohort study. *Psychological Medicine*,
10 Vol. 34, 2004, pp. 719-728.
- 11 [31] Andersson, H., G. Ejlertsson, I. Leden, and B. Schersten. Impact of chronic pain on health
12 care seeking, self care, and medication: Results from a population-based Swedish study. *Journal*
13 *of Epidemiol Community Health*, Vol. 53, No. 8, 1999, pp. 503-509.
- 14 [32] Xu, K. Usual source of care in preventive service use: A regular doctor versus a regular site.
15 *Health Services Research*, Vol. 37, No. 6, 2002, pp. 1509-1529.
- 16 [33] Haynes, R. Inequalities in health and health service use: Evidence from the General Household
17 Survey. *Social Science and Medicine*, Vol. 33, No. 4, 1991, pp. 361-368.
- 18 [34] Canadian Institute for Health Information. Hospital beds staffed and in operation, 2015-
19 2016. In, Ottawa, 2016.
- 20 [35] McCord, C., D. Ozgediz, and J. Beard. General Surgical Emergencies. In *Essential Surgery:*
21 *Disease Control Priorities, Third Edition, No. 1*, The International Bank for Reconstruction and
22 Development / The World Bank, Washington, D.C., 2015.
- 23 [36] Boisjoly, G., and A. El-Geneidy. How to get there? A critical assessment of accessibility
24 objectives and indicators in metropolitan transportation plans. *Transport Policy*, Vol. 55, 2017, pp.
25 38-50.
- 26 [37] Mattson, J. Transportation, distance, and health care utilization for older adults in rural and
27 small urban areas. *Journal of the Transportation Research Board*, Vol. 2265, 2011, pp. 192-199.

28