

Quality Improvement: origins, purpose and the future for veterinary practice

Freya Rooke BSc (Hons) MRes^{1*}
John Burford MA VetMB PhD CertVA CertES(Soft Tissue) SFHEA FRCVS¹
Sarah Freeman BVetMed PhD CertVA CertVR CertES DipECVS FHEA FRCVS¹
Tim Mair BVSc PhD DEIM DESTS DipECEIM AssocECVDI FRCVS²
Jo Suthers BVM&S MPhil CertES(Soft tissue) DipECVS MRCVS³
Marnie Brennan BSc(VB) BVMS PhD PGCHE DipECVPH(PM) FHEA MRCVS¹

ISSN: 2396-9776

Published: 06 May 2021

in: The Veterinary Evidence journal Vol 6, Issue 2

DOI: 10.18849/VE.V6I2.358

Reviewed by: Peter Cockcroft (MA VetMB MSc DCHP DVM&S

DipECBHM MBA MRCVS), Catherine Oxtoby (BVSc PhD) and Adam Swallow (BVSc MRCVS)





¹ School of Veterinary Medicine and Science, University of Nottingham, College Road, Sutton Bonington, Leicestershire, LE12 5RD

² CVS Ltd, Bell Equine Veterinary Clinic, Mereworth, Maidstone, Kent, ME18 5GS

³ CVS Ltd, B&W Equine Hospital, Breadstone, Berkeley, Gloucestershire, GL13 9HG

^{*} Corresponding Author (<u>freya.rooke@nottingham.ac.uk</u>)

INTRODUCTION

Providing the highest quality veterinary care can often be a delicate balancing act: the client/owner's wishes, financial parameters and emotional needs have to be considered, whilst also meeting the animal's clinical needs. But what actually defines quality care? It is a term frequently used in both the human and veterinary healthcare literature, but often has little explanation or definition attached to it. 'Quality' in relation to care delivered is not a static concept and will hold different meanings to different individuals within a healthcare service. John Ruskin, a Victorian writer and critic of art and society observed: 'Quality is never an accident; it is always the result of high intention, sincere effort, intelligent direction and skillful execution' (1,2).

WHAT IS QUALITY CARE?

It is easiest to describe quality care within the context of human medicine, as it is in this sector where the majority of the literature is based. The Institute of Medicine (IOM), a non-profit organisation that provides evidence-based research and recommendations for public health and science policy, currently defines quality care as, 'The degree to which health services for individuals and populations increase the likelihood of desired health outcomes and are consistent with current professional knowledge' (3). This definition, however, places quality care in a very one-dimensional space, with a heavy focus on the clinical outcomes of care which results in a limited explanation of quality care. Categorising in this way solely on positive versus negative outcomes means that the IOM definition falls short in describing a holistic all-encompassing quality care experience.

The Royal College of Physicians (RCP), a British professional body dedicated to improving the practice of medicine chiefly through advocacy, education and research, takes a broader approach to defining and measuring quality care. The RCP describes quality care as involving five factors, 'creating a delicate balance between health and wellbeing of the population, sustainable finance, environment and resources alongside providing the best possible care for the individual' (4,5). This description is also more representative of the multidimensional nature of providing care as well as recognising the pressures exerted on the industry in the 21st century.

There is an ongoing shift in the ideology of human healthcare providers, particularly within the National Healthcare Service (NHS), looking to create a model of care more akin to a business model (6,7). Bowers (6) and Singh (7) discussed the perception of quality and user-experience by the patients and clients, this experience presented itself as the key focus and core of the NHS strategy instead of the service providers. This was more akin to business models that measure the impact of company structure and service on customer 'delight' and behavioural intentions. In short this can be summarised as how the experience of the customer had impacted their future behaviour and likelihood to return as a customer (8). In order to develop strategies to achieve this goal within the NHS it is necessary to understand the cause, variations, definitions and drivers of quality care; it is not possible to effectively measure quality of care without defining what formulates a quality care experience (9,10). The transformation in attitude within the human healthcare sector is supported by changes in policy which encourages the widespread adoption of quality measuring and improvement methods. Patient surveys have also been used to benchmark performance by measuring satisfaction with the care provided (7).

Defining quality care within veterinary services is complicated by the fact that the receiver of care, the animal, is not able to articulate their experience. Instead it is a third party, often the owner, who employs the service and may pay the bill without personally receiving clinical care. Reported client satisfaction or analysis of complaints made against practices and practitioners is the common focus when defining quality care within organisations (11–13). Although this method does give some insight into the success and any potential

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2

DOI: <u>10.18849/VE.V6I2.358</u>

problems with care being delivered, it will not provide a truly representative description on the quality of care delivered by a particular practice or practitioner. A much broader approach to quality monitoring and effective utilisation of a variety of quality improvement (QI) methods is required (13).

WHAT IS QUALITY IMPROVEMENT AND HOW HAS IT BEEN USED?

Quality improvement methods comprise a series of generally iterative tests that are used to measure the quality of a current practice and to provide focus on any issues arising, as well as highlighting excellent practice to benchmark for others. These methods are successfully utilised in many different industries including aviation, education, manufacturing and healthcare (14–17). Quality improvement in its most basic form hypothesises that the quality of goods and services is ultimately determined by the processes of design and delivery. Due to this ethos, the key focus of any QI method is understanding, managing and improving work processes rather than correcting individual's mistakes after the event (18,19). When the description of quality care is constructed in this manner the balance and association held between providing the best possible care for the individual and the five factors named by the RCP, namely the health and wellbeing of the population, sustainable finance, environment and resources can be identified. These can then be measured serially using a variety of methods in an approach collectively termed QI.

