



ISSN 2059-4631
Volume 00 Number 00 2018

International Journal of
Health Governance



**Comparison of external evaluation policies and regulations
for quality improvement and safety of health services in
Norway and the United States**

Journal:	<i>International Journal of Health Governance</i>
Manuscript ID	ijhg-06-2023-0065.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Article
Keywords:	Patient safety < Health Service Quality Assurance, Accreditation < Health Service Quality Assurance, Health care quality < Health Service Quality Assurance, Audit < Health Service Quality Assurance, Continuous quality improvement < Health Service Quality Assurance, Adverse events or outcomes < Health Service Quality Assurance

1 Comparison of external evaluation policies and regulations for quality 2 improvement and safety of health services in Norway and the United States

3 Abstract

4 **Purpose**

5 We compare perspectives on external evaluation of health service provision between Norway and the
6 U.S.A. External inspection and accreditation are examples of internationally wide-spread external
7 evaluation methods used to assess the quality of care given to patients. Different countries have
8 different national policy strategies and arrangements set up to do these evaluations. Although there
9 is growing attention to the impact and effects on quality and safety from external evaluation, we still
10 know too little about how structures and processes influence these outcomes. Accordingly, our aim is
11 to describe the structures and processes in external evaluation designed to promote quality
12 improvement in Norway and the U.S. with attention to comparison of enablers and barriers in external
13 evaluation systems.

14 **Design/methodology/approach**

15 Data collection consisted of documentary evidence retrieved from governmental policies, and reviews
16 of the Joint Commission (the U.S.), international guidelines, recommendations and reports from the
17 International Society for Quality in Health Care, and the World Health Organization, and policies and
18 regulations related to Norwegian governmental bodies such as the Ministry of Health and Care Services
19 (MHCS), the Norwegian Directorate of Health (NDH), the Norwegian Board of Health Supervision
20 (NBHS); the Inspectorate. Data were analyzed inspired by a deductive, direct content analytical
21 framework.

22 **Findings**

23 We found that both accreditation and inspection are strategies put in place to ensure that healthcare
24 providers have adequate quality systems as well as contributing to the wider risk and safety enhancing
25 management and implementation processes in the organizations subjected to evaluation. The U.S. and
26 the Norwegian external regulatory landscapes are complex and include several policymaking and
27 governing institutions. The Norwegian regulatory framework for inspection has replaced an individual
28 blame logic with a model which “blames” the system for inadequate quality and patient harm. This
29 contrasts with the U.S. accreditation system, which focuses on accreditation visits. Although findings
30 indicate an ongoing turning point in accreditation, findings also demonstrate that involving patients
31 and next of kin directly in adverse event inspections is a bigger part of a change in external inspection
32 culture and methods than in processes of accreditation.

33 **Research implications**

34 The message of this paper is important for policymakers, and bodies of inspection and accreditation
35 because knowledge retrieved from the comparative document study may contribute to better
36 understanding of the implications from the different system designs and in turn contribute to
37 improving external evaluations.

38 **Originality/value**

39 Although there is growing attention to the impact and effects on quality and safety from external
40 evaluation, the implications of different regulatory strategies and arrangements for evaluation on
41 quality and safety remain unclear.

42 **Keywords** external evaluation, accreditation, inspection, the U.S., Norway

43 **Paper type** General review (the paper provides an overview of the concept of external evaluation
44 and comparison of external evaluation policies and regulations for quality improvement and safety of
45 health services in Norway and the United States).
46

47 Background

48 External inspection and accreditation are internationally wide-spread evaluation methods used to
49 assess quality of patient care. The importance of inspection and accreditation is widely accepted, but
50 there is little knowledge of how and if the structures and processes of external evaluations improve
51 healthcare (Araujo *et al.*, 2020; Hussein *et al.*, 2021). National policy strategies for health care
52 assessment differ, as do the processes of evaluation. Two countries with very different health care
53 systems are Norway and the United States. These two countries have systems for external evaluation,
54 but how they differ with respect to structure, and process have not previously been described. In this
55 study, we therefore compare perspectives on external evaluation of health service provision between
56 Norway and the U. S.

57 In an international perspective, the methods of external inspection and accreditation are
58 frequently linked, with accreditation being contingent on a satisfactory inspection, and with external
59 reporting of certain types of severe adverse events often being required (van Wilder *et al.*, 2021).
60 Despite significant efforts to improve quality and safety, international research demonstrates that
61 adverse events rates among hospitalized patients remain high (Wears and Sutcliffe, 2020; WHO, 2021;
62 Bates *et al.*, 2023). One of the key efforts is the introduction of external feedback to the internal
63 systems responsible for providing healthcare services. Although there is growing attention to the
64 impact and effects on quality and safety from external evaluation, we know too little about real impact
65 of these methods (Brubak *et al.*, 2015; WHO, 2022). This applies especially to how structure and
66 process versus performance play on outcomes, which enablers and/or barriers external evaluation
67 may entail, and to how and to what extent perspectives from health care professionals and patients
68 are included in the evaluation processes (Wiig *et al.*, 2019; Allen *et al.*, 2020; Øyri *et al.*, 2021; Weenink
69 *et al.*, 2022; Hovlid *et al.*, 2022).

70 The findings of the Commonwealth Fund study (Schneider *et al.*, 2021) demonstrated that
71 Norway was found to be the country with the best overall performance in healthcare while U.S. ranked
72 last among 11 well-developed countries surveyed. By using the examples of the Norwegian and the
73 U.S. health systems, the aim of this paper is to describe the structures and processes in external
74 evaluation designed to promote quality improvement in Norway and the U.S. with attention to
75 comparison of enablers and barriers in external evaluation systems.

76 Methods

77 *Design and Data Collection*

78 This is an instrumentally designed case study with data based on publicly accessible policy and
 79 regulatory documents as well guidelines, recommendations, and research regarding external
 80 evaluation of quality improvement and patient safety (Stake, 2005; Yin, 2014). The case was defined
 81 as external evaluation of service provision in healthcare in Norwegian and U.S. based contexts. The
 82 design was chosen to understand the phenomenon of external evaluation generally with the
 83 exemplars of the more specific phenomenon of inspection and accreditation (Crowe *et al.*, 2011; Yin,
 84 2014). Please see Table 1 below for definitions of key terms and topics applied in this general review.

85 Table 1. Key terms and topics

External evaluation	External evaluators evaluate performance against a defined set of standards (Van Vliet <i>et al.</i> , 2021).
Structure	Structure is “the minimum or basic conditions for safe care and are related to quality planning and control” (Van Vliet <i>et al.</i> , 2021).
Process	Process is “the mechanisms that organizations use to enhance safety and minimize risk” (Van Vliet <i>et al.</i> , 2021).
Internal control; performance-based regulation	Regulatory governmental control of self-regulation where the government requires the regulatees to achieve or avoid certain outcomes without specifying solutions (Coglianese and Lazer, 2003, Øyri, 2021).
Compliance-based regulation	Principles of “command and control”; penalties expected to deter the regulatees from breaking the rules in combined effort with education, persuasion, and dialogue (Hood <i>et al.</i> , 2001).
Quality improvement	“The framework used to systematically improve care” (CMS, n.d.)
Patient safety	Defined as “the avoidance, prevention and amelioration of adverse outcomes or injuries stemming from the process of healthcare” (Vincent, 2006; 2010).

