Some international benchmarks for evaluating Australian health and medical research

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Some international benchmarks for evaluating Australian health and medical research

Abstract
Recent experience in Australia has seen the requirement by the federal Department of Finance and Administration to conduct output pricing reviews of government agencies including research organisations. Health and medical research, while generally regarded as an important ‘public good’, is now pressed by the same demands as other research fields to account for public investments in terms of value of outcomes and value for investment. This paper reports on current trends towards international benchmarking of health and medical research performance. Comparative data from overseas show unique aspects of the Australian health and medical research funding system. The paper suggests possible future routes for carrying out health research evaluation in Australia.

Keywords
health, research, international, benchmarks, medical, australian, evaluating

Disciplines
Business | Social and Behavioral Sciences

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Comparative output reviews

Some international benchmarks for evaluating Australian health and medical research

Sam Garrett-Jones, Brian Wixted and Tim Turpin

Recent experience in Australia has seen the requirement by the federal Department of Finance and Administration to conduct output pricing reviews of government agencies including research organisations. Health and medical research, while generally regarded as an important ‘public good’, is now pressed by the same demands as other research fields to account for public investments in terms of value of outcomes and value for investment. This paper reports on current trends towards international benchmarking of health and medical research performance. Comparative data from overseas show unique aspects of the Australian health and medical research funding system. The paper suggests possible future routes for carrying out health research evaluation in Australia.

Governments around the world are demanding greater accountability and efficiency in the use of public monies for research. This pressure to demonstrate outcomes and effective use of funds has extended to research institutes and research councils. The health and medical research and development (HMRD) community has perhaps been more insulated than have, say, researchers in the social sciences. Governments appear to have accepted incontestably that HMRD is a public good that is carried out to the highest professional standards. There has been strong community support for HMRD, and last but not least the medical establishment and researchers are very effective lobbyists. Even so, HMRD is now operating in an environment of greater public accountability which is affecting all government-run or government-funded bodies.

Demand for research performance evaluation

Through the 1990s there was growing pressure on research funding agencies in most countries to report on the return to society of publicly funded national research investments and on the specific ‘results’ or outcomes of that investment. In several countries, this requirement has become enshrined in legislation or administrative regulation. In the United States, the 1993 Government Performance and Results Act (GPRA) requires strategic planning and performance reporting for all government activities, including research (Cozzens, 2000). Agencies such as the National Institutes of Health (NIH), which support fundamental research, now produce annual performance plans that assess the institutes’ achievement of its performance targets. Most of NIH’s performance
goals are expressed objectively or quantitatively; other goals are assessed through an ‘alternative form’ such as descriptive criteria (Ordóñez-Matamoros, 2003).

In Australia, federal government research agencies including the National Health and Medical Research Council (NHMRC) and CSIRO have since 1999 been subject to output pricing reviews by the Department of Finance and Administration (DoFA). These reviews examine the quantity, quality and price of outputs produced in an attempt to assess whether the government is getting good value for the taxpayers’ funds. The process emphasises indicators of agency outputs and outcomes.

• Outcomes in this context refer to longer-term impact or effect expected or intended in a particular policy arena.
• Outputs are the immediate ‘deliverables’ — the goods and services — produced by the agency (Department of Finance and Administration, 2000).

As one moves from outputs to impacts, the results of research activity are generally broader in their effect, take longer to manifest themselves, are harder to quantify and are less readily traceable to particular research projects, funding programs or agencies. This is the so-called ‘attribution factor’. While desired impacts may be seen, they have a plurality of causes, the individual contribution of which is not readily measurable. For example, while it may be possible to demonstrate statistically a decline in mortality or morbidity from a particular disease, it is in most circumstances impossible to attribute this with any confidence to a single cause, such as a major NHMRC research program on the topic. There is an inherent difficulty too, as US researcher Paul David notes in respect of NIH, in requiring research agencies to consider ‘outcomes beyond the span of control of the agencies which are being asked to define their outcomes’ (Feller, 2002).