There are multiple definitions of QI, and like quality care, it is not a static concept (20). Within the manufacturing industry where the QI methodology was originally developed, there exists many terms used to describe the process of improving the quality of a product or service, for example, Continuous Quality Improvement (CQI), Quality Management (QM) and Total Quality Control (TQC) (21). Despite the different names used, all of these methods follow the same basic principles: using a scientific, methodical and regulated series of actions to continually improve a work process, the end goal being to offer an improved standard of goods or services for the customer (22,23).

The introduction of QI methods into the healthcare setting can be linked to a need to gather data and measure the quality of care being delivered to patients. Within the medical healthcare sector, it was hoped that comparing performance amongst care providers and organisations would consequently encourage better performance and result in higher quality care for all patients (10).

The Healthcare Quality Improvement Partnership (HQIP) is an independent organisation led by the Academy of Medical Royal Colleges, The Royal College of Nursing, and National Voices, an organisation which represents doctors, nurses and patients within the NHS. Established in April 2008, its goal is to promote quality in the medical profession and increase the impact that QI has on healthcare (24). The HQIP QI handbook identifies twelve key QI methods (Table 1) best suited to utilisation within the healthcare setting.

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2 DOI: 10.18849/VE.V6I2.358

page | 3 of 14

Table 1. List of the different QI methods recommended by the HQIP in human healthcare (25).

QI Method	Used To
Clinical Audit	Check that clinical care delivered meets quality standards
Plan Do Study Act cycle (PDSA)	Introduce and test potential QI on a small scale and assess its
	impact, building upon the learning from previous cycles in a
	structured way before wholesale implementation
Model for Improvement	Decide upon, test and re-define the QI method best suited to the
	system being improved
Lean / Six Sigma	Eliminate waste and redirect resources for QI ensuring upmost
	efficiency
Performance Benchmarking	Drive QI though setting and achieving performance targets
Healthcare Failure Models and Effect	Systematically evaluate the entire healthcare process to identify
Analysis	areas that could benefit from QI
Process Mapping	Map the patient journey to identify opportunities for
	improvement along the patients journey of care
Statistical Percentage Control	Measure and control process of care qualities against
	predetermined parameters
Root Cause Analysis	Systematically uncover the cause of events effecting quality to
	then be improved upon / eliminated
Communication Tools	Improve quality of care through structured information exchange
	between practitioners / team members
Technological Innovations	Automate processes and systems to ensure continuity of care to
	patients
Decision Trees	Improve the quality and consistency of processes in healthcare
	through a systematic information organisation system

The HQIP has produced clear guidance, information and training for QI which is evidence-based and utilises the findings of an international review of literature on the use of QI in healthcare to inform their recommendations. The list of methods is not exhaustive or prescriptive, however, it is one of the most comprehensive summaries of QI methods currently applicable to the medical field. The HQIP has produced 20 publications dedicated to QI methods' utilisation, however the rigid categorisation and definition could be detrimental to increasing uptake from staff. Using technical and complex terms could potentially be viewed as jargon, leaving people unwilling to implement methodologies that seem intricate and lengthy (26). Conversely, the rigid definition creates a solid base of training and information available to all. Multiple investigations into what constitutes an effective QI intervention in the healthcare setting have found that success is often determined by the amount of 'buy in' and investment you can garner from the team carrying out the method (27–29). The reality of any QI method applied to healthcare is that by nature it needs to be flexible, adaptive and easy to carry out. Additionally, attention needs to be paid to the particular features of the process or system being evaluated, whilst also considering the practitioner who will be using the QI methods (30). Skill sets of the staff, work-load and data analysis requirements are all key aspects that affect the success of a method (4).

The veterinary industry is complex and diverse, comprised of many sectors which in turn are organised into micro and meso systems of management with their own protocols and guidelines (31). The veterinary industry is behind the human healthcare sector as far as defining and adopting QI methods into everyday practice. Examples of many, although not all, can also be found in published veterinary research literature and conference proceedings and include clinical audit (32), checklists (33), morbidity and mortality rounds (34), benchmarking (35), communication tools (36), six sigma (37) and significant event audit (38). Interestingly, some of these QI methods evidenced in veterinary literature do not feature specifically in the HQIP literature,

for example checklists which are not clearly and singularly identified but instead their use is encouraged to ensure staff are correctly following each step of other QI methods identified.

Most QI methods are not an alien concept to the veterinary sector and its practitioners; however, more work needs to be done to improve uptake of terminology to ensure a unified approach like the NHS has achieved. These activities were not routinely recognised as QI but recently the charitable entity of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons (RCVS), RCVS Knowledge, has encouraged awareness and uptake of some aspects of the QI methods through practice guidelines and their information hub (39). In 2019 RCVS Knowledge commissioned RAND Europe to investigate current use of QI methods within UK veterinary practice (39,40). The report published in January 2020 comprised of data gathered from a national survey, focus groups, interviews with animal caregivers and an in-depth literature review. A summarisation of the report stated that, 'Though the veterinary professions have made progress in establishing some form of clinical governance, fullcycle quality improvement (QI) is not yet embedded in day-to-day work across the sector' (40). RAND also made recommendations on how to firmly cement QI ideology within veterinary practice including the need for better definitions of QI terms that specifically relate to veterinary practice which would reduce the current confusion within the profession surrounding terminology. Detailed interviews and/or focus groups with key workers within the veterinary industry was also suggested as these could help determine exactly how QI could be effectively utilised in practice and what allowances would need to be made to give professionals time to carry out QI activities.