86
 87 Database searches in Google Scholar for the period 2012 to 2022 were undertaken to find international
 88 policies; guidelines and research of external evaluation, with certain attention to Norwegian and U.S.
 89 context-based research. Publicly available governmental, national policy documents from the U.S. and
 90 Norway were searched for based on the researchers’ pre-existing familiarity with the topic of
 91 inspection and accreditation, and by hand searches in relevant journals and reference lists. As official,
 92 governmental policy documents do not appear in traditional research data bases, nor in Google
 93 Scholar, hand searches were a precondition for the collection of these documents on the Internet from
 94 relevant bodies. Guidelines, regulations, and recommendations framed the study’s U.S. and Norwegian
 95 based contexts and consisted of international policies and reviews of the Joint Commission (the U.S.),
 96 the International Society for Quality in Health Care, and the World Health Organization (see Table 2
 97 for an overview of the documents included). Moreover, it included policies and regulations related to
 98 Norwegian governmental bodies such as the Ministry of Health and Care Services, the Norwegian

99 Directorate of Health, the Norwegian Board of Health Supervision. The documentary evidence was
 100 supplemented by scientific papers and reports on the topic of external evaluation (Bowen, 2009). We
 101 have used material in report format, as this gives us a thorough insight into the field of external
 102 evaluation. This methodological approach has also been employed by others in the past, as a strategy
 103 to gain insight into a field of lacking peer reviewed material (Wiig *et al*, 2020).

104 Table 2. Empirical Foundation of the Study

U.S. official, policy documents		
Publication year	Source	Title
n.d	Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS)	Quality Measurement and Quality Improvement
n.d.	Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS)	Quality, Safety & Oversight - Certification & Compliance
n.d.	Joint Commission	About Our Standards
n.d.	Joint Commission	Facts about The Joint Commission
n.d.	Joint Commission	State Recognition
n.d.	Joint Commission	Joint Commission FAQs
2014	Smits <i>et al.</i>	Hospital accreditation: lessons from low- and middle-income countries
2019	Patient Safety Network	Reporting Patient Safety Events
2020	Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ)	Understanding Quality Measurement
2021	U.S. Department of Health & Human Services	Hospitals
2022	Ibrahim <i>et al.</i>	The evidence base for US joint commission hospital accreditation standards: cross sectional study
U.S. context-based research		
Publication year	Source	Title
2003	Sage	Medical liability and patient safety
2004	Studdert <i>et al.</i>	Medical malpractice
2006	Studdert <i>et al.</i>	Claims, errors, and compensation payments in medical malpractice litigation
2010	Kachalia <i>et al.</i>	Liability claims and costs before and after implementation of a medical error disclosure program.
2015	Morey <i>et al.</i>	Joint Commission and Regulatory Fatigue/Weakness/Overabundance/Distractio: Clinical Context Matters
2016	Makary and Daniel	Medical error-the third leading cause of death in the US
2016	Kachalia <i>et al.</i>	Legal and Policy Interventions to Improve Patient Safety
2018	Lam <i>et al.</i>	Association between patient outcomes and accreditation in US hospitals: observational study
2021	Gallegos	Medscape Malpractice Report
2022	Kato, M. & Zikos, D.	Association between hospital accrediting agencies and hospital outcomes of care in the United States

2023	Rodziewicz <i>et al.</i>	Medical Error Reduction and Prevention
2023	Bates <i>et al.</i>	The Safety of Inpatient Health Care
Norway official, policy documents		
Publication year	Source	Title
n.d.	DNV	Course in the Quality Standard NS 15224
1983	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Dental Health Services Act
1999	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Specialized Health Services Act
1999	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Health Personnel Act
1999	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Patients and User Rights Act
2001	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Patient Injury Act
2005	Ministry of Justice	Penal Code
2011	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Municipal Health and Care Services Act
2015	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Kvalitetsertifisering av norske sykehus.
2016	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Quality Improvement Regulation
2017	Ministry of Health and Care Services	Health Services Supervision Act
2017	Norwegian Directorate of Health	Guidelines to Regulation on management and quality improvement in the healthcare services
2018	Norwegian Directorate of Health	Revocation of authorization, license or professional specialty
2018; 2021	Norwegian Board of Health Supervision	Guidelines for system audits
2019	Norwegian Board of Health Supervision	Recommendations related to stakeholder involvement in external inspection.
2019	Norwegian Board of Health Supervision	Introduction to the Supervisory Authorities and the Supervision of Child Welfare Services, Social Services and Health and Care Services in Norway
2010	Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion	Regulations relating to health, safety and the environment in the petroleum activities and at certain onshore facilities
2021	Norwegian Directorate of Health	Patient injuries in Norway 2021. Measured by Global Trigger Tool
2021	Standards Norway	Ledelsessystemer for kvalitet i helse- og omsorgstjenesten
2023	Norwegian Board of Health Supervision	Annen tilsynsmessig oppfølging etter varsel om alvorlig hendelse - innhenting av redegjørelse, egenvurdering, egenrapport
Norwegian context-based research		
Publication year	Source	Title
2003	Lilleholt	Knophs oversikt over Norges Rett.
2015	Lindøe <i>et al.</i>	Risiko og tilsyn. Risikostyring og rettslig regulering
2017	Hovlid <i>et al.</i>	Effects of external inspection on sepsis detection and treatment: a study protocol for a quasiexperimental study with a stepped-wedge design
2018	Lindøe <i>et al.</i>	Regulering og standardisering. Perspektiver og praksis