The Australian federal government framework therefore sensibly recognises that research agencies are valued as much for their standing capacity to deliver research expertise as for their specific R&D activities. In practice, the output pricing reviews of research agencies have been largely qualitative in nature (Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation, 2002).

International performance indicators

In the case of Australian HMRD, the results of performance evaluation have usually been used to justify greater investment and targeting of that investment. As the primary funding body, the NHMRC has been developing an outcomes evaluation model for several years. The Council explains the rationale and objectives of the model thus:

Scrutiny of the returns from the investment in research is one of the consequences of the introduction of an outcome-based accrual budgeting framework. The doubling of funding to the NHMRC, and the recommendations arising from the [Wills, 1998] Review, have encouraged the NHMRC to re-examine the way it performs its role as the peak funding body for Australian health and medical research … A key underlying theme of the Review calls for the NHMRC to develop an evaluation framework to quantify the outcomes of its investment in health and medical research … The Research Outcome Evaluation model … will form the basis of performance reporting for research funds managed by the NHMRC for the conduct of health and medical research. (NHMRC, 2001)

In the course of preparing its 2000–2003 Performance Report (NHMRC, 2003a), NHMRC therefore sought to present data and case studies on the outputs, outcomes and impacts of its activities. The Council asked the current authors to review and report upon performance indicators for HMRD that were in common use overseas (Turpin, Wixted and Garrett-Jones, 2003). The study had two main aims.

1. **Benchmarking HMRD performance** The first objective was to compare the performance of Australia’s HMRD with that of the HMRD sector in other selected countries. However, this seemingly simple question raises many issues about the appropriate comparisons to attempt and the availability of data to support these comparisons.

2. **Benchmarking the use of performance indicators** The second objective, therefore, was aimed at learning from international experience with HMRD performance indicators, particularly with regard to those used by medical research funding organisations with similar functions to NHMRC. Here the review examined the state of development of international indicator systems for assessing HMRD, and considered how Australia’s HMRD system in general and the NHMRC in particular compared with international practice in terms of the performance measurement frameworks being used.

The current paper briefly presents the main lessons learned from this study in the broader context of evaluation of HMRD. It explores, through examples, the feasibility of international benchmarking of HMRD and suggests how performance evaluation of HMRD in Australia could be further developed.

**Benchmarking of HMRD**

‘Benchmarking’ can encompass many types of comparison of performance (Bureau of Industry Economics, 1996), but frequently implies a quantitative...
comparison. Benchmarking may be carried out for the purpose of research evaluation, but has wider application in policy analysis — e.g. for comparing inputs or investments.

Research evaluation is concerned, literally, with assessing the value of the work of a particular researcher or research group, department, institution, agency or program. The focus is on the results, efficiency and effectiveness of the activity rather than simply on its cost or use of resources. The aim of research evaluation is to demonstrate to a particular audience the appropriate performance of the activity in question — Irwin Feller uses the term ‘multiple publics’ in this context (Feller, 2002). This implies a requirement to tailor the performance measure to that audience and to use the sorts of evidence that the audience finds convincing (Garrett-Jones, 2000).

A research council like NHMRC occupies a crucial ‘middle level’ (between government central agencies like DoFA and the researchers) in assessing the performance of research. In developing and using performance indicators, it has to talk to both the sponsor and the performer of research in language that they understand, using measures of performance that they find convincing. These measures may be purely qualitative, and thus not amenable to ‘benchmarking’. In summary, research evaluation and benchmarking are concepts that intersect but which are not identical.

How do we apply them to evaluating HMRD? First, let us look at the components the HMRD system and consider how elements of the system might be used to ‘benchmark’ performance between countries. Figure 1 presents a stylised model of a research system that might be applied to HMRD.

Resources (recurrent funding, capital stock, personnel, existing knowledge, etc.) are the inputs to institutions or programs (research institutes, hospitals, universities, research councils) which ‘convert’ them into research outputs (publications, research trained people, patents, etc). The outputs produce beneficial health or other socio-economic outcomes or impacts. The challenge for research evaluation is to be able to tie the outcomes/impacts sufficiently to the structures and institutions to be able to identify the better performing institutions, programs or activities. These findings may influence the allocation of resources through some kind of feedback mechanism. In Australia, the federal education department’s funding formula for universities which takes account of various research ‘outputs’ is one example.