With time and support from relevant governing bodies the veterinary sector could look to achieve similar widespread adoption of QI as in the NHS.

QI WITHIN UK HEALTHCARE

Ever increasing demands on both funds and staff along with greater standards of care expected from patients and management have pushed forward the adaptation of several QI methods to meet the specific needs and challenges of healthcare work (41). These methods are both formally and informally being executed in multiple hospital trusts across the health service, and have frequently been used as a key component of healthcare legislation set forward by various governments over the past two decades (42,43).

The rationale for measuring quality and the improvement of quality in healthcare is simple: good practice and in turn, good performance when measured and reported, encourages similar behaviours within the industry (26). By directly comparing the care provided to established guidelines and benchmarks, NHS Trusts are provided with a baseline measure of performance and the ability to track progress in quality of care delivered forwards and backwards over time, through cycles of QI analysis.

QI methods have now been recognised and utilised within the NHS for over two decades. They have been instigated to address a wide variety of issues, from resource management of facilities and equipment, financial management through to adaptations to the delivery of care and clinical innovations (43). The motivation behind the compulsory implementation of these methods was to establish a culture of self-reflective adjustment and continual improvement ultimately leading to improvements in the quality of care delivered to patients (44,45). Overall, this end-goal of changing the culture of healthcare seems to have been achieved, and the Care Quality Commission (CQC) has noted a gradual increase in the uptake of true QI programmes across the UK NHS Trusts over the last decade (46–48). Moreover, in a 2017 report from the CQC, the value of established programmes of QI methods was recognised, stating 'it feels confident about the 'long-term sustainability of the quality of care' at those NHS Trusts where it finds 'an established QI culture' across the organisation' (48).

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2 DOI: <u>10.18849/VE.V6I2.358</u>

nce page | 5 of 14

Reflective practice has become embedded within education and training programmes for both doctors and nurses who are training in the UK. This method is designed to aid practitioners to solve their daily problematic situations. Participants are encouraged to use a continuous cycle of conscious thought processes to examine actions and experiences. Through this they can develop their decision-making in practice and enhance clinical knowledge which can then be shared amongst colleagues (49,50). This reflective practice is essential when looking to improve the quality of care as it is a key aspect of proactive change to prevent errors and gives a better understanding of personal actions, which in return develops professional skills (51).

BARRIERS TO QI IMPLEMENTATION

Despite a sustained commitment to continual improvement of quality of care delivered within the NHS over the past 25 years (52-54), reviews examining the use of QI in the healthcare sector as a whole often report mixed levels of success. Ultimately the success or failure of QI models in published healthcare literature seems to be primarily based on a trial and error system to find the best improvement methods for the specific context of the problems identified (27). Despite the recommended infrastructure needed for success laid out by numerous reviews and published papers, the level of organisation regarding implementation and subsequent accomplishment of QI has varied across Trusts within the NHS (4). This in part could be due to the historically chaotic nature of the ever-changing structure of the governing bodies and organisations involved. In many ways the veterinary sector has an advantage over the NHS here; although the 'supervisory structures' and governing bodies are much more numerous within the veterinary sector, their powers are far more limited, which allows the scope for a much more individualised approach to QI implementation and widespread adoption. This is contrary and potentially more successful than the one size fits all approach taken by the NHS.

Two early reviews of QI in the NHS both raised concerns over the apparent deficiency in the sustainability of changes introduced through QI analysis to upper-level management practices (55,56). At the time the reviews took place however, there was a lack of published large-scale projects that may have contributed to this assertion. Young and McClean (57) conducted a wide-ranging review of the use of the 'Lean process' in healthcare. Their study identified, 'the strong evidence of the activity of champions', acknowledging the individuals within a department that consistently made the concerted effort to measure and improve the quality of service delivered. Similar to findings in the two preceding reviews, significantly lower success rates were seen in larger scale, organisational level changes that were attempted (55,56). Subsequent reviews across the last decade have suggested that lower-level changes made by an individual or a small group are sustainable and often successful (29,58-60). In contrast, bigger projects have less than a 30% success rate in either initial implementation or achieving sustained improvements across different services or NHS Trusts (29,58-60).

This deficiency in uptake and sustained change is often put down to one or more of the following factors: structural issues, human issues and environmental context. The NHS is a combination of several complex organisations all with different goals, ethea, occupational groups, patients and technological utilisation (57,61,62). The Department of Health's report 'The NHS Plan' delivered in 2000, aimed to improve quality of care through two strands of change:

- 1. Emphasising the use of a centralised command and control approach whereby the Department of Health will have the ultimate say over approach to reform through national standards, league tables, inspection and regulation;
- 2. Empowerment of frontline staff and organisations to give them ownership of their work and make them the driving force behind reform.

