

## Interlibrary Loans and Journal Article Requests

### **Notice Warning Concerning Copyright Restrictions:**

The copyright law of the United States (Title 17, United States Code) governs the making of photocopies or other reproductions of copyrighted materials.

Under certain conditions specified in the law, libraries and archives are authorized to furnish a photocopy or other reproduction. One specified condition is that the photocopy or reproduction is not to be *“used for any purpose other than private study, scholarship, or research.”* If a user makes a request for, or later uses, a photocopy or reproduction for purposes in excess of “fair use,” that user may be liable for copyright infringement.

Upon receipt of this reproduction of the publication you have requested, you understand that the publication may be protected by copyright law. You also understand that you are expected to comply with copyright law and to limit your use to one for private study, scholarship, or research and not to systematically reproduce or in any way make available multiple copies of the publication.

**The Stephen B. Thacker CDC Library reserves the right to refuse to accept a copying order if, in its judgment, fulfillment of the order would involve violation of copyright law.**

### **Terms and Conditions for items sent by e-mail:**

The contents of the attached document may be protected by copyright law. The [CDC copyright policy](#) outlines the responsibilities and guidance related to the reproduction of copyrighted materials at CDC. If the document is protected by copyright law, the following restrictions apply:

- You may print only one paper copy, from which you may not make further copies, except as may be allowed by law.
- You may not make further electronic copies or convert the file into any other format.
- You may not cut and paste or otherwise alter the text.

## Burnout in Critical Care Time for Moving Upstream

Mara Buchbinder<sup>1</sup> and Tania Jenkins<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Social Medicine, Center for Bioethics, and <sup>2</sup>Department of Sociology, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, Chapel Hill, North Carolina

ORCID IDs: 0000-0002-2319-662X (M.B.); 0000-0002-4495-3140 (T.J.).



With COVID-19 intensifying longstanding patterns of stress, overwork, and disillusionment among the healthcare workforce, burnout is at all-time high in medicine. Critical care clinicians have some of the highest rates of burnout of all specialties (1–5)—as high as 70% prevalence among physicians (6) and up to 80% among nurses (7). Burnout is an occupational phenomenon characterized by 1) fatigue or exhaustion, 2) negative feelings toward one's job, and 3) reduced professional efficacy (8). It is associated with higher rates of mental disorders and psychological distress (9, 10) and has potential negative repercussions for patient safety and care (11). Growing media attention and expanding research on burnout have brought increased recognition that burnout is a significant problem facing the healthcare workforce. Yet most studies have focused on individual-level causes and solutions, such as mindfulness training, yoga, and other relaxation-based exercises (12, 13)—interventions that do little to

identify and respond to the broader structural (i.e., extraindividual) forces shaping clinician burnout.

In 1975, the medical sociologist and epidemiologist John McKinlay popularized the metaphor of “upstream” factors contributing to healthcare problems (14). Suppose that you are standing on the banks of a river and hear the cries of someone drowning. You dive in to save them, only to hear another cry for help nearby. Again and again, you dive in to save a drowning person, without stopping to consider the source of the crisis. This metaphor, which has been widely influential in public health and the sociology of medicine (15), highlights the need to move upstream to understand why so many healthcare workers are drowning. It is not that the downstream approaches are wholly ineffective or inadvisable. Rather, it is that on their own, they cannot address the root cause of the problem, which necessarily affects more than individual clinicians. When up to 80% of critical care professionals are drowning, it is worth stopping to ask who or what is pushing them into these dangerous waters.

In 2019, a National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine consensus study proposed a systems model of clinician burnout that specifically called for more attention to structural (i.e., upstream) factors affecting clinician burnout and wellbeing (16). This model has informed our ongoing sociological study, in which we have been interviewing frontline hospital-based

physicians in four U.S. cities about their experiences caring for patients with COVID-19 ([www.stepsmed.com](http://www.stepsmed.com)). Participants have told us repeatedly that downstream approaches miss the mark. As a critical care pulmonologist in New Orleans put it,

*There are a number of ways that you could reduce physician burnout, if you actually asked physicians what parts of their job they hate, [it's] the admin stuff, the extra EMR [electronic medical record] time, all of these very clear things that were different a long time ago. But instead of doing that, they're just gonna make suggestions to add things, “Well, you could all do yoga.”*

For this physician, targeting downstream interventions like yoga to the exclusion of work environment factors such as burdensome electronic health record documentation is insulting because administrators already know that yoga cannot fix the underlying structural causes of healthcare worker burnout. Yet, the implication remains: Clinicians, breathe and stretch your way out of burnout.