2020	Øyri <i>et al.</i>	Exploring links between resilience and the macro-level development of healthcare regulation- a Norwegian case study
2020	Hovlid <i>et al.</i>	Mediators of change in healthcare organisations subject to external assessment: a systematic review with narrative synthesis
2020	Hovlid <i>et al.</i>	Inspecting teams' and organisations' expectations regarding external inspections in health care: a qualitative study
2021	Øyri <i>et al.</i>	Investigating Hospital Supervision: A Case Study of Regulatory Inspectors' Roles as Potential Co-creators of Resilience
2021	Wiig <i>et al.</i>	Next of Kin Involvement in Regulatory Investigations of Adverse Events That Caused Patient Death: A Process Evaluation (Part I - The Next of Kin's Perspective)
2021	Wiig <i>et al.</i>	Next-of-Kin Involvement in Regulatory Investigations of Adverse Events That Caused Patient Death: A Process Evaluation (Part II: The Inspectors' Perspective)
2021	Øyri	Healthcare Regulation and Resilience - a Norwegian Multilevel Case Study
2022	Øyri and Wiig	Linking resilience and regulation across system levels in healthcare - a multilevel study
International policies; guidelines and research		
Publication year	Source	Title
n.d.	Government of the Netherlands	Quality requirements for care providers
n.d.	United Nations Association of Norway	Statistics
1999	Baldwin and Cave	Understanding Regulation. Theory, Strategy, and Practice
2000	Institute of Medicine	To Err is human: building a safer health system
2001	Shaw	External assessment of health care
2002	Hopkins and Hale	Issues in the Regulation of Safety; setting the scene
2003	Walshe	Regulating Healthcare: A Prescription for Improvement?
2003	Coglianesse and Lazer	Management-Based Regulation: Prescribing Private Management to Achieve Public Goals
2011	Flodgren <i>et al.</i>	Effectiveness of external inspection of compliance with standards in improving healthcare organisation behaviour, healthcare professional behaviour or patient outcomes
2011	Warren <i>et al.</i>	Evaluation of the impact of the voucher and accreditation approach on improving reproductive health behaviors and status in Kenya
2015	Brubakk <i>et al.</i>	A systematic review of hospital accreditation: the challenges of measuring complex intervention effects
2016	Vincent and Amalberti	Safety Strategies in Hospitals
2016	Wilson <i>et al.</i>	Meta-audit of laboratory ISO accreditation inspections: measuring the old emperor's clothes
2019	Øyri and Wiig	Regulation and resilience at the macro-level healthcare system – a literature review
2019	Due <i>et al.</i>	Understanding accreditation standards in general practice - a qualitative study
2019	Chuang <i>et al.</i>	An international systems-theoretic comparison of hospital accreditation: developing an implementation typology.
2019	Kousgaard <i>et al.</i>	Experiences of accreditation impact in general practice – a qualitative study among general practitioners and their staff
2019	Shaw <i>et al.</i>	External institutional strategies: accreditation, certification, supervision.

2020	Wiig <i>et al.</i>	What methods are used to promote patient and family involvement in healthcare regulation? A multiple case study across four countries.
2020	Wiig <i>et al.</i>	The patient died: What about involvement in the investigation process?.
2020	Leistikow and Bal	Resilience and regulation, an odd couple? Consequences of Safety-II on governmental regulation of healthcare quality
2020	Van de Bovenkamp <i>et al.</i>	Tackling the problem of regulatory pressure in Dutch elderly care: The need for recoupling to establish functional rules
2020	Ellis <i>et al.</i>	Accreditation as a management tool: a national survey of hospital managers' perceptions and use of a mandatory accreditation program in Denmark. B
2020	Mansour <i>et al.</i>	The development of hospital accreditation in low- and middle-income countries: a literature review.
2020	Kok <i>et al.</i>	"The doctor was rude, the toilets are dirty". Utilizing 'soft signals' in the regulation of patient safety
2021	Kok	A standard story: On the use and consequences of standards in healthcare regulation
2021	van Vliet <i>et al</i>	Clarifying the concept of external evaluation.
2021	Batomen <i>et al.</i>	Impact of trauma centre accreditation on mortality and complications in a Canadian trauma system: an interrupted time series analysis.
2021	Sun <i>et al.</i>	Effectiveness of chest pain centre accreditation on the management of acute coronary syndrome: a retrospective study using a national database
2021	Weenink, <i>et al.</i>	Publication of inspection frameworks: a qualitative study exploring the impact on quality improvement and regulation in three healthcare settings
2022	World Health Organization (WHO)	Health care accreditation and quality of care: exploring the role of accreditation and external evaluation of health care facilities and organizations
2022	Yeung <i>et al.</i>	Patient Safety and Legal Regulations: A Total-Scale Analysis of the Scientific Literature

105

106 *Analysis*

107 Data were analyzed by a deductive, direct content analytical framework, identifying processes and
 108 structures in the two external evaluation systems, mapping similarities and differences. According to
 109 Hsieh and Shannon (2005), the deductive analytical approach provides a constructive starting point
 110 because it enables the researchers to identify key concepts or variables based on existing theory or
 111 research. It is also considered a relevant approach when there is an urge to develop a complete
 112 understanding of the context (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Thus, relevant previous research findings
 113 and the researchers' pre-existing knowledge related to the topic of external evaluation were used as
 114 guidance in the interpretation of document data. Moreover, the deductive approach was chosen to
 115 reflect the study's aim of finding explanations for the potential enablers and barriers in the two
 116 different external evaluation systems designs (Blaikie, 2010).

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3 117 Author XX read through all publications and analyzed abstracts and/or full text papers in table 2
4
5 118 “Empirical foundation of the study”, and identified elements related to structure, process and enablers
6
7 119 and barriers to quality and safety. Authors XX and XX discussed these elements in collaboration. All
8
9 120 three authors contributed with relevant publications and supplied the analysis with in-depth
10
11 121 knowledge of respectively the Norwegian and the U. S. contexts.
12

13 122 Findings

14 123 The aim of this study was to describe the structures and processes in external evaluation designed to
15
16 124 promote quality improvement in Norway and the U.S. with attention to comparison of enablers and
17
18 125 barriers in external evaluation systems. In the following, we present the findings related to different
19
20 126 definitions of health care quality and external evaluations, followed by examples of external evaluation
21
22 127 structures and processes in Norway and the U.S. comparing external inspection in the Norwegian
23
24 128 health system with characteristics of accreditation in the U.S. Finally, we present enablers and barriers
25
26 129 in the two system designs.

27 130 *Definitions of health care quality*

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29 131 The U.S. government Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services adopts and applies the definition of
30
31 132 quality as defined by the National Academy of Medicine: “the degree to which health services for
32
33 133 individuals and populations increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes and are consistent with
34
35 134 current professional knowledge” (CMS, n.d.). The Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (the lead
36
37 135 Federal agency for safety and quality in the U.S.) refers to the definition provided by the Institute of
38
39 136 Medicine (IOM, 2000; AHRQ, 2020). In that perspective, quality consists of six dimensions: clinical
40
41 137 effectiveness, patient safety, patient centeredness, care coordination, efficiency, timeliness, and
42
43 138 equity (IOM, 2000). The Norwegian governmental understanding and adoption of the
44
45 139 conceptualization of quality are in line with the conceptualization given by the Institute of Medicine
46
47 140 (IOM, 2000; NDH, 2017). This paper focuses on quality as a universal feature in healthcare and thus
48
49 141 applies the term generically with no attempt of distinguishing between the dimensions. In the
50
51 142 literature, quality and safety are often referred to in pairs.

52 143 *Definitions of external evaluation*

53
54 144 Different systems exist for external evaluation of quality and patient safety, with regulatory external
55
56 145 inspection and accreditation as two of the main categories of evaluation methods. The basic idea to
57
58 146 both evaluation methods is to ensure that healthcare providers have adequate quality systems as well
59
60 147 as contributing to the wider risk and safety enhancing management and implementation processes in
148
149 148 the organizations subjected to evaluation (Shaw, 2001; WHO, 2022; van Vliet *et al.*, 2021).