This slightly confused and contradictory approach is retrospectively viewed as largely counterproductive in the development of QI methods within the NHS (63,64). By putting emphasis on accountability to a higher power

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2 DOI: 10.18849/VE.V6I2.358

whilst simultaneously trying to give the freedom to staff to direct and lead change resulted in policy taking precedence over innovation and left staff disempowered.

The setting of national standards, targets and benchmarking as performance indicators has become a dominant paradigm applied to the NHS to address QI (65). The efficacy of implementing such measures is debated amongst academics and healthcare professionals alike. It is possible to find articles to both support and discourage the use of benchmarking and target achievement exercises from a higher governing power within the healthcare sector. One study went so far as to suggest that the regimented implementation and enforcement of rigorous national standards, targets and benchmarking was encouraging 'systemic psychopathy' at the highest levels of management within the NHS (66). The paper suggests the climate of fear, bullying and target-orientated management style was directly correlated to declining standards of patient care (66). Undoubtably this is an extreme point of view on this subject; however, Boddy et al. (66) is not alone in their concerns over the effect such measures have on patient care and employee wellbeing within healthcare (67,68). The specific challenges of benchmarking strategies utilised in healthcare systems include case-mix fallacy¹, under-reporting of figures, comparison of noncomparable hospitals, selection bias, and possible implementation of inappropriate strategies for the development of quality care from incorrect benchmarking analyses (67,69). An example of the large-scale benchmarking strategies utilised in human healthcare is the Performance Assessment Framework (PAF) in the NHS. The PAF is a custom designed measuring and monitoring system employed by the Department of Health. It is designed to assist local NHS organisations keep track and maintain accountability for the service delivered by their trust whilst still meeting central government's long-term objectives and targets (70). This resulted in a paradigm being created where-by managers were attempting to conform to the social norms and expectations of the patients treated by their service, whilst simultaneously attempting to meet the imposed performance indicators, which were at times incompatible with each other (71). This provides another example where a one-size fits all approach was attempted and found to be insufficient to meet the variable nature of healthcare services. The Performance Assessment Framework was however successfully used as a communication tool between central government and local trusts, as well as providing a strategic management mechanism to generate performance information and highlight areas for change or those examples of excellent practice.

Benchmarking within veterinary medicine is certainly not as established as in human medicine, and the same level of information about the pitfalls and successes is not available. The lack of overarching government policy that collects and collates the benchmarking data and produces league tables in the NHS could be a reason for this. Many audit projects will occur internally within individual veterinary practices and corporate groups with the information not shared beyond those organisations. Larger scale projects do exist within the industry, however nowhere near the scale that exists within the NHS. The Royal Veterinary College (RVC) operates a central database called 'the VetCompass programme' collecting anonymised clinical records from practices across the country for epidemiological research purposes (72). The University of Liverpool runs a similar scheme called the Small Animal Veterinary Surveillance Network (SAVSNET). Originally this was run in partnership with the British Small Animal Veterinary Association (BSAVA), however now it is managed totally by the University. The aim of the project is to produce a system that could be utilised to improve companion animal disease surveillance at local, regional and national levels (73). This is achieved through using electronic health records (EHR) from veterinary practices and diagnostic laboratories across the UK that volunteer to submit their data. RCVS Knowledge also run 'vetAUDIT', another anonymised central database, collecting data on small animal neutering, canine cruciate procedures and antimicrobial resistance, the latter in collaboration with SAVSNET, which allows practices to assess their current standards with those reported by others (74). There is evidence in veterinary practice that there is good engagement in these projects when data are intended to be used for overall surveillance such as the 4 SAVSNET database. When the data could potentially

⁻

¹ Observational studies evaluating healthcare services or interventions that compare groups or populations within a healthcare system often undergo a 'case-mix adjustment' which accounts for any imbalances between the groups being compared. Studies examining this adjustment have, however, shown that case-mix adjustment can make any present bias worse. The belief that this case-mix adjustment has to be made is referred to as a case-mix fallacy (26,69,80).

be used, to influence client decisions about where to have their pet treated, however, the desire to share data may be reduced as competition for clients is likely to be high between practices and corporations. Ultimately the decision on whether to share data, particularly regarding clinical outcomes, is based on the final intended use of that data. It can be very easy to draw incorrect conclusions from a set of benchmarks without context, and for this reason benchmarking needs to be used carefully. That is not to assume that benchmarking cannot be successfully utilised in veterinary systems; benchmarking has been used successfully to encourage better performance within teams, and subsequently a higher quality of care or product delivered to patients (75).

WHICH WAY FORWARDS FOR QI IN VETERINARY PRACTICE?

As described for human healthcare, QI in veterinary care with its multifaceted work systems incorporating multiple actors such as: veterinary staff, veterinary paraprofessionals including physios', dentists, hydrotherapist's, owners and trainers, requires the systematic application of scientific evidence and knowledge, and a wide variety of tools and methods applied in a personalised approach to each task (76). There are undoubtably lessons to be learned and tools to be utilised from the experiences of implementing QI into the NHS. Parallels can be drawn from the human healthcare literature, however there are notable differences identified between the two sectors. For this reason, it would undoubtably benefit the veterinary industry to have all available research collated into one place as the HQIP and other organisations have done for the NHS. RCVS Knowledge has taken steps to produce this central database of information regarding QI methods (39); however, more QI specific research needs to be conducted. This gap in research has perhaps slowed the uptake of QI within the veterinary sector, for example confusion around the terminology used (77) and not recognising aspects of their current practices as fitting within the definition of QI (78,79).