One form of research benchmarking is the qualitative international comparison often made by high-level peer review panels. Here, the performance of a research discipline or institution may be ranked subjectively on the basis of its perceived international standing in adequacy of resources, effectiveness of structures and quality of outputs and outcomes. In the USA, NIH and the Food and Drug Administration have been involved in international comparisons by expert panels of the status of emerging areas such as tissue engineering. In Australia, one can point to the Australian Research Council’s reviews of grant outcomes — for example, in molecular biology — and the review of the Australian National University’s Institute of Advanced Studies (which includes the John Curtin School of Medical Research) as instances of qualitative benchmarking (ARC, 1994; 1996).

Defining the HMRD system

The first issue is exactly how to define the scope of HMRD, as represented by the central box in Figure 1. In practice it is quite difficult to come up with an acceptable definition for the ‘structures’ box in Figure 1. The OECD uses the term ‘non-market R&D’ to cover the public sector and non-profit private (PNP) foundations, but to exclude commercial HMRD performers. Alternatively, comparisons may be based upon government budget data (again as the OECD does) or funding, or on expenditures by particular agencies.

Table 1 shows the broad picture of HMRD expenditure and funding in Australia. From the table it is apparent that any analysis that considered only the Commonwealth government budget or the ‘non-market’ sector, for example, would only partially cover the HMRD sector. An alternative approach is to try and compare specific sub-sectors or agencies — for example, health research councils in different countries, or various schemes for supporting collaborative research.

In summary, the first problem in benchmarking is that structures, institutions and organisations are specific to the sector or country in question. Their performance can be measured in many cases, but
these measurements cannot be directly compared with the situation in other sectors or countries.

Classifying the purpose of HMRD

One way to overcome the constraint imposed by specific local structures and institutions is to adopt a functional classification for R&D carried out in all sectors (i.e. businesses, public institutes, universities, hospitals). This would allow, as an example, a comparison of R&D effort on reproductive medicine between countries. The federal statistics agency in Australia classifies all R&D by socio-economic objective (SEO). The SEO subdivision for ‘health’ covers ‘R&D directed towards human health, including the understanding and treatment of clinical diseases and conditions and the provision of public health and associated support services’ (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 1998). The subdivision has three groups: clinical (organs, diseases and abnormal conditions), public health, and health and support services. Comprising these groups are 49 classes, some of which refer to specific diseases or medical specialisms (e.g. endocrine organs and diseases (incl. diabetes); health related to ageing; diagnostic methods). R&D related to human pharmaceutical products and medical instrumentation are covered separately within the manufacturing subdivision of the classification.

Australia is fortunate in the degree of detail provided in its functional (SEO) classification of R&D. Regrettably, such comprehensive SEO classifications are not widely used. As Alison Young (2001) comments:

National specificities are particularly evident in the arrangements for non-market health R&D. National experts can mix and match institutional and functional data to reach a data set that they feel gives a reasonable picture of the level and structure of the R&D activities of their own National Health Science and Innovation Systems. Only Australia took a purely functional approach, providing series based on socio-economic objective and on field of S&T. Austria, Denmark, and to some extent Israel, also collected some project-level data in the non-market sector. Such detail was not available for Canada, France, the United Kingdom and the United States, which used semi-institutional approaches. R&D in the medical sciences was included for the university sector.
(incl. university hospitals), France and the United States also included some (United States) or all (France) other life sciences. [Emphasis added]

The second problem, then, is the lack of an internationally accepted, detailed functional classification of R&D. This seriously limits the scope for international benchmarking of HMRD although, for the academic sector and for research publications, use of classification by field of research is an alternative approach. Analyses of the published outputs of Australian HMRD (Butler, 2003) use three separate ‘field’ classifications, for example. This situation is likely to improve. Through the Health Research Systems project the World Health Organisation (WHO) has supported work aimed at describing and measuring health research systems in developing countries (Alano and Almario, 2000). The NHMRC is participating in the WHO project.

