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# Health Care for All in Ireland? The Consequences of Politics for Health Policy

Vivienne<sup>Q1</sup> Byers

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*The Irish health-care system is a complicated mix of public and private providers, with inequitable and unclear routes for health service users to access and navigate the system. In 2011, the Irish Government committed to significant health reform to develop a universal single-tier health system. In line with other European nations this was to be underpinned by the principle of social solidarity, with equitable access based on need rather than ability to pay. The road to this reform and its recent collapse highlights the practical implications of political and policy choices in health care, and has implications for financing and delivery, but ultimately for the delivery of national public health.*

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**KEY WORDS:** health policy, universal health care, public health, politics, health reform

## Background

Ireland is a small country on the western edge of Europe with a population of about 4.6 million. It has a modern, trade-dependent economy, and has been subject to an austerity program since the recession of 2008 until very recently. Before then, Ireland had enjoyed one of the highest economic growth rates in Europe, as between 2005 and 2008 public expenditure rose by nearly 40 percent (Thomson, Jowett, & Mladovsky, 2014). Despite this growth, the Irish health-care system has remained chronically underfunded for decades, as well as plagued by increasing waiting lists due to limited access to services (Pillinger, 2012). Crucial health-care delivery issues have included lack of resources such as limited public hospital capacity, as well as failure to develop community and primary care services sufficiently. This has led to inadequate provision in areas such as mental health, chronic disease management, with limited emphasis on health promotion and preventative work (Byers, 2009; Pillinger, 2012).

The health-care system in Ireland is a complicated mix of public and private providers, with inequitable and unclear routes for service users to access and navigate the system. In 2011, the government committed to significant health policy reform to develop a universal single-tier health system underpinned by the principle of social solidarity, with equitable access based on need rather than

1 ability to pay. In 2012, the concept of “universalism” was confirmed in the  
2 national health strategy outlining the government’s ambition to deliver “universal  
3 primary care” and “universal hospital care” (Department of Health [DOH], 2012,  
4 pi). The World Health Report’s (WHO, 2010) definition of Universal Health Care  
5 or Universal Health Coverage (UHC) is that “all people have access to services  
6 and do not suffer financial hardship paying for them.” According to the WHO  
7 (2013), UHC consists of three inter-related components: (i) access to the full  
8 spectrum of quality health services based on need; (ii) financial protection from  
9 direct payment for health services when consumed; and (iii) coverage for the  
10 population. The Irish reform represented the most comprehensive overhaul of  
11 Irish health care since the establishment of the State.

12 The objectives of this paper are to chart the path of this reform policy from  
13 its inception to its collapse late in 2015, as well as to examine the implications  
14 for national politics, health policy, financing and delivery of health care, and  
15 ultimately for universal access to health care and the right to public health for  
16 the citizen. This is achieved through a review of the UHI reform policy  
17 documentation and the health-care context in Ireland. It also posits possible  
18 explanations through the utilization of institutional theory and an exploration  
19 of the influence of prevailing logics and governance systems, which can both  
20 facilitate and hinder such reform. These logics at societal level are created by  
21 government and embed in policies that cascade down to organizations.  
22 However, if powerful actors in the field support prevailing institutional logics,  
23 they can maintain the status quo through provision of rules of action and  
24 interpretations that guide and constrain decision makers (Thornton & Ocasio,  
25 2008). Thus, a picture of a contested policy implementation process is drawn,  
26 and this paper looks to learn from this experience in the context of the wider  
27 European reform process.

## 28 **The Policy Context**

29 From 2008 to 2014 Ireland was in the eye of a severe recession. By 2011,  
30 Ireland’s gross national product (GNP) had fallen by nearly 20 percent (Central  
31 Statistics Office [CSO], 2011, 2012). Within the European Union (EU), only Latvia,  
32 Italy, Estonia, and Greece faced recessions of greater severity (Keegan, Thomas,  
33 Normand, & Portela, 2013). Ireland’s crisis was contributed to by the international  
34 financial crisis but primarily originated from poor national fiscal and public  
35 policy choices (Burke, Thomas, Barry, & Keegan, 2014). In 2010, the budget deficit  
36 reached 32.4 percent of GDP—the world’s largest national deficit as a percentage  
37 of GDP (Eurostat, 2011). By late 2010, the Irish government was forced to accept a  
38 bailout with financial and governance constraints from a “troika” (comprising the  
39 [EU], International Monetary Fund [IMF], European Central Bank [ECB]) totaling  
40 €85 billion (Department of Finance [DOF], 2011). The National Economic and  
41 Social Council (NESC) in 2009 described Ireland as undergoing a number of  
42 crises; not only in banking, the economy and public finances but also socially and  
43 in terms of national status (NESC, 2009).  
44  
45