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3 149 • External inspection is a regulatory approach to which external inspectors assess the
4
5 150 performance of a healthcare organization, or delegate parts of the assessment to the
6
7 151 organization, by either planned, system audits of performance initiated by the inspectorate
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9 152 body or individual cases of adverse events related external inspection reported to the
10
11 153 inspectorate body (Baldwin and Cave, 1999; Hopkins and Hale, 2002; Walshe, 2003).
12
13 154 • Accreditation (including licensing and certification) is a form of external evaluation performed
14
15 155 by an external accreditation body. The assessment is performed based on benchmarks for
16
17 156 measuring patient safety and the quality of care provided by a healthcare organization (JC,
18
19 157 n.d).

20 158 Whilst external inspection may best be described as a process where the accountability of the
21
22 159 assessment of the system rests on the subjected organization, the subjected organizations under a
23
24 160 process of accreditation is rather externally accounted for by the means of accreditation. The risk
25
26 161 management and quality systems are thus respectively based on assessment of principles for high
27
28 162 quality versus measurement of indicators against predefined performance standards for quality and
29
30 163 safety.

31 164 *Examples of external evaluation structures and processes in Norway and the U.S.*

32 165 The occurrence of serious adverse events constitutes a collective, societal challenge with
33
34 166 comprehensive individual implications for the patients and their families, as well as having implications
35
36 167 for healthcare professionals involved. In Norway, a patient related injury was registered in roughly 12
37
38 168 % of hospital stays in 2019 (NDH, 2021). In the U.S., a past study from John Hopkins indicated that
39
40 169 medical errors represented the third leading cause of death in the U.S., with a 10% of all deaths
41
42 170 suggested as due to medical error (Makary and Daniel, 2016). Latest results from U.S. hospitals show
43
44 171 that one adverse event occurred in 23.6% of hospital admissions (Bates *et al.*, 2023). These numbers in
45
46 172 both countries, speak for reduction and close attention to underlying causes and solutions that may
47
48 173 have an impact on improving the services (Øyri, 2021; Rodziewicz *et al.*, 2023).

49 174 According to The International Society for Quality in Health Care (ISQua), strategies of external
50
51 175 evaluation through accreditation provide assurance that healthcare providers and organizations
52
53 176 possess adequate quality systems (van Vliet *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, it may contribute to “quality
54
55 177 improvement, risk mitigation, patient safety, improved efficiency and accountability, and sustainability
56
57 178 of the healthcare system” (van Vliet *et al.*, 2021). A similar multifaceted purpose sits with the
58
59 179 Norwegian regulatory framework for external inspection (NBHS, 2019; 2019; Øyri, 2021; Øyri and Wiig,
60
180 2022). Thus, both accreditation and inspection are strategies put in place to ensure that healthcare
181
181 181 providers have adequate quality systems as well as contributing to the wider risk and safety enhancing

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3 182 management and implementation processes in the organizations subjected to evaluation. The
4
5 183 relevance however also links with the body of previous studies indicating inconclusive results regarding
6
7 184 the impact on quality and safety from external evaluation (Flodgren *et al.*, 2011; Hovlid *et al.*, 2017;
8
9 185 Lam *et al.*, 2018; Øyri *et al.*, 2021; van Vliet *et al.*, 2021). Lam and colleagues (2018) did not find any
10
11 186 association between hospital accreditation and lower mortality and only a slight association between
12
13 187 accreditation and lower readmission rates. In their systematic review of hospital accreditation found
14
15 188 the role of accreditation in improving outcomes, to be “largely undefined” (Lam *et al.*, 2018). On the
16
17 189 other hand, they also did reveal interesting results of accreditation impact that were not possible to
18
19 190 statistically measure, specifically that accreditation could have important implications organizational
20
21 191 processes and structures (Lam *et al.*, 2018). A more recent publication also did not find an association
22
23 192 between patient outcomes and accreditation, but accreditation did entail beneficial value for
24
25 193 organizations with decreasing performance prior to the accreditation process (Sun *et al.*, 2021;
26
27 194 Batomen *et al.*, 2021). Evidence on the contrary points to external evaluation as a means of
28
29 195 contributing constructively to organizational change in process, structure or even culture (Brubakk *et*
30
31 196 *al.*, 2015; Shaw *et al.*, 2019; van Vliet *et al.*, 2021).

197 *External inspection in the Norwegian health system*

31 198 External inspection is performed by the Norwegian Board of Health Supervision (NBHS) and 11
32
33 199 regional County Governors (2018; 2021). The national government represented by the Ministry of
34
35 200 Health and Care Services (MHCS), provides the Inspectorate and the County Governors with
36
37 201 regulations and policies applied to the evaluation of quality and safety provided by the healthcare
38
39 202 services. Evaluation is mandatory in the sense that the hospitals are obliged to notify external
40
41 203 regulators about serious adverse events, through incident reporting systems. Hospitals may become
42
43 204 externally evaluated either based on the incidents reported or based on planned system audits
44
45 205 addressing topics of significant risk potential.

45 206 Three key characteristics of the Norwegian model for external evaluation of quality and safety
46
47 207 are: 1) internal control principles in evaluation of structure and process, 2) the idea of blaming the
48
49 208 system rather than individual performance with attention to system performance and management
50
51 209 responsibilities, 3) inclusion of internal stakeholders in the evaluation processes.

52 210 1) Internal control principles in evaluation of structure and process

55 211 Even though some areas of the Norwegian healthcare services are strictly governed by prescriptive
56
57 212 rules, for instance using standardization and checklists which are highly structured, and compliance
58
59 213 based, quality and safety of the services provided is generally governed by the basic legal standard and
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214 principle of “sound professional practice” and “prudent conduct” (MHCS, 1999 a; the Health Personnel

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3 215 Act § 4). The implication is that the quality of the services should correspond to a certain level, which
4
5 216 may fluctuate with time, societal changes, development in technology and medical knowledge
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7 217 (Lilleholt, 2003; Lindøe *et al.*, 2015). The required level of quality applies to all types of private and
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9 218 public healthcare providers and organizations. Any subsequent external evaluation is required to
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11 219 assessing the quality and safety of the services along the same line of “sound professional practice”.
12
13 220 (Lindøe *et al.*, 2018). This implies that the Norwegian regulatory system for external inspection is based
14
15 221 on internal control and performance-based principles, requiring certain outcomes (achieved or
16
17 222 avoided) without specifying solutions (Coglianese and Lazer, 2003). These principles were originally
18
19 223 retrieved from safety and risk management in the Norwegian petroleum industry and transferred to
20
21 224 the healthcare regulatory context (MLSI, 2010; Øyri, 2021). These regulations aim at securing a certain
22
23 225 level of system performance, without specifying *how* healthcare organizations may achieve or ensure
24
25 226 this level of quality and safety. External inspections, either with the aim of conducting a system audit
26
27 227 or incident-based inspection, therefore base their assessments on whether the organizations have
28
29 228 implemented adequate safety barriers and risk management measures to ensure sound professional
30
31 229 practice, and whether the organizations are having a systematic and continuous improvement focus
32
33 230 (Øyri *et al.*, 2020, 2021). The assessment is done with the help of a set of regulations such as the
34
35 231 Specialized Health Services Act (MHCS, 1999), the Municipal Health and Care Services Act (MHCS,
36
37 232 2011), the Dental Health Services Act (MHCS, 1983), the Health Personnel Act (MHCS, 1999), the
38
39 233 Health Services Supervision Act (MHCS, 2017), the Quality Improvement Regulation (MHCS, 2016)
40
41 234 which entails generic principles for internal control. Besides, the ISO 9001:2015 NS15224 standard
42
43 235 specifies requirements for an organization’s quality management system, which aligns with the internal
44
45 236 control requirements in the Quality Improvement Regulation (DNV, n.d; SN, 2021). The assumption
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47 237 with this regulatory approach is that it provides the organizations with further incentives to ensure
48
49 238 a strong quality system in accordance with governmental requirements (MHCS, 2015).