Measuring inputs, outputs and outcomes

Inputs and outputs can be counted more readily than outcomes and impacts. Research inputs (personnel and funding) are usually quantifiable. For most inputs the indicators are internationally standardised; for example, through adherence to the OECD’s ‘Frascati family’ of guidelines and manuals. International standards or practices also exist for the measurement of many research outputs (publications, qualified people, patents), through firms like the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI) or agencies like national or regional patent offices. Outcomes and impacts, on the other hand, often cannot be sensibly quantified and their assessment rests on qualitative criteria. A notable exception is the widespread use of impact measures of HMRD publications through analysis of the frequency of citations to papers in the international literature. International comparison is facilitated by ISI’s databases and common classifications of research fields. It can be argued that bibliometrics provides evidence of the scientific impact of research rather than of its contribution to health outcomes. Given the time lag and the often indirect contribution of HMRD, attributing particular health outcomes to particular research programs is likely to be infeasible in most cases.

Table 2 takes a real-life example and describes some of the indicators used to assess the performance of the Australian Cooperative Research Centres (CRCs). The program provides substantial funding for health and medical CRCs (Butler, 2003). The outcomes performance measures used by NHMRC also rely on a mix of qualitative information (such as ‘success stories’) and bibliometrics (NHMRC, 2002; 2003a). The NHMRC has made extensive use of bibliometric analyses in benchmarking Australian biomedical research and to determine the scientific impact of the work that the council itself funds (Butler, 2003; Butler and Biglia, 2001; Butler et al, 1998). Bibliometric evidence was used very effectively in the Wills Review of health research in Australia (Wills, 1999).

The third problem, then, is the difficulty of comparing research outcomes between agencies, sectors or countries. Benchmarking of HMRD is therefore fraught with more uncertainty than are comparisons of ‘hard’ health infrastructure (e.g. hospital beds per 1,000 population in different countries). Because we can measure them readily, it is more feasible to benchmark R&D inputs and outputs than it is to benchmark outcomes. But there remain substantial difficulties even in comparing the resources available to health research in different countries.

International approaches

Faced with these difficulties, what are other countries doing in HMRD evaluation methodology and practice? A selection of HMRD funding and research agencies from various countries (Table 3) is used to illustrate some differences and commonalities in the
current use and development of performance indicators. It appears that international HMRD agencies are under the same pressures as NHMRC to report on the outcomes of the research and training activities they carry out or fund. Thus, many are implementing formal reporting of research ‘results’, usually through both statistical and qualitative measures of performance. Agencies faced with this task have adopted closely similar hierarchical approaches that

- identify the top level objectives that are to be achieved;
- show how the objectives of the research groups, centres, projects or institutions relate to the top level objectives; and
- specify available or potential indicators that can measure performance against both top level and research group objectives.

About half of the agencies reviewed in Table 3 either publish such performance indicators, or are developing or planning to develop them.

The review of the international data revealed several common features in the evaluation systems used by HMRD agencies.

- Because of the relatively recent history of HMRD performance evaluation there is less international standardisation than in other sectors of research. However, the study found no fundamental difference between systems that aim to measure the performance of HMRD and those for assessing research aimed at other socio-economic objectives.
- HMRD evaluation systems commonly take a hierarchical approach, linking top level (government or agency) objectives to outcomes that are valued at the research level, and to specific indicators that can inform the assessment of these objectives and outcomes.
- The better performance measures systems integrate qualitative and quantitative measures of performance and internal and external assessment. A framework that relies primarily on external qualitative review is expensive and difficult to implement and the results are likely to be incomparable with those obtained by other agencies. Systems that rely on readily available, internally generated statistical data are easier to define and implement, but risk overlooking the assessment of quality and relevance that can be provided by external review.
- The long-term social impacts and health impacts of HMRD are commonly assessed through qualitative studies involving the potential beneficiaries rather than through standardised statistical indicators.