1 Ireland's health-care system has been under pressure as a result of the  
2 austerity regime. From 2009 to 2013 financing of the Health Service Executive  
3 (HSE—Ireland's national health-care delivery organization) fell by 22 percent  
4 amounting to almost €3.3 billion less in public funding (Thomas, Burke, & Barry,  
5 2014). Staffing of public services fell by 10 percent from its peak in 2007 (Thomas  
6 et al., 2014). As a result health coverage for patients older than 70 years was  
7 reduced, prescription charges were introduced for low-income households,  
8 services were reduced, and additional out-of-pocket payments and charges were  
9 announced. These types of measures affected access to care and increased waiting  
10 lists (Karanikolos et al., 2013). This "crisis" in Irish health care led to a public  
11 outcry and the incoming government in 2011 promised a whole-scale reform of  
12 the health-care system as part of their policy platform <sup>Q2</sup>(Programme for National  
13 Recovery, 2011). However, from 2012 to 2013 on despite the new reform agenda,  
14 Ireland continued to experience increased rationing and declining breadth and  
15 depth of coverage in health-care provision similar to Greece, Portugal, and Spain  
16 <sup>Q3</sup>(other "bail out" countries) (McKee, Karanikolos, Belcher, & Stuckler, 2012;  
17 Mladovsky et al., 2012).

### 18 **The Irish Health-Care System: The Political Context**

19  
20  
21 Irish health care is predominantly tax funded with centrally administered  
22 national health service delivery through the HSE. Total health spending  
23 accounted for 8.1 percent of GDP in Ireland in 2012, less than the OECD average  
24 of 8.9 percent (OECD, 2015). Health spending as a share of GDP is much lower in  
25 Ireland than in the United States (which spent 16.9 percent of its GDP on health)  
26 and in a number of European countries including the Netherlands, France,  
27 Switzerland, and Germany (all allocating over 11 percent) (OECD, 2015). There  
28 was a significant drop in this health spend of 4.3 percent between 2009 and 2013,  
29 second only to Greece (OECD, 2015).

30 Ireland's Health Act of 1970 established that individuals are responsible for  
31 the costs of their own health care except in cases where this would cause that  
32 individual "undue hardship" (Byers, 2009). However, there is no express  
33 recognition of health as a human right in the Irish Constitution or legislation, as it  
34 would be seen to create an obligation upon the state to provide free health care  
35 (Irish Human Rights Commission, 2005). This is unlike many of Ireland's  
36 European neighbors whose health systems are underpinned by the principle of  
37 social solidarity. One of the critical features of Irish health care is the difficulty in  
38 balancing the relationship between public and private provision. This differs  
39 considerably from its European counterparts where a substantial amount of  
40 private health care takes place within the state-funded public hospital infrastruc-  
41 ture. This has led to inequity in access to resources and public taxation support of  
42 private provision (Amnesty International, 2011). According to the CSO in 2014 the  
43 percentage of the population with private health insurance plans stood at about  
44 44 percent, down from the 2008 peak of 50.9 percent <sup>Q4</sup>(CSO, 2014). However, this  
45 private voluntary health insurance often does not fully cover services or hospital

1 stays and requires further contributions toward the cost of services utilized  
2 (Health Insurance Authority [HIA], 2012). Additionally, health insurance costs for  
3 consumers have risen significantly over the period 2007–12 with the average  
4 annual premium increasing by 56 percent <sup>Q5</sup>(Independent Report to the Minister  
5 for Health and Health Insurance Council, 2013).

6 Ireland is considered unique among EU countries in not having universal  
7 coverage for primary care. Primary care is delivered by private providers (general  
8 practitioners [GPs]) and eligibility for free care is determined via a means-tested  
9 medical card system. As of 2014, nearly 40 percent of the population, or 1.8  
10 million people were able to access public services free of charge, as they were  
11 covered by a medical card (HSE, 2014). This means-tested coverage had increased  
12 by almost 45 percent over the decade 2000–10, and by nearly 5 percent between  
13 2010 and 2011 due to decreases in income levels across the population (HSE,  
14 2012). A study by the Irish Pharmacy Union (IPU, 2015) noted that there were  
15 significant differences between Medical Cardholders and non-cardholders in  
16 visiting a GP or getting a prescription. Thus, many working-age residents in the  
17 middle of the Irish income spectrum who are neither old nor poor enough to  
18 be eligible for the free Medical/GP Visit Card scheme, also find themselves  
19 unable to afford health insurance, and are disadvantaged in the current Irish  
20 health-care system.