So, yoga aside, what can be done? Because burnout is a product of the work environment, upstream interventions aimed at organizational units, institutions, health professions, and health systems will be essential to addressing the epidemic of healthcare worker burnout. Our model for clinician burnout suggests that there are

(Received in original form February 9, 2022; accepted in final form April 28, 2022)

Supported by the Greenwall Foundation and National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (grant 1 R21 OH012175).

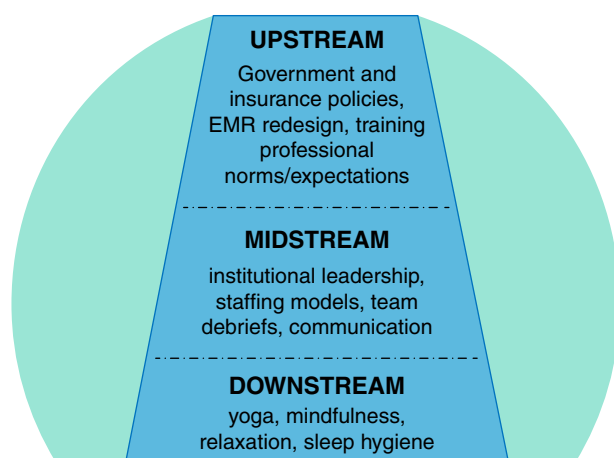
Correspondence and requests for reprints should be addressed to Mara Buchbinder, Ph.D., Department of Social Medicine, Center for Bioethics, University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill, 333 S. Columbia Street, 341A MacNider Hall CB 7240, Chapel Hill, NC 27599. E-mail: [mara\\_buchbinder@med.unc.edu](mailto:mara_buchbinder@med.unc.edu).

Ann Am Thorac Soc Vol 19, No 9, pp 1443–1445, Sep 2022

Copyright © 2022 by the American Thoracic Society

DOI: 10.1513/AnnalsATS.202202-111IP

Internet address: [www.atsjournals.org](http://www.atsjournals.org)



**Figure 1.** Sample targets for reducing clinical burnout. EMR = electronic medical record.

multiple nested layers for intervention as we move progressively upstream (see Figure 1). Above the downstream terrain, where many current intervention strategies focus (e.g., yoga, mindfulness-based meditation, relaxation training webinars, and eating and sleeping habits), lies the midstream of institutional interventions. These approaches include strategies aimed at organizational units and work environments, such as changes to staffing models and team debriefings, and those focused on healthcare institutions, such as leadership training to be more responsive to physicians' concerns and transparent communication of institutional decisions and policies. Finally, upstream targets for intervention include structural targets like reforming government and insurance policies and redesigning EMR infrastructure, as well as targets for cultural change like clinical training practices and professional norms and expectations. Preliminary findings from our ongoing study suggest that for interventions to be effective, they must offer solutions that move progressively upstream, recognizing that different layers of the healthcare environment operate synergistically with one another. This means that interventions should simultaneously target stressors at multiple levels, as upstream factors can often shape midstream and downstream ones.

Expanding the healthcare workforce to reduce overwork among staff is one example of an important target for addressing

healthcare worker burnout in critical care. A multiprong strategy should incorporate both midstream and upstream interventions. At the upstream level, some federal legislation is already beginning to tackle this issue. For example, for the first time since 1997, the U.S. federal government has raised the cap on the number of Medicare-funded residency positions by 1,000, specifically targeting high-needs hospitals (17). Similarly, the Build Back Better Act, which has yet to pass the Senate, proposes to expand funding, education, and grantmaking programs aimed at training and retaining healthcare workers, among others. These efforts represent a good start for increasing the healthcare workforce, but they need to be expanded and supplemented by additional upstream and midstream interventions. These could include reforming the norms and structure of graduate medical education by spreading out the work over more trainees, thereby making it easier for them to take time off when needed. It may also require a reorientation of institutional priorities by making hiring and retaining of staff at all levels a stated priority, even if that cuts into their bottom line.

Combating structural forces that work against clinicians' use of mental health services is another important target for improving clinical burnout. Upstream interventions along these lines might include reform of discriminatory medical malpractice and disability insurance policies

that disincentivize clinicians from seeking mental health treatment, as well as efforts to reduce professional stigma around mental health treatment through culture change and awareness campaigns. Even if this stigma can be reduced, however, it may still be difficult for critical care professionals facing fluctuating schedules to find time for routine therapy sessions. Therefore, complementary midstream interventions such as scheduling accommodations and unit-level leadership changes will be necessary to increase uptake of mental health services.

The time has come to think big about the factors making the health workforce sick, and to consider even those factors that extend beyond one's unit or hospital, to the broader profession and healthcare system. Clinicians are often trained to think downstream, a particularly useful skill when rescuing people who are drowning. Yet to develop and implement the kind of multidimensional interventional strategies that the Critical Care Societies Collaborative has endorsed for improving intensive care unit work environments and individual coping (18, 19), it may be useful for clinicians to work alongside others who are specifically trained to think upstream. Social scientists and policy experts can help conceptualize burnout as an outcome shaped by the social determinants of health.