### Benchmarking Australian HMRD

While many agencies have or are developing sophisticated performance measures, the issues outlined earlier mean that there is relatively sparse data avail-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Health and medical R&amp;D agency</th>
<th>Status of performance indicators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR), formerly the Medical Research Council (MRC) of Canada</td>
<td>Reasonable information available. Performance indicators being further developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Institut national de la sante et de la recherche medicale (INSERM) – the Federal Ministry of Education and Research</td>
<td>Limited information available on performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Bundesministerium für Bildung und Forschung (BMBF) – the Federal Ministry of Education and Research</td>
<td>Good information on the structure of the health and medical R&amp;D system but availability of performance indicators limited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>Netherlands Organisation for Health R&amp;D (Zon-Mw), incorporating the former Zorg-Onderzoek Nederland (ZON) – Health R&amp;D Council and Medische Wetenschappen van NWO (MW-NOW) – Medical Sciences-Netherlands Organisation for Scientific Research</td>
<td>Does not collect information on publications, patents or commercialisation activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>Health Research Council (HRC)</td>
<td>Annual ‘Progress and Achievements Report’ gives qualitative and quantitative performance indicators. Funding a bibliometrics study of publications arising from HRC grants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>National Medical Research Council (NMRC), Ministry of Health</td>
<td>Little relevant information found. Current output reported does not allow for useful comparisons with Australia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>Medical Research Council (MRC)</td>
<td>Designing a performance indicators system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>Swiss National Science Foundation (SNSF)</td>
<td>Financial (research expenditure information only). Annual report does not report on performance indicators and other publications do not appear to carry such material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>Medical Research Council (MRC)</td>
<td>Readily accessible information on performance. Performance indicators being further developed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States of America</td>
<td>National Institutes of Health (NIH)</td>
<td>Several sources of information including annual performance plans and reports. Performance indicators being further developed</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
available for international benchmarking of HMRD. Some examples of feasible comparisons are given below. Each benchmark comprises a set of defined indicators (based on inputs, outputs and less commonly outcomes). As noted, the available comparisons are predominantly of research inputs and outputs, rather than outcomes. Comparisons are found within the following ‘domains’ or levels of evaluation: international, national, program or agency benchmarks.

**Intensity of HMRD spending**

Table 4 compares the intensity of national HMRD as a proportion of the national expenditure on health care in Australia and 10 other countries. The data are based on government budget expenditure for the main public HMRD agencies. As noted earlier, ‘budget’ data are incomplete as a national picture, but as health care expenditure is also budget-driven, the comparison may be appropriate. Some estimation is required, as in the alternative figures for Germany. HMRD spending per capita is given for comparison.

The analysis reveals strong similarities between the countries (except the USA), with most spending between 0.3% and 0.55% of their health care budget on HMRD. Australia falls within the mid range of the countries examined.

**Functional priorities in HMRD**

Despite the problems of incompatible functional classifications of HMRD, the study attempted a breakdown by health objective for the major research funding agencies in seven of the countries. Table 5 gives an (incomplete) indication of the research priorities adopted by HMRD agencies in these countries. Agencies in several countries spent a similar proportion of their funding on AIDS research, and the same pattern was true for the categories of mental health and infection/immunity. The table gives an idea of the value of benchmarking using a detailed classification of the objective of HMRD. Another way of examining the relative national priorities in HMRD, at least for the more fundamental research, is through a country’s share of world publications in a field (see Table 6).

**HMRD priorities in relation to burden of disease**

The federal and state governments in Australia have nominated seven national health priority areas based upon considerations of burden of disease and potential for improved health outcomes. These are: asthma, cancer control, cardiovascular health, diabetes mellitus, injury prevention and control, mental health, and arthritis and musculoskeletal conditions.
Another way of examining the relative national priorities in HMRD, at least for the more fundamental research, is through a country’s share of world publications in a field

(Mathers et al., 1999). In 2003, over 60% of NHMRC funding was dedicated to research in these priority areas (NHMRC, 2003a).