21 As a result, Ireland has a complex system of health care, in which people on  
22 lower middle or middle incomes struggle to access needed care, while people  
23 with private health insurance get preferential access to care in public hospitals or  
24 to higher-quality treatment in the separate private hospital sector, albeit often  
25 with additional co-payments (Bidgood, 2013). From a primary care perspective  
26 there are limited incentives to access preventative care for over 60 percent of the  
27 population. This complex mix of care has resulted in a “historic” rather than  
28 needs based resource allocation system, cost over runs, inequitable access; public  
29 care waiting lists and a poorly developed primary-care system (Pillinger, 2012).

### 30 **The Irish Health-Care System: The Ethics of Rationing**

31 The dilemma for national health-care systems in times of austerity is the  
32 fairness of health-care distribution across the population. Ireland’s health-care  
33 system during the recession experienced severe budget cuts, a growing popula-  
34 tion, and increased inequitable access. According to the Irish Health Information  
35 and Quality Authority (HIQA, 2013), the recession led to a form of rationing by  
36 delay in the public health-care system, as demand for care could not be satisfied  
37 from within available resources, resulting in waiting lists for specialist assess-  
38 ment, as well as for treatments and procedures. Rationing of care can be  
39 described as denying a potentially beneficial treatment to a patient on the  
40 grounds of scarcity (Scheunemann & White, 2011). Such rationing according to  
41 Teutsch and Rechel (2012) can affect three dimensions of coverage: (i) the share of  
42 the population covered (eligibility); (ii) the services covered; and (iii) the extent to  
43 which these services are covered (scope). This raises questions about fairness in  
44  
45

1 the equitable distribution of resources and what ethical principles should guide  
2 such distribution.

3 It can be difficult for stakeholders in health-care systems to agree the  
4 principles that should guide rationing. Some countries attempt to depoliticize  
5 decisions regarding rationing by using health technology assessments through  
6 dedicated agencies (Teutsch & Rechel, 2012). In the Irish context, HIQA was  
7 established to drive improvement in health services and to monitor the safety,  
8 and quality of these services as an independent authority. They have compiled  
9 guidance documents in order to ensure that ethical principles are considered in  
10 health technology assessment (HIQA, 2012, 2013). HIQA (2013) notes that in the  
11 Irish context, allocation needs to take into account a range of ethical consider-  
12 ations including fairness, respect for autonomy, responding to individual need, and  
13 benefiting the wider population. They cite Butler (1999) who recommends that the  
14 structure and organization of health care should not be left to chance or interest, but  
15 must be planned and implemented in ways that make explicit the principle of  
16 justice. However, the ethics of fair health-care distribution had not been addressed  
17 as such at a national policy level; rather the focus of the political and policy  
18 discourse was on the optimum use of available resources, through cutting waste  
19 and increasing spending efficiency (Briggs, 2013).

20 The Institute of Medicine's Committee on the Consequences of Uninsurance  
21 (2004) identified the five key principles for guiding fair and just coverage.  
22 However, they cited the first principle as the fundamental one; namely that  
23 health-care coverage should be universal. The others were not ranked but  
24 included that coverage should be continuous, affordable, and funded so as to be  
25 sustainable for society and enhance health and well-being through promoting  
26 access to care. Thus, the critical political question articulated by the new Irish  
27 government in 2011 was how to implement and operate health services in order  
28 to improve access and improve population health. The Department of Health  
29 (DOH, 2014) recognized that the two-tier system was undermining the develop-  
30 ment of a modern, responsive, and sustainable health service. It is within this  
31 context that the government sought to introduce large scale reform espousing the  
32 principle of universal access through the vehicle of UHI in Irish health care.

### 33 34 **A Policy Window Opens**

35  
36 The Irish Government (2011–16) identified in their Programme for Govern-  
37 ment the aim to introduce universal health insurance (UHI), and thus, UHC  
38 access during the life time of their term in office. In November 2012, they  
39 published their strategy document; *Future Health: A Strategic Framework for*  
40 *Reform of the Health Service 2012–2015.* Their vision was that of a single-tier health  
41 service which promoted health and well-being to be achieved through UHI  
42 (DOH, 2013, p. 10).