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- 2) The idea of blaming the system rather than individual performance with attention to system performance and management responsibilities

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3 241 In the Norwegian context, an *individual blame logic* has been replaced with a model which “blames”
4 242 *the system for inadequate quality and patient harm. The Norwegian Penal Code Sections 27-28*
5 243 *(Ministry of Justice, 2005) regulates penalties for enterprises and is applicable in cases where a penal*
6 244 *provision is “violated by a person who has acted on behalf of an enterprise”, whereas the Norwegian*
7 245 *System of Patient Injury Compensation (NPE) is a government agency handling compensation claims*
8 246 *related to errors or injuries that are results from healthcare treatment (MHCS, 2001). Both*
9 247 *arrangements represent the Norwegian system design’s attention to collective efforts and system level*
10 248 *accountability and less attention to individual performance or individual accountability for health*
11 249 *professionals. Health professionals are however occasional subjects to potential individual sanctions*
12 250 *such as revocation of authorization or license, mostly in cases related to “unsuitability” due to mental*
13 251 *illness, drug abuse or sexual misconduct (NDH, 2018).*

252 3) Inclusion of internal stakeholders in the evaluation processes

253 The rights of patients and users are outlined in the Patients and User Rights Act (1999). In recent years,
254 stakeholder involvement of patients, users, and next of kin has become one of the key principles for
255 efficient external evaluation of the services (Wiig *et al.*, 2020, 2020). The value of including patients,
256 users, and next of kin is mentioned in both the official guidelines document and in a separate white
257 paper providing the inspectors with recommendations for relevant and sensible stakeholder
258 involvement pre, during and post external inspection. The Inspectorate has an independent user
259 panel/council, assisting the government in different aspects of the strategies related to evaluation
260 process (NBHS, 2019; 2019). In the external evaluation process, the organization is often requested to
261 do a self-assessment of their risk management system and performance (NBHS, 2023). This interaction
262 between inspection team and organization is part of the self-regulation processes, which is viewed as
263 essential in the Norwegian regulatory system in healthcare. Self-regulatory approaches may increase
264 the feeling of responsibility for the risk management system, providing incentives for actively being
265 involved in quality improvement due to autonomy, enabling the organizations to pay attention to and
266 adapt to local conditions, uncertainties, and variations (Øyri and Wiig, 2019). Stakeholder inclusion in
267 external inspection in the Norwegian system therefore promotes decentralized implementation and
268 decision-making, provided by a centralized-regulatory system level.

269 *Characteristics of accreditation in the U.S. health system*

270 Although self-regulation in the U.S. system is an important aspect in keeping oversight of the medical
271 profession, external evaluation plays a key role in assuring quality (JC, n.d.; Kachalia *et al.*, 2016). The
272 U.S. system for external evaluation is based on accreditation of healthcare organizations (Kato and
273 Zikos, 2022). Accreditation is executed on behalf of the government by accreditation organizations,
274 which often also perform inspections. Several accreditation bodies exist in the U.S. healthcare system,

1
2
3 275 but the non-profit organization Joint Commission serves as the largest standard setting and accrediting
4 276 body (U.S. Department of Health & Human Services, 2021; JC, n.d.). It is voluntary to become
5 277 accredited, but very strong financial incentives apply such as the eligibility for receiving federal
6 278 reimbursement (Medicare and Medicaid) and general federal funding (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2022), and
7 279 practically speaking nearly all hospitals elect to be accredited. State granted hospital licensure is in
8 280 many states preconditioned by meeting with the Joint Commission standards (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2022).
9 281 Reporting of particularly serious adverse events—sometimes termed “never events,” is required, both
10 282 to the Joint Commission and to states. Certain of these events then trigger inspections related to the
11 283 events (PSNet, 2019).

12
13 284 Two key characteristics of the U.S. model for external evaluation of quality and safety relate to: 1)
14 285 individual liability in cases of medical error: malpractice insurance, 2) compliance-based, management-
15 286 oriented evaluation of structure and process.

16
17 287 1) Individual liability countered by a system of torts; insurance

18
19 288 Most clinicians and hospitals in the U.S. are covered by malpractice insurance, and the penalties issued
20 289 in cases of medical malpractice are civil and usually covered by insurance companies, counteracted
21 290 through “professional liability” (Studdert *et al.*, 2004; Yeung *et al.*, 2022). In the U.S, links between
22 291 medical liability and concepts of patient safety have been a hot topic for decades, and the initial
23 292 thought about liability insurance is that it can offer compensation to patients who have suffered from
24 293 negligent treatment, and help enforcing standards of quality of care set by U.S. courts (Sage, 2003).
25 294 The system of torts has thus played a key part in ensuring accountability (Kachalia *et al.*, 2016).
26 295 However, many patients who are harmed—even negligently—do not get compensated.

27 296 In recent years state “apology laws” for malpractice and disclosure programs for adverse
28 297 events have been implemented by several states in the U.S. (Gallegos, 2021). Past results have shown
29 298 that the average monthly rate of new claims decreased, after a medical disclosure program was fully
30 299 implemented (Kachalia *et al.*, 2010). In addition, there has been discussions in the U.S. about whether
31 300 a shift from personal risk of getting sued over negligence towards blaming the system by “enterprise
32 301 liability” could contribute constructively (Kachalia *et al.*, 2016). Numbers have indeed shown that in 3
33 302 percent of the claims in U.S. malpractice lawsuits, no verifiable medical injuries were found, and 40
34 303 percent of the claims did not involve medical errors (Studdert *et al.*, 2006).

35
36 304 2) Compliance-based, and management-oriented evaluation of structure and process.

37 305 Healthcare organizations must be surveyed, on-site, every three years at a minimum (JC, 2023). These
38 306 visits are generally unannounced. The quality measurement systems applied in the survey process are

1
2
3 307 clinical indicators and patient satisfaction indicators (Chuang *et al.*, 2019). The basic principle in the
4
5 308 on-site survey is to enforce “compliance with various performance-based standards” (Ibrahim *et al.*,
6
7 309 2022). Past criticism has however been raised towards the Joint Commission standards’ evaluation
8
9 310 resulting in compliance or noncompliance, marked as “met” or “not met” (Morey *et al.*, 2015).