Conducting more research studies would provide comparable evidence of implementation and execution of a variety of QI methods in veterinary practice which would help to identify methods that will be the most beneficial. When utilised correctly, QI methods can assist to bridge the gap between practice and research by providing the implementation of evidence-based medicine into clinical practice. This assists veterinary practices to maintain and improve the standards of care delivered to their patients. Empowerment of frontline staff in the NHS has been suggested to be a key aspect regarding the success or failure of a QI intervention. For this to happen, staff need to have received training and be given time to undertake these activities. Furthermore, there needs to be acceptance that QI processes may be best implemented by veterinary nurses or the client care team rather than solely by veterinary surgeons. Encouragement should be given for individuals to utilise these methods within all job roles across the practice to be able to generate benefits for patients and clients.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

Freya Rooke's PhD is funded by the University of Nottingham's School of Veterinary Medicine and Science and CVS Equine

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2

DOI: <u>10.18849/VE.V6I2.358</u>

- 1. Ruskin, J. & Rosenberg, J.D. (1997). The Genius of John Ruskin: Selections from His Writings. Eds. Rosenberg, J.D. University Press of Virginia. 566.
- 2. Bennett, S.T. (2016). Continuous Improvement in Continuous Quality Control. *Clinical Chemistry*. 62(10), 1299–301. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1373/clinchem.2016.263244
- IOM. (2018). Crossing the Quality Chasm: The IOM Health Care Quality Initiative: Health and Medicine Division. The National Academies of Sciences and Engineering Medicine.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.17226/10027
- Dean, J. (2018). Update from RCP Quality Improvement: making quality improvement mainstream for physicians and teams. *Future Healthcare Journal*. 5(2), 86–7.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.7861/futurehosp.5-2-86
- The Royal College of Physicians. (2018). Defining the RCP's approach to quality. Available from: https://www.rcplondon.ac.uk/defining-rcp-s-approach-quality#:~:text=The%20RCP%20outlines%20and%20defines,%2C%20individual%20care%2C%20and%20defines,matching.
 Osustainability. [Accessed April 2021]
- Bowers, M.R. & Kiefe, C.I. (2002). Measuring Health Care Quality: Comparring and Contrasting the medical and Marketing approaches. *American Journal of Medical Quality*. 17(4), 136–44.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.1177/106286060201700403
- 7. Singh, A. & Prasher, A. (2017). Measuring healthcare service quality from patients' perspective: using Fuzzy AHP application *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*. 30(3–4), 283–300.DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/14783363.2017.1302794
- 8. Bendall-Lyon, D. & Powers, T.L. (2004). The impact of structure and process attributes on satisfaction and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Services Marketing*. 18(2), 114–21. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1108/08876040410528719
- Campbell, S.M., Hann, M., Hacker, J., Burns, C., Oliver, D., Thapar, A., Mead, N. Gelb Safran, D. & Roland, M.O. (2001). Identifying predictors of high quality care in English general practice: Observational study. *The British Medical Journal*. 323(7316), 784–7.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.323.7316.784
- 10. Campbell, S., Roland, M. & Buetow, S. (2000). Defining quality of care. *Society Science & Medicine*. 51(11), 1611–25. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0277-9536(00)00057-5
- 11. Loomans, J.B.A., Van Weeren, P.R., Vaarkamp, H., Stolk, P.W.T. & Barneveld, A. (2010). Quality of equine veterinary care: Where can it go wrong? A conceptual framework for the quality of equine healthcare, based on court cases against equine practitioners in The Netherlands. *Equine Veterinary Education*. 20(3), 159–65. DOI: https://doi.org/10.2746/095777308X283740
- 12. Kinnison, T., May, S.A. & Guile, D. (2014). Inter-Professional Practice: From Veterinarian to the Veterinary Team. *Journal of Veterinary Medical Education*. 41(2), 172–8. DOI: https://doi.org/10.3138/jvme.0713-095R2
- Oxtoby, C., Ferguson, E., White, K. & Mossop, L. (2015). We need to talk about error: causes and types of error in veterinary practice. *Veterinary Record*. 177(17), 438.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.1136/vr.103331
- 14. Reed, J.E. & Card, A.J. (2016). The problem with Plan-Do-Study-Act cycles. *BMJ Quality & Safety*. 25(3), 147–52. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2015-005076
- 15. Lozier, G.G. & Teeter, D.J. (1996). Quality improvement pursuits in American higher education. *Total Quality Management*. 7(2), 189–202. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1080/09544129650034945
- 16. Kim, C.S., Spahlinger, D.A., Kin, J.M. & Billi, J.E. (2006). Lean health care: what can hospitals learn from a world-class automaker? *Journal of Hospital Medicine*. 1(3), 191–9. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/jhm.68
- 17. Chassin, M.R. & Loeb, J.M. (2011). The Ongoing Quality Improvement Journey: Next Stop, High Reliability. *Health Affairs*. 30(4), 559–68. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.2011.0076