43 The White Paper (DOH, 2014) outlined how the insurance component of the  
44 reform would operate in mandating Irish residents to take out private health  
45 insurance, which would cover a standard basket of services (including primary

1 and acute care). The composition of this basket was never fully determined and  
2 remained unspecified in documentation (Wren, Connolly, & Cunningham, 2015).  
3 The outline plan was that those on low incomes would have their premiums paid  
4 for by the State. For those already holding private insurance they would continue  
5 to pay premiums and access a wider range of services (including primary care)  
6 but they would not be fast tracked in access to health services. Purchasing of  
7 health-care services was to be devolved to insurers through commissioning care  
8 for their members from primary care providers, independent not-for-profit  
9 hospital trusts, and private hospitals. In doing this, they would have a duty to  
10 use their purchasing role to ensure the provision of quality, continuous care  
11 across settings (DOH, 2013, 2014). The White Paper also proposed that there  
12 would be reserve powers to cap insurer profits, expenses, cost of capital, and  
13 claims. The aim was that the UHI system would create incentives for managed  
14 competition between providers and insurers that would encourage the most  
15 efficient use of health care (Society of Actuaries in Ireland [SAI], 2014). Deploying  
16 an institutional perspective can reveal the use of such reforms as legitimating  
17 devices, appearing egalitarian and in the best public interest such as “universal  
18 health care,” yet underpinning the policy vision is a set of proposed governance  
19 structures with a strong market and managerial logic (Scott, Martin, Peter, &  
20 Carol, 2000). However, according to the DOH (2012) this represented the most  
21 comprehensive reform of Irish health care since the establishment of the State. If  
22 Ireland had successfully completed this transition, it would have been a  
23 significant event in European health policy, as it would have represented an  
24 example of a democracy with a long-established tax-financed centralized health-  
25 care system subsequently decentralizing and switching over to a universal  
26 insurance model (Bidgood, 2013).

27 There are a number of perspectives that can be taken in looking at the policy  
28 window in Irish health care, this reform and its true intent. For medical  
29 professionals, the policy was described as an insurance-based model that was  
30 “*mis-sold as a commitment to equitable healthcare*” (Irish Medical Organisation  
31 [IMO], 2015). For insurers, there were concerns about the lack of consideration of  
32 the regulatory capital consequences, as well as issues managing the cost  
33 constraints and the capping of insurer profits (SAI, 2014). The population never  
34 fully engaged with the import of “universal health insurance” as its introduction  
35 coincided with wide cuts to eligibility and access. For those already carrying  
36 private insurance they would have continued to pay similar, or larger premiums,  
37 but would no longer be fast tracked in accessing services. For those with medical  
38 cards their premiums would have been paid; however, those without access to  
39 free health care and who had not been able to afford private insurance to date,  
40 would have had to pay health insurance as well as taxes.

41 The changes envisioned were sweeping, offering opportunities, but also  
42 challenges to the system, providers, and the patients themselves. What is clear is  
43 that they were introduced in the context of severe health-care budgetary cuts.  
44 However, it is unclear how such a change could have come about in the time line  
45 outlined and with the resources available. The health reform proposals received



1 much public criticism; many arguing for improvements to be made to the present  
2 taxation system to make it more equitable, others arguing for a “social” health  
3 insurance system (Turner, 2014). There was widespread scepticism regarding the  
4 ability to move to and operate a managed competition model successfully (SAI,  
5 2014; Turner, 2014).

6 The Irish approach was influenced by the Dutch experience of market-  
7 oriented reform. The intention of the Dutch reform since 2006, has been to  
8 bring about a system of regulated competition in health care by introducing  
9 competition, enhancing consumer choice, as well as upholding fundamental values  
10 in health care, such as universal access (Maarse, 2011, Maarse et al., 2016). Okma,  
11 Marmor, and Oberlander (2011) note that the reforms have fallen far short of  
12 expectations as a result of lack of transparency, weakened consumer trust in  
13 insurers, and lack of cost control. However, there have been improvements in  
14 primary care delivery. According to Mikkers and Ryan (2014: p3), managed  
15 competition requires a long transition period and sufficient preconditions such as  
16 risk equalization, market regulation, and transparency which need to be in place for  
17 effective performance. This is where Ireland failed to prepare and the Dutch  
18 succeeded. Yet, the Dutch reform is far from successful, as the system remains  
19 costly (Van Ginneken, 2015).