11 *Enablers and barriers in external evaluation systems*

12 Achieving safety demands that policy and decision makers have a multifactorial mindset. This includes
13
14 313 regulations, evaluation, standardization of specific processes according to best practices to avoid
15
16 314 harm. It further implies improving working conditions and organizational practices and enforcing risk
17
18 315 management, as well as building system resilience. The latter includes building adaptive capacity to
19
20 316 enable the processes of monitoring, anticipating, and responding to risks to ensure safe care (Vincent
21
22 317 and Amalberti, 2016, Leistikow and Bal, 2020, Øyri and Wiig, 2022). Enablers for successful
23
24 318 implementation and process of external evaluation have shown to be associated with external
25
26 319 expectations being clearly stated, tools, guidance, and support being offered along with regulations
27
28 320 and rules. This includes efforts to stimulate reflection within the organizations and between external
29
30 321 regulators and stakeholders, and internal stakeholders in the healthcare system (Due *et al.*, 2019; Wiig
31
32 322 *et al.*, 2021, 2021; Øyri *et al.*, 2021). Inspections have proven to engage staff and leaders and assist in
33
34 323 framing quality and safety issues into relevant measures for improvement (Hovlid *et al.*, 2020; 2020;
35
36 324 Øyri *et al.*, 2021). Likewise, accreditation can be a favorable management tool according to Ellis and
37
38 325 colleagues (2020). Moreover, accreditation almost certainly offers more benefit in healthcare systems
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40 326 in countries which are less developed than in other countries, implying that accreditation may have a
41
42 327 major impact especially if the baseline is low and many things demonstrated to improve safety may
43
44 328 not be available (Warren *et al.*, 2011; Smits *et al.*, 2014; Mansour *et al.*, 2020).

45
46 329
47
48 330 Barriers to accreditation include that evaluation is time-consuming, may not address core services, can
49
50 331 interfere with autonomy, and is sometimes not based on “sound evidence” as well as confusion about
51
52 332 what strategies hospitals should implement (Brubakk *et al.*, 2015; Wilson, 2016; Kousgaard *et al.*,
53
54 333 2019). One specific point of criticism points to the lack of transparency about evidence related to the
55
56 334 recommendations the Joint Commission are giving to U.S. hospitals having negative impact on the
57
58 335 organizations and clinicians’ motivation to implement essential policies (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2022). Omission
59
60 336 of the recommendations’ underlying rationale could therefore potentially have a negative impact on
337
338 the safety of patients (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2022). “Regulatory pressure” and “regulatory fatigue” are well-
339
340 known hinders for constructive implementation of regulation and policies in healthcare in general
(Morey *et al.*, 2015; van de Bovenkamp *et al.*, 2020; Ibrahim *et al.*, 2022). Regulating complex systems
is difficult, as providers often need to resort to workarounds, make tradeoffs and adaptations to get

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2
3 341 complex systems to function (Kok, 2021). The latter requires flexibility and adaptive capacity and hence
4
5 342 the organizations need their sufficient autonomy to make relevant decisions (Øyri and Wiig, 2022). The
6
7 343 approaches taken by inspectors, whether “soft” or “hard”, can have variable impacts on the
8
9 344 organizations involved and these “signals” transcend the formal assessments of performance and
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11 345 compliance (Kok *et al.*, 2020). Application of soft signals specifically could be productive and help
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13 346 inspectors “read between the lines” during conversations with managers and healthcare professionals
14
15 347 (Kok *et al.*, 2020).

16 348 Discussion and Implications

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18 349 In this general review we have displayed some distinct contrasts between the two countries in scope.
19
20 350 First, the Norwegian regulatory framework for external inspection has replaced an individual blame
21
22 351 logic with a model which “blames” the system for inadequate quality and patient harm. Despite of this,
23
24 352 the regulator still has the possibility of imposing individual sanctions (NDH, 2018). The Norwegian
25
26 353 System of Patient Injury Compensation is designed to pay attention to collective efforts and system
27
28 354 level accountability, with less attention to individual performance. This contrasts with the U.S.
29
30 355 accreditation system, which focuses on accreditation visits, and where most clinicians and hospitals
31
32 356 are covered by malpractice insurance to counteract individual professional liability in cases of medical
33
34 357 errors. Secondly, involving patients and next of kin directly in adverse event related external
35
36 358 evaluations is a bigger part of a change in external inspection culture and methods than in processes
37
38 359 of accreditation, although findings indicate an ongoing turning point in accreditation. These regulatory
39
40 360 system design features have implications, shown as enablers and barriers to external inspection and
41
42 361 the assessment of quality and patient safety, which we discuss in the forthcoming.

42 363 *Implications of different regulatory frameworks on assessment of quality and patient safety*

43 364 Past studies have raised concerns about the increase in complexity and demands of external
44
45 365 regulation, due to the potential of distracting internal stakeholders in healthcare rather than
46
47 366 supporting their efforts to improve quality and safety (Oikonomou *et al.*, 2019). As our aim in this study
48
49 367 fixates, there is uncharted knowledge about the enablers and barriers to structures and processes in
50
51 368 external evaluation designed to promote quality improvement. Thus, policy makers need to pay close
52
53 369 attention to regulatory pressure and consider innovations to evaluating quality and safety in
54
55 370 healthcare (van de Bovenkamp *et al.*, 2020). How governments seek to design and co-shape external
56
57 371 regulations, policies, and strategies for evaluation, vary greatly with country and healthcare system
58
59 372 designs, with implications for differences in quality and safety outcomes, efficiency, administrative
60
373 burdens, spending, and legitimacy to mention a few. Differences in healthcare system design across
374 the globe is therefore an important factor in the discussions about impact and implications from

1
2
3 375 heterogeneous external evaluation methods (Bracewell and Winchester, 2021). Comparisons of
4 376 accreditation standards specifically may even not be possible to do due to differences in transparency,
5 377 and some countries do not even reveal their accreditation standards to the public (Breuckmann *et al.*,
6 378 2015; Bracewell and Winchester, 2021). According to the 2021 Commonwealth Fund’s report Norway
7 379 ranks as one of the top-performing countries overall, with the U.S. ranked last in four of five domains that
8 380 were assessed (equity, access to care, administrative efficiency, health care outcomes, and care process)
9 381 (Schneider *et al.*, 2021). Explanations for the ranking are multifaceted. One obvious explanation relates
10 382 to the highly complex U.S. healthcare system, contrasted to the Norwegian system which is less complex
11 383 geographically and demographically (Walshe, 2003; Field, 2017), as well as the diversity of the underlying
12 384 population—certain areas of the U.S. are very poor and often have low-quality health care. Another is the
13 385 difference in the systems’ financial foundation: whilst Norway has a universal health care system, the
14 386 U.S. system is predominantly based on insurance coverage (Walshe, 2003; MHCS, 2014; Schneider *et al.*,
15 387 2021). The U.S. is far more diverse in all these aspects than Norway, which constitutes one of the
16 388 biggest differences with implications for quality. However, due to less governmental policies and
17 389 investments in for instance education, employment and social programs in the U.S. compared to Norway,
18 390 U.S. health outcomes could be improved through targeted actions to social and economic factors *beyond*
19 391 health care (Schneider *et al.*, 2021).