- 18. Deming, W.E. (1986). Out of the Crisis. Cambridge.
- 19. Ishikawa, K. (1985). What is Total Quality Control? The Japanese Way. Michigan: Prentice Hall. 215.
- 20. Riley, W.J., Moran, J.W., Corso, L.C., Beitsch, L.M, Bialek, R. & Cofsky, A. (2010). Commentary: Defining Quality Improvement in Public Health. *Journal of Public Health Management Practice*. 16(1), 5–7. Available from:
 - https://www.nursingcenter.com/journalarticle?Article_ID=945840&Journal_ID=420959&Issue_ID=945800 [Accessed April 2021]
- 21. Al-Shdaifat, E.A. (2015). Implementation of total quality management in hospitals. *Journal of Taibah University Medical Sciences*. 10(4), 461–6. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jtumed.2015.05.004
- 22. Weiner, B.J., Alexander, J.A., Shortell, S.M., Baker, L.C., Becker, M. & Geppert, J.J. Quality Improvement Implementation and Hospital Performance on Quality Indicators. *Health Services Research*. 41(2):307–34. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-6773.2005.00483
- 23. Hearld, L.R., Alexander, J.A., Fraser, I., Jiang, H.J. (). How Do Hospital Organizational Structure and Processes Affect Quality of Care?: A Critical Review of Research Methods.. *Medical Care Review of Research*. 65(3), 259–99. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1077558707309613
- 24. HQIP. (2020). About HQIP Measuring and improving our healthcare services. Available from: https://www.hqip.org.uk/about-us/#.XosTm5NKiRs [Accessed April 2020]
- 25. HQIP. (2015). A guide to quality improvement methods. Ed. Fereday, S. 3–32. Available from: https://nhfd.co.uk/20/hipfracturer.nsf/b83841ab51769e1d802581a4005978ed/205c2976b502ffc2802581ee0053a23f/\$FILE/HQIP%20guide%20to%20Ql%202017.pdf [Accessed April 2020]
- 26. Hughes, R. (2008). Tools and Strategies for Quality Improvement and Patient Safety. Patient Safety and Quality: An Evidence-Based Handbook for Nurses.
- 27. Shojania, K.G. & Grimshaw, J.M. (2005). Evidence-Based Quality Improvement: The State Of The Science. *Health Affairs*. 24(1), 138–50. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1377/hlthaff.24.1.138
- 28. Hulscher, E.J.L, Laurant, M.G.H. & Grol, R.P.T.M. (2003). Process evaluation on quality improvement interventions. *BMJ Quality & Safety*.12(1), 40–6. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/qhc.12.1.40
- 29. Taylor, M.J., Mcnicholas, C., Nicolay, C., Darzi, A., Bell, D. & Reed, J.E. (2014). Systematic review of the application of the plan-do-study-act method to improve quality in healthcare. *The British Medical Journal*. 23(4),290–8. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2013-001862
- 30. Mortimer, F., Isherwood, J., Pearce, M., Kenward, C. & Vaux, E. (2018). Sustainability in quality improvement: measuring impact. *Future Healthcare Journal*. 5(2), 94–7. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.7861/futurehosp.5-2-94
- 31. Petitclerc, M. (2012). Governance, veterinary legislation and quality. *Revue Scientifique et Technique*. 31(2), 465–77. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.20506/rst.31.2.2126
- 32. Waine, K., Dean, R.S., Hudson, C., Huxley, J. & Brennan, M.L. 2018). A cross-sectional study of experiences and attitudes towards clinical audit of farm animal veterinary surgeons in the United Kingdom. *Veterinary Science*. 5(4), 84. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.3390/vetsci5040084
- 33. Mcmillan, M. (2014). Checklists in veterinary anaesthesia: why bother? *Veterinary Record*. 175(22), 556–9. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/vr.g7515
- 34. Pang, D.S.J., Rousseau-Blass, F. & Pang, J.M. (2018). Morbidity and Mortality Conferences: A Mini Review and Illustrated Application in Veterinary Medicine. *Frontiers in Veterinary Science*. 5(43). DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2018.00043
- 35. Frandsen, J. (2015). Benchmarking in dairy production: "how to transform data to valuable decision support". Eds. Kowalski, Z., Petreny, N., Burke, M., Bucek, P., Journaux, L., Coffey, M., Hunlun, C. & Radzio, D. *ICAR Technical Series*. 19,63–7. Available from: http://www.icar.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/11/ICAR-Technical-Series-19-Krakow-2015-Proceedings.pdf [Accessed April 2021]
- 36. Ward Jr., E.E. (2004). Navigating to success: communication tools for professional success. Small Animal Exot B two Pain Management zoonosis Proc North Am Vet Conf. 18, 17–21.
- 37. Okpe, O., Kovach, J.V. (2017). A Redesign Approach for Improving Animal Care Services for Researchers. *Journal of the American Association for Laboratory Animal Science*. 56(4),462–71.