### 20 21 **Implications for Public Health**

22  
23 However, reform was needed in the Irish system. In 2014, 3.7 percent of the Irish  
24 population aged 16 and over, reported unmet need for medical care (Eurostat, 2016).  
25 Although this is an average across the EU-28 (EU States), the percentage doubled  
26 from the 2004 figure (1.8 percent). This growing unmet need for medical care is a  
27 result of the population having difficulty accessing treatment and has real  
28 consequences for the health status of the population (D. Zavras, Zavras,  
29 Kyriopoulos, & Kyriopoulos, 2016).

30 Apart from the sequelae of decades of under investment in the health system  
31 itself, what was the impact of austerity, high taxation, and cuts in public health  
32 investment in Ireland during this time? Many Irish health statistics remained  
33 positive. In 2013, life expectancy in Ireland stood at 81.1 years, just above the OECD  
34 (2015) average (80.5). The health effects of austerity are unclear so far and it may be  
35 some decades before a clearer picture emerges in this regard. However, rates of  
36 poverty and deprivation have increased significantly in Ireland since the beginning  
37 of the crisis. A calculation of the impact of the crisis between 2008 and 2012 on the  
38 median income of households with children suggests that Irish families have lost  
39 the equivalent of 10 years of income progress (UNICEF Office of Research, 2014).  
40 Statistics in 2010 indicated a significant differential in life expectancy between those  
41 who lived in poorer versus wealthier areas of around 4.5 years less for men and  
42 nearly 3 years less for women (CSO, 2010). The child poverty rate rose by over 10  
43 percent to 28.6 percent over the period 2008–12 (UNICEF Office of Research, 2014).  
44 Given this causal relationship between poverty and ill health, it is inevitable that  
45 increases in poverty during this time

1 will impact on population health, although the impact is not yet explicit in most  
2 health statistics (Nolan, Barry, Burke, & Thomas, 2014).

3 In contrast to the availability of information on the economy, the absence of  
4 up-to-date detailed morbidity and mortality data have made the immediate  
5 effects of the crisis on health difficult to analyze. This has left much policy and  
6 research attention focused on economic aspects such as the resilience of the  
7 “system” itself to deliver (Nolan et al., 2014; Thomas et al., 2013). Remarkably  
8 little research has focused on the health consequences of the crisis and much of  
9 what has been done has been undertaken by patient and other non-governmental  
10 organizations and individual researchers (Karanikolos et al., 2013). Countries  
11 burdened by austerity policies tend to have higher rates of poor health,  
12 particularly in the unemployed, increased prevalence of mental health problems,  
13 suicide, and self-harm, as well as increased incidence of infectious diseases, such  
14 as HIV (Brand, Rosenkötter, Clemens, & Michelsen, 2013; Legido-Quigley et al.,  
15 2013). In Ireland, the health issues reported, include those of obesity, diabetes,  
16 chronic disease, suicide, self-harm, and mental health issues. The WHO  
17 Modelling Obesity Project has highlighted the seriousness of obesity for many EU  
18 countries, but significantly in Ireland where projections suggest that almost all  
19 Irish adults will be overweight by 2030 (Breda, Webber, & Kirby, 2015). Other  
20 worrying health indicators include a continuing increase in suicide particularly  
21 among younger people, with Ireland having the highest rate of suicide across  
22 Europe for young females (under 25) and the second highest rate of suicide in  
23 young males (Cannon, Coughlan, Clarke, Harley, & Kelleher, 2013; MacKay &  
24 Vincenten, 2014). A number of other isolated statistics show the effect of austerity  
25 on health and well-being; under-resourcing of specialized diabetes screening  
26 resulted in a 12 percent increase in lower limb amputations between 2013 and  
27 2014 (O’Regan, 2015); growing waiting lists for the provision of therapy services  
28 have led to significant delays (e.g., up to three years) in treatment and access  
29 (Laois Offaly Families for Autism [LOFFA], 2015).

### 30 **Conclusions and Policy Implications**

31 The ultimate aim of Irish and International UHC policy is to improve  
32 population health (Moreno-Serra & Smith, 2012). In 2011, the Irish government  
33 committed to significant health policy reform to develop a universal single-tier  
34 health system. Ireland is unique in Europe in not having a universal health  
35 system; rather it presents a system which effectively omits key population groups  
36 through gaps in cost coverage, particularly for access to primary care (Thomson  
37 et al., 2014:42).