20
21
22 392 An element regarding national policy and evaluation of quality supposedly with implications for
23 393 both systems, is the two countries’ distinct regulatory frameworks. Whilst the Norwegian system is based
24 394 on parliamentarism, the U.S. employs federalism (a system of government where federal and state
25 395 governments share powers) (Constitution of the United States, 1787; Stenken and Brooks, 2022;
26 396 Constitution of the Kingdom of Norway, 1814). The U.S. and the Norwegian regulatory regimes are
27 397 both complex, embodying several policy-, lawmaking, and governing institutions. These institutions
28 398 possess different legislative powers and their policies and strategies of accreditation and inspection
29 399 have different implications for accountability and learning, including various enablers and barriers to
30 400 accreditors and inspectors’ adaptive capacities and leeway to meet the needs of the organizations they
31 401 are set to evaluate. A variety of legal sources (primary and secondary sources) have relevance in the
32 402 framing, analysis, and completions of the legislative powers, policies, and strategies.

33
34
35 403 Previous comparative research in the domain of industrial safety has identified similarities and
36 404 contrasts in the way U.S. and Norwegian governments regulate risk governance of their offshore oil
37 405 and gas operations (Lindøe and Baram, 2019). Technically detailed prescriptive rules, often developed
38 406 by private enterprises, define the methods and practices that U.S. oil and gas companies must comply
39 407 to avoid strict enforcement. Additional opportunities for compliance are given by the recommendation
40 408 of recommended “guidelines for acceptable self-regulation” (Lindøe and Baram, 2019). The latter is a

1
2
3 409 typical feature with the Norwegian offshore regulatory regime. The important triangular cooperation
4
5 410 between regulators and companies offshore in the Norwegian system is however not present in the
6
7 411 U.S. regulatory system (Lindøe and Baram, 2019). As large parts of the Norwegian healthcare system
8
9 412 are based on principles referred to as performance-based or outcome-based, understood as a
10
11 413 regulatory strategy that does not specify how the process towards required outcomes should look like,
12
13 414 these cross-industry findings demonstrate how we can draw parallels to healthcare regulation
14
15 415 (Coglianese and Lazer, 2003). In turn, it may gain valuable lessons for cross-country learning.

16
17 416 The idea in a performance-based system is that “enforced self-regulation” influences and co-
18
19 417 opt the regulatees’ ability and will to establish “internal governance” with the incentive to perform in
20
21 418 accordance with best practices and to the best interest for both external and internal stakeholders
22
23 419 (Ayres and Braithwaite, 1992; Lindøe and Baram, 2019). Self-regulation does however raise potential
24
25 420 issues with credibility, efficacy, accountability, and legitimacy (Lindøe and Baram, 2019).

26
27 421 In comparison, the U.S. system is a public-private partnership with the Joint Commission
28
29 422 serving as an independent body working closely with external government bodies (Field, 2007, 2017;
30
31 423 JC, 2022). The principle of federalism along with these partnerships and elements of private oversight
32
33 424 in the system, could possibly foster an unfortunate opportunity for competition and confrontation
34
35 425 between different bodies (Field, 2017). One key set of differences whilst external inspection in the
36
37 426 Norwegian regime of evaluation is a mandatory control mechanism with healthcare providers’ quality
38
39 427 and safety, accreditation in the U.S. model is a voluntary, non-statutory mechanism established to
40
41 428 advocate and oversee quality (Field, 2007, 2017). The external inspection bodies in Norway have
42
43 429 options of enforcement set out in the Penal Code, whereas the Joint Commission cannot “regulate”
44
45 430 the services as such. Acting according to the accreditation requirements has nevertheless implications
46
47 431 for compliance with the U.S. federal requirement of establishing minimum health and safety and
48
49 432 standards (CMS, n.d.; SSA, n.d.).

50
51 433 It is important to gain knowledge about the implications of the different national policies that
52
53 434 these two regulatory frameworks may have for different system levels of risk management from the
54
55 435 patient safety perspective. The aspect of cross-country learning is essential to confront the high
56
57 436 numbers of patient injuries in both countries and crucial from the patient perspective, as patients in
58
59 437 both countries expect high quality and safe healthcare.

52 438 *The value of context - uniting accreditation standards and processes of external inspection*

54 439 Our findings suggest that enablers and barriers need more scrutiny and that the value of context should
55
56 440 be seen as an enabler for sufficient implementation of safety and quality related policies and
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58 441 regulation. In the context of accreditation, the WHO has raised concern about sensible application of
59
60 442 evaluation standards (WHO, 2022). The WHO recommends asking the context sensitive question: 1)

443 “What aspects of accreditation might work in my context?”, rather than asking “Does accreditation
 444 work?”. This recommendation could push public policy development towards context-sensitivity and
 445 serve as a practical solution to potentially increase the autonomy and sense of responsibility, stimulate
 446 reflection, and thus strengthen the overall quality of external evaluation.

447 This review presents the findings for two fundamentally opposing approaches to regulation and
 448 external evaluation of quality and safety. The Norwegian system is a state regulated and mandatory
 449 policy that “blames” the system rather than penalizing the individual for breaches in “best practices”
 450 and national quality standards set by relevant medical and professional associations. In contrast, the
 451 U.S. approach is voluntary and primarily relies on accreditation and compliance to accepted standards
 452 to encourage quality assurance and patient safety, heavily relying on insurance and lawsuits for
 453 compensation of harm resulting from the healthcare system. Despite that the U.S. outspends other
 454 nations, it comes across as an outlier compared to all other countries measured in the Commonwealth
 455 Fund report (Schneider *et al.*, 2021). Policies and practices in external inspection in other developed
 456 countries are not in this review’s scope, however it is interesting to highlight that other top-performing
 457 countries in the Commonwealth Fund ranking have systems with similar features of regulatory design
 458 and external evaluation processes, for instance the Netherlands and Norway (UN, n.d.; Weenink *et al.*,
 459 2021). However, the Netherlands has a double-based state regulated and mandatory system for
 460 external evaluation (Government of the Netherlands, n.d.), demonstrating that a system of external
 461 evaluation can include both accreditation standards and processes of external inspection, and that
 462 choosing to implement one system design or the other is not mutually exclusive. This combination of
 463 two sets of external evaluations strategies may represent a regulatory system design that may enable
 464 organizational autonomy on one hand (external inspection processes) and structured compliance
 465 (accreditation) on the other. Enablers and barriers to successful application of external evaluation
 466 need more scrutiny, and we suggest further exploration, especially related to how a combined
 467 regulatory system design may ensure and improve quality and safety in healthcare organizations. A
 468 summary of potentially key pros and cons with the two systems’ policies for external evaluation is
 469 found in Table 3 and Table 4. Future studies should be exploring the experiences of enablers and
 470 barriers of different accreditation and regulatory bodies’ approach to external evaluation application.