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2

- Available from:
- http://www.ingentaconnect.com/contentone/aalas/jaalas/2017/00000056/00000004/art00015 [Acce ssed April 2021]
- 38. Mosedale, P. (2017). Learning from mistakes: the use of significant event audit in veterinary practice. *Companion Animal*. 22(3),140–3. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.12968/coan.2017.22.3.140
- 39. RCVS Knowledge. (2017). Quality Improvement. RCVS Knowledge. Available from: https://knowledge.rcvs.org.uk/quality-improvement/ [Accessed April 2021]
- 40. Hocking, L., Picken, N. & Ling, T. (2020). Assessing the Landscape and Future Actions for Quality Improvement in the Veterinary Sector: The Insights, Expectations and Aspirations of the Profession. RCVS Knowledge. Available from: https://knowledge.rcvs.org.uk/document-library/assessing-the-landscape-and-future-actions-for-quality/ [Accessed April 2021]
- 41. Leatherman, S., Gardner, T., Molloy, A., Martin, S. & Dixon, J. (2016). Strategy to improve the quality of care in England. *Future Hospital Journal*. 3(3), 182–7.
- 42. Kaplan, H.C., Brady, P.W., Dritz, M.C., Hooper, D.K., Linam, M.W., Froehle, C.M. & Margolis, P. (2010). The Influence of Context on Quality Improvement Success in Health Care: A Systematic Review of the Literature. *The Milbank Quarterly*. 88(4), 500–59. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-0009.2010.00611.x
- 43. Baily, M.A., Bottrell, M.M., Lynn, J., Jennings, B. (2006). Special Report: The Ethics of Using QI Methods to Improve Health Care Quality and Safety. *Hastings Center Report*. 36(4), S1–S40. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1353/hcr.2006.0054
- 44. Plsek, P.E. (1999). Quality Improvement Methods in Clinical Medicine. *Pediatrics*. 103, 203–14.
- 45. Nadeem, E., Olin, S.S., Hill, L.C., Hoagwood, K.E. & Horwitz, S.M. (2013). Understanding the Components of Quality Improvement Collaboratives: A Systematic Literature Review. *The Milbank Quarterly*. 91(2),54–94. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/milq.12016
- 46. Khodyakov, D., Ridgely, M.S., Huang, C., DeBartolo, K.O., Sorbero, M.E. & Schneider, E.C. (2015). Project JOINTS: What factors affect bundle adoption in a voluntary quality improvement campaign? *BMJ Quality & Safety*. 24(1), 38–47. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/bmjqs-2014-003169
- 47. Cooper, A., Gray, J., Willson, A., Lines, C., McCannon, J. & McHardy, K. (2015). Exploring the role of communications in quality improvement: A case study of the 1000 Lives Campaign in NHS Wales. *Journal of Communication in Healthcare*. 8(1), 76–84.
 DOI: https://doi.org/10.1179/1753807615Y.0000000006
- 48. Care Quality Commisson. (2018). Quality improvement in hospital trusts: Sharing learning from trusts on a journey of QI in hospital trusts.
- 49. Mantzoukas, S.& Jasper, M.A. (2004). Reflective practice and daily ward reality: a covert power game. *Journal of Clinical Nursing*. 13(8), 925–33. DOI: http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/j.1365-2702.2004.01008.x
- 50. Ross, A., King, N. & Firth, J. (2005). Interprofessional Relationships and Collaborative Working: Encouraging Reflective Practice. *Online Journal of Issues Nursing*. 10(1),3.
- 51. Caldwell, L.C. & Grobbel, C.C. (2013). The Importance of Reflective Practice in Nursing. International Journal of Caring Sciences. 6(3), 319–26. Available from: http://www.internationaljournalofcaringsciences.org [Accessed April 2021]
- 52. Scally, G. & Donaldson, L.J. (1998). The NHS's 50 anniversary. Clinical governance and the drive for quality improvement in the new NHS in England. *The British Medical Journal*. 317(7150), 61–5. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.317.7150.61
- 53. Walshe, K. & Offen, N. (2001). A very public failure: lessons for quality improvement in healthcare organisations from the Bristol Royal Infirmary. *BMJ Quality & Safety*. 10(4), 250–6. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/qhc.0100250
- 54. Walshe, K. (2009). Pseudoinnovation: the development and spread of healthcare quality improvement methodologies. *International Journal for Quality in Health Care*. 21(3), 153–9. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/intqhc/mzp012