38 The program to deliver UHC by the means of UHI has now been  
39 effectively abandoned (Varadkar, 2015). Its failure suggests that the implemen-  
40 tation of UHC did not move from one stage to another, instead its progress  
41 was slowed by non-linear societal logics that were in constant conflict.  
42 Ostensibly, the high costs to both the citizen and government have been  
43 blamed for this failure with the Government’s proposals estimated to increase  
44  
45

1 overall health-care spending by between 3.5 and 11 percent (Wren et al.,  
2 2015). Yet such financial information would or should have been available,  
3 even anecdotally, at the outset of the policy development and its implementa-  
4 tion. So why did government follow a path that was not financially viable? A  
5 number of explanations can be posited. Drawing from the institutional theory  
6 perspective, the first explanation is that the thrust of the policy illustrated  
7 mimetic isomorphism in which the introduction of a “quasi” market with  
8 commissioning insurers and competing providers was influenced by earlier  
9 reforms in the Netherlands. Similar patterns of organization, market-driven  
10 reforms, and competition have been seen across Western OECD health-care  
11 systems (Byers, 2016). The IMO (2015) described the reform as one that at first  
12 appeared inclusive, but in reality was a business proposition from the outset.  
13 Thus, its failure could be possibly attributed to a return to the path  
14 dependence of institutional arrangements and policies in the Irish health  
15 system with actors, including health professionals, their associations, and  
16 latterly the health insurance companies, mobilizing to halt UHI implementa-  
17 tion (e.g., Irish College of General Practitioners [ICGP], 2014; SAI, 2014).

18 However, a second explanation is that the two key political parties that  
19 formed a government in 2011 following their election, did so using UHC policy  
20 as a key plank in their election campaign and as a potent source of votes. They  
21 both subsequently entered into a majority coalition government on the basis of  
22 delivering UHC through UHI and then proceeded to implement austerity cuts,  
23 slow the UHI implementation process, implement contradictory policies (such as  
24 cuts to eligibility). Eventually by the end of 2015 they had dismantled the very  
25 plan they had promulgated. Though it has not been unusual in Irish health care  
26 for rhetoric and reality to be misaligned, this particular reform illustrates an  
27 unwillingness even to “play the game” by introducing a symbolic major health  
28 reform without specifying clear objectives and a tangible implementation plan  
29 (Burke, Normand, Barry, & Thomas, 2016).

30 This paper serves as an interesting example for other national health systems  
31 in the triumph of politics (as in how decision makers influence or are influenced)  
32 and political short-termism, over public policy (an overt statement of government  
33 values). The reduction of “health policy” to its content can divert attention from,  
34 and render invisible the political nature of the policy process (Bambra, Fox, &  
35 Scott-Samuel, 2005). Following the recent Irish national election, a draft of the new  
36 Programme for Partnership Government (Government of Ireland, 2016) identifies a  
37 number of priorities in health care that have little overall coherence in terms of a  
38 statement of values or policy direction. It’s only in the final section, that it is  
39 emphasized that an all-party committee will be formed to develop a 10-year plan  
40 which will be delivered through a new funding model and be key to the  
41 “*sustainability of Universal Healthcare.*” As commentators in the media have pointed  
42 put, Ireland’s new government now faces the challenge in how to “*devise policies that*  
43 *serve the common good, rather than being dictated to by the most powerful interest groups in*  
44 *society*” (Collins, 2016). Ultimately, this has implications for the electorate who vote  
45 for political parties on the basis of core values (policy) and then receive a

1 governmental program that lacks any coherence (politics). Whither the ambition  
2 of affordable access for all?

3 If Ireland had successfully completed the transition to UHC, it would  
4 have represented an example of a developed democracy with a long-  
5 established tax-financed health-care system subsequently decentralizing and  
6 switching to an insurance model. This reform though espousing the principle  
7 of universal access was actually premised on a competitive market based  
8 model rather than a centralized public monopoly structure as in the United  
9 Kingdom (Bidgood, 2013). This paper has a number of limitations. The first is  
10 that it is a review of publications and data chosen by the author, and thus,  
11 the analysis could be seen to reflect a bias in focus. A second limitation is that  
12 the paper is written at a significant transition point in Irish health policy and  
13 it can be seen by some as too early to determine the consequences of policy  
14 decisions as the effects have yet to emerge. However, this paper's key  
15 contribution is to highlight the inconsistency between stated policy aims and  
16 real political intentions, and may well serve as a point of reference for further  
17 discussion and research. The lessons from the failure of this policy have  
18 implications for health reform.



19  
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### 24 25 26 Notes


27  
28 The author wishes to acknowledge the support of her institution.  
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