471

472 Table 3. Potential key pros and cons with the system policies for accreditation.

Pros	Cons
Management tool	Lack of meaningful stakeholder inclusion
Benchmark for measuring patient safety and quality of care	Can interfere with autonomy
Contributor to enhancing management and implementation processes	Lack of transparency about evidence related to the recommendations and confusion about strategies

Assurance for the public that healthcare providers and organizations possess adequate quality systems	Time-consuming and regulatory fatigue
Accountability	Compliance or noncompliance
Efficiency	Relying on insurance and lawsuits for compensation of harm resulting from the healthcare system.

473

474 Table 4. Potential pros and cons with the system policies for external inspection.

Pros	Cons
Decentralized implementation and decision-making	Regulatory fatigue
Autonomy and adaptive capacity to meet demands	Credibility
The value of context	Legitimacy
Engages staff and leaders in quality improvement	Efficacy
Incentive to perform in accordance with best practices	Accountability
A state regulated and mandatory policy that “blames” the system rather than penalizing the individual for breaches in “best practices” and national standards	Potential individual sanctions such as revocation of authorization or license

475 *Achieving cross-country learning about system design*

476 According to recent studies there is an ongoing turning point in the context of accreditation: moving
 477 from a culture of means towards evaluation of results, addressing the organizational core (Brubakk *et*
 478 *al.*, 2015; Johannesen and Wiig, 2017; Johannesen *et al.*, 2020; Johannesen, 2020). In late 2022, the
 479 Joint Commission announced a reduction in the number of standards with 168 accreditation
 480 requirements, as well as the revision of 14 standards (JC, 2022). Along with literature review and expert
 481 evaluation, Joint Commission issued standards recently underwent review in accordance with three
 482 questions: 1) does the requirement still address an important quality and safety issue? 2) is the
 483 requirement redundant? 3) are the time and resources needed to comply with the requirement
 484 commensurate with the estimated benefit to patient care and health outcomes? Based on the answers
 485 on these questions, standards were either revised or discontinued. Some of these standards went out
 486 of effect on January 1st, 2023. The Joint Commission’s announcement and commitment to revision
 487 reflects what should be a key aspect in external evaluation: to pay constant attention to changes in
 488 the public and patients’ expectations, and the development in technology, human resources and
 489 knowledge related to quality improvement and patient safety.

490 Stakeholder views and practices, such as involving patients and next of kin directly in adverse
 491 event inspection routines and information processes represents another future development and
 492 change in evaluation culture and methods (Øyri *et al.*, 2021; Wiig *et al.*, 2021; 2021). In contrast, there
 493 has been raised concern to if accrediting organizations in the U.S. really focus on what matters to
 494 patients, and a lack of meaningful stakeholder inclusion may be part of that concern (Jha, 2018). A
 495 development of involvement in routines and processes may in turn result in a more meaningful

1
2
3 496 evaluation process and increased motivation for health professionals to make relevant contributions
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5 497 to processes of improvement and implementation. In turn it may contradict parts of the status of
6
7 498 regulation and policies seen as solely oppressive in the eyes of clinicians (Øyri *et al.*, 2020). Paying more
8
9 499 attention to relevance and multilevel stakeholder inclusion in evaluation of the systemic and structural
10
11 500 conditions for quality and safety, could also contribute to the idea of shifting from an individual blame
12
13 501 logic towards blaming *the system as such*. Perspectives from the Norwegian and U.S. contexts could
14
15 502 serve as valuable contracts in the search for cross-country learning about external evaluation,
16
17 503 particularly to how the accreditation and regulatory bodies assess their impact on service
18
19 504 performance.

20 21 505 *Strengths and Limitations*

22
23 506 This comparative general review provides glimpses into two specific approaches of external evaluation,
24
25 507 and thus reports *aspects* of structures and processes in the Norwegian and the U.S. regulatory
26
27 508 systems. Since this is not a systematic review, the paper does not fully reflect the entire field of relevant
28
29 509 literature. It can be viewed as both a strength and a limitation that we have used material in report
30
31 510 format for our study's empirical foundation, as this gives us a thorough insight into the field of external
32
33 511 evaluation. The implications of different regulatory strategies and arrangements for evaluation on
34
35 512 quality and safety discussed in this review adds to the unclarity about impact and effects from external
36
37 513 evaluation but are nevertheless limited to the two fundamentally opposing approaches in Norway and
38
39 514 the U.S. **The general performance of the two countries explored in this paper may be explained by**
40
41 515 **other factors than external evaluation/regulation/accreditation.** Further studies on other developed
42
43 516 countries are required to allow a more complete discussion of external evaluation practices and
44
45 517 relevant recommendations globally.

46 47 518 *Conclusion*

48
49 519 In this evaluation, we compared the Norwegian and U.S. regulatory approaches. The Norwegian
50
51 520 system applies a state body to oversee and evaluate organisations and in doing so to a large degree
52
53 521 applies a system perspective with limited attention to blaming individuals. There is a low risk of
54
55 522 financial lawsuits in the Norwegian regulatory system. In contrast, the U.S. system relies on
56
57 523 accreditation, insurance and more patients bring lawsuits to be compensated for harm resulting from
58
59 524 the healthcare system, even though the evidence suggests that few patients suffering even negligent
60
61 525 injuries receive compensation. Given the differences between the countries, it is not clear that one
62
63 526 system is better than the other even though the countries score differently on health indicators, with
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65 527 Norway having better performance. Both accreditation and external inspection are strategies put in
66
67 528 place to ensure that healthcare providers have adequate quality systems as well as contributing to the

1
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3 529 wider risk and safety enhancing management and implementation processes in the organizations
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5 530 subjected to evaluation. This paper therefore highpoints the idea that achieving safety must include a
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7 531 multifactorial mindset for policy and decision makers, and to inspectors and accreditors. Successful
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9 532 evaluation process and implementation shown to associate with external expectations needs to be
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11 533 clearly stated, with guidance and support offered along with the required compliance with standards
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13 534 and regulations. Paraphrasing the famous quote of Montesquieu "Useless laws weaken the necessary
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15 535 laws", we believe that useless evaluation weakens the necessary evaluation. The design of the
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17 536 Norwegian and the U.S. distinct regulatory frameworks have implications for the national policies
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19 537 implemented and the processes of evaluation of quality. In turn, these implications may result in
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21 538 differences in quality and safety outcomes, efficiency, administrative burdens, spending, and
22
23 539 legitimacy. Thus, knowledge retrieved from the comparative document study may contribute to better
24
25 540 understanding of the different system designs' enablers and barriers and may in turn add to learning
26
27 541 potentials for cross country improvement at the health policy level.

542 **Conflict of Interest**

543 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial
544 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

545 **XXX** reports grants and personal fees from EarlySense, personal fees from CDI Negev, equity
546 from ValeraHealth, equity from Clew, equity from MDClone, personal fees and equity from
547 AESOP, personal fees and equity from Feelbetter, equity from Guided Clinical Solutions, and grants
548 from IBM Watson Health, outside the submitted work. **XXX** has a patent pending (**XXX**), on
549 intraoperative clinical decision support.

550 **Author Contributions**

551 **XX** had the idea and developed the first draft of the paper, followed by revision in collaboration with
552 **XX and XXX**.

553 **Funding**

554 The authors are supported by **XXXX**.

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