Research priorities within NHMRC have reflected national health priorities and, more recently, the national research priorities (NRPs). ‘Promoting and maintaining good health’ is one of four NRPs announced in 2002. Four specific goals — infant and child health, ageing, preventive healthcare, and the social and economic aspects of health — are identified as contributing to this priority. Research into biotechnology and genomics is included under other priority areas.

In response to the NRP initiative, NHMRC established strategic research networks (SRNs) in each of three health-related areas: ‘Healthy Start to Life’, ‘Ageing Well, Ageing Productively’ and ‘Preventive Healthcare’. The Council has borrowed the concept of ‘consensus conferences’ from the US NIH with a view to developing further SRNs (NHMRC, 2003b). The Council has also identified priority areas, most notably Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander health.

Unfortunately, the ability to benchmark these investments is severely limited by the lack of a common international functional or ‘disease-based’ classification for HMRD expenditures.

HMRD outputs and impacts

Ideally, the ‘priorities’ data in Table 5 (which measures funding inputs) should be compared with the performance of each field as measured by outputs, such as publications or patents, or impacts such as citations to Australian HMRD papers. Table 7 shows Australia’s ranking in published scientific papers in three HMRD sub-fields (clinical medicine, biomedical research, and health R&D) as defined by the US NSF. The countries chosen for comparison were the principal European OECD countries with Canada, the USA and New Zealand. Data are expressed as number of publications per head of population. Australia ranks in the middle of the pack for both clinical medicine and biomedical research. However, for its population size Australia publishes more research in the sub-field of ‘health’. The four Scandinavian countries are prominent towards the top of the list for both clinical and biomedical research.

Data on publications can also be used as a measure of research impact. Using journals listed by the ISI for the period 1996–2000, Butler (2003) has investigated the citations attracted by published Australian biomedical papers against two benchmarks. The first compares the actual rate of citation to Australian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research field</th>
<th>Australia – no. of papers</th>
<th>Australia – no. of citations – actual</th>
<th>Australia – citation rate – actual</th>
<th>Australia – citation rate – expected</th>
<th>World – citation rate</th>
<th>Australia – actual citations/ expected</th>
<th>Australia – share of world papers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biological Sciences</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Biochemistry and cell</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>biology</td>
<td>6,790</td>
<td>50,037</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genetics</td>
<td>2,100</td>
<td>15,255</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Microbiology</td>
<td>1,668</td>
<td>8,542</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biotechnology</td>
<td>2,147</td>
<td>10,058</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical and health</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sciences</td>
<td>30,663</td>
<td>143,234</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immunology</td>
<td>2,696</td>
<td>20,806</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacology and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pharmaceutical science</td>
<td>2,654</td>
<td>10,028</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical physiology</td>
<td>2,253</td>
<td>7,731</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neurosciences</td>
<td>3,048</td>
<td>16,553</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical sciences</td>
<td>19,547</td>
<td>93,902</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public health and health</td>
<td>3,412</td>
<td>10,235</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine – general and</td>
<td>2,215</td>
<td>12,754</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>internal science</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6. Australian and world citation rates for biomedical papers, 1996–2000

Source: Data from Butler (2003)

Notes: a. Fields omitted because of low publication counts are: clinical chemistry; dentistry; nursing; human movement and sports science; and other medical and health sciences.

b. This measure is equivalent to the relative citation impact (RCI) indicator described by Butler et al. 1998.

c. ISI captures only about 25% of Australian articles in Public Health and health services. In other fields, ISI captures more than 80% of articles.
international benchmarks

papers to the average citation rate for papers in the journals in which they are published (the 'expected' citation rate). The second, the relative citation impact, or RCI (Butler et al., 1998), makes comparison with the world average for citations to biomedical papers published in all ISI-listed biomedical journals. These two benchmarks may differ if, for example, the Australian papers are published in 'lower impact' journals, i.e. those with a lower average citation rate per paper, than is normal for the field.

Table 7 shows the results of this comparison for selected main fields of HMRD. Butler (2003) demonstrates that, for most sub-fields in Australia, the actual citation rate per paper approaches or exceeds the 'expected' citation rate. The sub-fields of general medicine, immunology and clinical sciences show the highest citation impact. Using the RCI, the fields showing an impact greater than the world average are immunology, clinical sciences, biotechnology and microbiology. Sub-fields like neuroscience and medical physiology return a relatively weaker performance against both indicators.