- 55. Blumenthal, D. & Kilo, C.M. (2001). A Report Card on Continuous Quality Improvement. *The Milbank Quarterly*. 76(4), 625–48. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1468-0009.00108
- 56. Shortell, S.M., Bennett, C.L. & Byck, G.R. (2001). Assessing the Impact of Continuous Quality Improvement on Clinical Practice: What It Will Take to Accelerate Progress. *The Milbank Quarterly*. 76(4), 593–624. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1468-0009.00107
- 57. Young, T.P. & Mcclean, S.I. (2008). A critical look at Lean Thinking in healthcare. *BMJ Quality &Safety*. 17(5), 382–6. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/qshc.2006.020131
- 58. Majeed, A., Allwood, D., Foley, K. & Bindman, A. (2018). Healthcare outcomes and quality in the NHS: how do we compare and how might the NHS improve? *The British Medical Journal*. 362. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.k3036
- 59. Bastemeijer, C.M., Boosman, H., van Ewijk, H., Verweij, L.M., Voogt, L. & Hazelzet, J.A. (2019). Patient experiences: a systematic review of quality improvement interventions in a hospital setting. *Patient Relatated Outcome Measures*. 10, 157–69. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.2147/PROM.S201737
- 60. Irwin, R., Stokes, T. & Marshall, T. (2015). Practice-level quality improvement interventions in primary care: a review of systematic reviews*. *Primary Health Care Research & Development*. 16(6), 556–77. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S1463423615000274
- 61. Pollitt, C. (2018). Business approaches to quality improvement and why they hard for the NHS to swallow. *BMJ Quality & Safety*. 5(2), 104–10. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/qshc.5.2.104
- 62. Portillo, M. (1998). The NHS's 50th Anniversary Something to celebrate The Bevan legacy. *The British Medical Journal*. 317, 37. DOI: https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.317.7150.37
- 63. Eyres, J. 7 Dewar, S. 'Constrained innovation' and The NHS Plan. *British Journal of Healthcare Management*. 8(3):101–3. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.12968/bjhc.2002.8.3.18924
- 64. Greener, I. & Powell, M. (2008). The changing governance of the NHS: Reform in a post-Keynesian health service. *Human Relations*. 61(5), 617–36. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0018726708091764
- 65. Klein, R. (2010). The new politics of the NHS: from creation to reinvention. 6th ed. Abingdon: Radcliffe publishing.
- 66. Boddy, C.R. (2017). Psychopathic Leadership A Case Study of a Corporate Psychopath CEO. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 145(1), 141–56. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10551-015-2908-6
- 67. Lovaglio, P.G. Ed. Evans, W.D.(2012). Benchmarking Strategies for Measuring the Quality of Healthcare: Problems and Prospects. *The Scientific World Journal*. 2012, 13. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1100/2012/606154
- 68. Northcott, D. & Llewellyn, S. (2003). The 'ladder of success' in healthcare: The UK national reference costing index. *Management Accounting Research*. 14(1), 51–66. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1044-5005(02)00032-X
- 69. Pettengill, J. & Vertrees, J. (1982). Reliability and validity in hospital case-mix measurement. *Health Care Finance Review*. 19824(2), 101–28.
- 70. Department of Health. (2014). Department of Health Improvement Plan. London.
- 71. Chang, L.C. (2007). The NHS performance assessment framework as a balanced scorecard approach: Limitations and implications. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*. 20(2), 101–17. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/09513550710731472
- 72. Royal Veterinary College. (2019). VetCompass. Available from: https://www.rvc.ac.uk/vetcompass [Accessed March 2020]
- 73. SAVSNET. (2020). Small Animal Veterinary Surveillance Network (SAVSNET) University of Liverpool. Available from: https://www.liverpool.ac.uk/savsnet/ [Accessed May 2020]
- 74. RCVS Knowledge. (2020). Home | vetAUDIT. Available from: https://vetaudit.rcvsk.org/ [Accessed May 2020]
- 75. Rose, N., Toews, L. & Pang, D.S.J. (2016). A systematic review of clinical audit in companion animal veterinary medicine. *BMC Veterinary Research*. 12(40), 40. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12917-016-0661-4
- 76. Batalden, P.B. & Davidoff, F. (2007). What is "quality improvement" and how can it transform healthcare? BMJ Quality & Safety. 16(1), 2–3. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/qshc.2006.022046

- 77. RCVS Knowledge. (2020). QI in the veterinary professions. Available from: https://knowledge.rcvs.org.uk/quality-improvement/qi-in-the-veterinary-professions/ [Accessed August 2020]
- 78. Waine, K. & Brennan, M. (2015). Clinical audit in veterinary practice: theory v reality. *In Practice*. 37(10):545–9. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/inp.h5457
- 79. Rooke, F.K.M., Suthers, J.M., Freeman, S.L., Brennan, M.L., Mair, T.S. & Burford, J.H. (2019). Knowledge and understanding of Quality Improvement methods within UK veterinary practice. *Equine Veterinary Journal*. 51(53), 5–31.
- 80. Nicholl, J. (2007). Case-mix adjustment in non-randomised observational evaluations: the constant risk fallacy. *Journal of Epidemiology Community Health*. 61(11):1010–3. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.1136/jech.2007.061747

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2 DOI: 10.18849/VE.V6I2.358



Intellectual Property Rights

Authors of Knowledge Summaries submitted to RCVS Knowledge for publication will retain copyright in their work, and will be required to grant RCVS Knowledge a non-exclusive license of the rights of copyright in the materials including but not limited to the right to publish, republish, transmit, sell, distribute and otherwise use the materials in all languages and all media throughout the world, and to license or permit others to do so.

Disclaimer

Any opinions expressed in articles and other publication types published in Veterinary Evidence are the author's own and do not necessarily reflect the view of the RCVS Knowledge. Veterinary Evidence is a resource to help inform, and the content herein should not override the responsibility of the practitioner. Practitioners should also consider factors such as individual clinical expertise and judgement along with patient's circumstances and owners' values. Authors are responsible for the accuracy of the content. While the Editor and Publisher believe that all content herein are in accord with current recommendations and practice at the time of publication, they accept no legal responsibility for any errors or omissions, and make no warranty, express or implied, with respect to material contained within.

For further information please refer to our **Terms of Use**.

RCVS Knowledge is the independent charity associated with the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons (RCVS). Our ambition is to become a global intermediary for evidence based veterinary knowledge by providing access to information that is of immediate value to practicing veterinary professionals and directly contributes to evidence based clinical decision-making.

https://www.veterinaryevidence.org/

RCVS Knowledge is a registered Charity No. 230886. Registered as a Company limited by guarantee in England and Wales No. 598443.

Registered Office: Belgravia House, 62-64 Horseferry Road, London SW1P 2AF



This work is licensed under a **Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License**.

Veterinary Evidence ISSN: 2396-9776 Vol 6, Issue 2 DOI: 10.18849/VE.V6I2.358

page | 14 of 14