Overall, Butler’s data (Table 6) suggest that the average citation rate of Australian biomedical papers is on a par with the international benchmarks, but perhaps that Australia’s HMRD system overall is skewed towards applied research (which tends to be less highly cited), at least by comparison with the publications emanating from the major European and North American research centres which largely determine the ‘world’ average.

While the data on publications and citations reveal that Australian HMRD has been performing strongly, the same does not appear true in patenting. A recent study of patenting in health-related fields (Lichtenberg and Virabhak, 2002) investigated patenting in the field ‘Medical or Veterinary Science; Hygiene’—meaning pharmaceuticals. The authors used the OECD ‘Triadic Patent Families’ database, which consolidates raw patent data from the European, Japanese and US Patent Offices. Among the benchmark OECD countries only New Zealand ranked lower than Australia in terms of its share of world health patents (Table 8). Furthermore, time series data show that Australia’s performance in patenting, as a proportion of world activity, is declining (Lichtenberg and Virabhak, 2002).

HMRD outputs benchmarked

One of the concerns that prompted the current study was whether research funded by NHMRC was achieving appropriate outputs and outcomes by comparison with R&D funded by other research councils. Butler (2003) clearly demonstrates that research supported by the NHMRC attracted citation rates that were greater than the Australian average and, in all but two sub-fields, were also above the world average (i.e. RCI > 1.0). The rate of both actual and expected citations was substantially higher for the more fundamental research supported by the NHMRC or carried out in specialist research institutes and cooperative research centres than for the biomedical publications from other research groups in government laboratories, hospitals or universities. As there are few cases where HMRD activities can be compared directly with similar international activities in other fields of research, Table 9 examines the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical medicine</th>
<th>Biomedical R&amp;D</th>
<th>Health R&amp;D</th>
<th>All fields of research</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>383.5</td>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>162.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>343.6</td>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>154.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>328.1</td>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>139.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>287.3</td>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>113.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>253.0</td>
<td>USA</td>
<td>101.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>226.9</td>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>101.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>202.0</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>100.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>197.8</td>
<td>UK</td>
<td>97.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>197.1</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>192.9</td>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>192.4</td>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>162.7</td>
<td>France</td>
<td>70.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>160.5</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>134.5</td>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>126.0</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sources: Turpin, Wixted and Garrett-Jones, 2000; after National Science Foundation, 2002; population data from OECD, 2002.

Perhaps Australia’s HMRD system overall is skewed towards applied research, at least by comparison with the publications emanating from the major European and North American research centres
The current study revealed something of a paradox about benchmarking the performance of Australian HMRD. On the one hand, even though performance evaluation of HMRD is a relatively new area, many international HMRD agencies have developed formal frameworks for reporting research ‘results’, or are doing so. On the other hand, there is rather limited scope for benchmarking of performance between countries. The prevalence of quantitative reporting on the basis of local organisational structures and categories makes even comparison of HMRD inputs difficult.

It is important to stress that, while there is of course potential for Australia to learn from the experience of other countries and other fields of research of performance evaluation — such as recent critiques of the influence of the US GPRA (Feller, 2002) — the lack of comparability is not because we are dragging our heels. Through NHMRC, Australia is keeping abreast of international best practice in HMRD performance evaluation. Further, with the comprehensive Australian Standard Research Classifications (ASRC) Australian statisticians are leaders in measuring detailed R&D objectives which help greatly in benchmarking R&D outcomes across the public and business sectors.

What, then, is required to improve the evaluation and international benchmarking of Australian HMRD? In conclusion, we put forward some proposals, pose some questions, and suggest possible avenues for future work.

A more structured approach

Without constructing a Byzantine evaluation framework, first consideration must be given to the objective of the benchmarking and the appropriate indicators to include. This reiterates our earlier
comment on tailoring the evidence to the audience, in order to satisfy the ‘multiple publics’ for research evaluation. Both statistical indicators and measures of quality have a role in this process. In reviewing international practice the study observed four levels or ‘domains’ of benchmarking, as follows.

- **International benchmarking** — data that attempt to reflect the performance at the national level (e.g. research funding, publications, citation analyses and commercialisation indicators, such as patents). Because of government reporting requirements, the emphasis to date has been on publicly funded R&D. There is a need to incorporate the HMRD activities of business and the nongovernment sector to give a full national picture.

- **National benchmarking** — benchmarking different national agencies (e.g. NHMRC and the CRC program) serves to assess their contribution toward national priorities. Here, some commonality of performance indicators between agencies would assist benchmarking, provided they were consistent with agencies’ goals.

- **Agency/institute benchmarking** — performance measures in this category would include areas such as the administrative cost and efficiency of administering programs, as well as some aggregate of the program benchmarks described below.

- **Program benchmarking** — NIH’s program level benchmarks using descriptive performance assessments and independent expert reviews provides a good example of this approach. Agencies such as NHMRC might record, on a regular basis, systematic information on qualitative outcomes. For example, grant recipients could be asked, on an annual basis, to identify and describe (a) their most significant research breakthrough and (b) their most significant health/medical outcome.

Each of these ‘domains’ contributes to an appropriately balanced portfolio of performance measures for a HMRD agency.

**Common classifications?**

As we have noted, one significant impediment to benchmarking is a lack of standardisation in the classifications used internationally for HMRD. This makes it hard to compare rigorously even inputs to HMRD between countries. Various different classifications are used for university and business research, and for inputs and outputs. Often, data are expressed in terms of a hybrid classification of organisational units, health specialisms and specific diseases or other health problems. The latter are more likely to be of interest in assessing the contribution of HMRD to improved health outcomes and reducing the quantified burden of particular diseases (Mathers et al., 1999). But, when it comes to the benchmarking the outcomes of HMRD, comparable international data are almost non-existent.

International benchmarking of HMRD performance would certainly be simpler and more robust if a common international and cross-sectoral (public/academic/private) detailed classification of HMRD objectives (SEO), like the Australian one, were to be implemented. This is, however, unlikely to come about quickly and, even if it did, would take us only part of the way towards comparing HMRD outcomes. The goal of these classifications is to specify the intended beneficiary of the research, and the categories used are not necessarily those which would be most helpful for tracking outcomes.

The more fundamental issue remains that of assessing the impact or outcomes of HMRD in terms which make sense to the researchers and stakeholders involved, and expressing these in ways which bear international comparison. Performance evaluation will always require a mix of statistical indicators and more qualitative, descriptive information on and expert assessment of research accomplishments. It is very hard to ‘benchmark’ the latter, although it can sometimes be put in semi-quantitative terms (e.g. proportion of research objectives met or not met). Any assessment of the outcomes of HMRD is a two-stage process. It involves identifying the desired health outcomes, and then endeavouring to assess the contribution of HMRD to achieving those outcomes. In other words, benchmarking of HMRD performance is informed by, and in turn informs, the development of health outcomes goals and indicators. It must involve both the health and medical research community (who are the best judges of research quality) and the users and practitioners (who are best qualified to assess the impact and application of the research findings).

Perhaps, when proposing international benchmarks for HMRD outcomes, a more targeted, collaborative approach is therefore required. Clearly, there are many specific health issues (areas like HIV/AIDS or mental health) where improved outcomes are of vital concern to many countries. International cooperation to define these specific areas and to track the contribution of HMRD to improved outcomes is one way forward which is likely to be acceptable to many countries. Success in this approach might prompt a closer alignment of the more general R&D classifications with categories used by the health outcomes evaluation community.

In conclusion, we would argue that further effort in assessing the outcomes and impacts of HMRD in Australia should be more closely connected with work that aims to develop health outcome indicators and measures of the health-related quality of life.

**Acknowledgments**

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Notes

1. These are the ISI subject category for journals, the ABS research field, courses and disciplines (RFCD) categories, and an internal NHMRC classification which more closely reflects clinical specialisms.

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