Neglecting the upstream factors leading to clinician burnout is not simply ineffective. It is also harmful. For one thing, it risks contributing to victim-blaming and stigma: the onus is placed on individuals to "toughen up" and "heal themselves" of an unhealthy work environment (20). Second, the emphasis on self-care strategies, while well-intentioned, may also divert resources and attention away from upstream problems that are contributing to burnout in medicine.

It is time to invest in research and policy change to support novel solutions for dealing with burnout in critical care. Doing so will require a shift in thinking to prioritize efforts further upstream. The lives of drowning clinicians depend on it. ■

**Author disclosures** are available with the text of this article at [www.atsjournals.org](http://www.atsjournals.org).

# References

- 1 Chlan LL. Burnout syndrome among critical care professionals: a cause for alarm. *Crit Care Alert* 2013;21:65–68.
- 2 Embriaco N, Azoulay E, Barrau K, Kentish N, Pochard F, Loundou A, *et al*. High level of burnout in intensivists: prevalence and associated factors. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2007; 175:686–692.
- 3 Mikkelsen ME, Anderson BJ, Bellini L, Schweickert WD, Fuchs BD, Kerlin MP. Burnout, and fulfillment, in the profession of critical care medicine. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2019;200:931–933.
- 4 Sharp M, Burkart KM, Adelman MH, Ashton RW, Biddison LD, Bosslet T, *et al*. A national survey of burnout and depression among fellows training in pulmonary and critical care medicine: a special report by the Association of Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine Program Directors. *Chest* 2021;159:733–742.
- 5 Mehta AB, Lockhart S, Reed K, Griesmer C, Glasgow RE, Moss M, *et al*. Drivers of burnout among critical care providers: a multicenter mixed-methods study. *Chest* 2021;161: 1263–1274.
- 6 van Mol MMC, Kompanje EJO, Benoit DD, Bakker J, Nijkamp MD. The prevalence of compassion fatigue and burnout among healthcare professionals in intensive care units: a systematic review. *PLoS One* 2015;10:e0136955.
- 7 Browning SG. Burnout in critical care nurses. *Crit Care Nurs Clin North Am* 2019;31:527–536.
- 8 World Health Organization. Burn-out an “occupational phenomenon”: International Classification of Diseases. 2019 [accessed 2022 May 19]. Available from: <https://www.who.int/news/item/28-05-2019-burn-out-an-occupational-phenomenon-international-classification-of-diseases>.
- 9 Mealer M. Burnout syndrome in the intensive care unit. Future directions for research. *Ann Am Thorac Soc* 2016;13:997–998.
- 10 Seaman JB, Cohen TR, White DB. Reducing the stress on clinicians working in the ICU. *JAMA* 2018–1982;320:1981–1982.
- 11 Salyers MP, Bonfils KA, Luther L, Firmin RL, White DA, Adams EL, *et al*. The relationship between professional burnout and quality and safety in healthcare: a meta-analysis. *J Gen Intern Med* 2017;32: 475–482.
- 12 West CP, Dyrbye LN, Erwin PJ, Shanafelt TD. Interventions to prevent and reduce physician burnout: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet* 2016;388:2272–2281.
- 13 Chuang CH, Tseng PC, Lin CY, Lin KH, Chen YY. Burnout in the intensive care unit professionals: a systematic review. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 2016;95:e5629.
- 14 McKinlay JB. A case for refocusing upstream: the political economy of illness. International Association for Population Health Sciences Reprinted with Permissions from the American Heart Association; 2019 [accessed 2022 Jan 6]. Available from: <https://iaphs.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/IAPHS-McKinlay-Article.pdf>.
- 15 Metzl JM, Hansen H. Structural competency: theorizing a new medical engagement with stigma and inequality. *Soc Sci Med* 2014;103: 126–133.
- 16 National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine; National Academy of Medicine; Committee on Systems Approaches to Improve Patient Care by Supporting Clinician Well-Being. Taking action against clinician burnout: a systems approach to professional well-being. Washington, DC: National Academies Press; 2019.
- 17 Schleiter K, Johnson L. Federal bills raise cap on medicare-funded residency positions and modify graduate medical education policies. *J Grad Med Educ* 2021;13:602–606.
- 18 Moss M, Good VS, Gozal D, Kleinpell R, Sessler CN. A Critical Care Societies Collaborative statement: burnout syndrome in critical care health-care professionals. A call for action. *Am J Respir Crit Care Med* 2016;194:106–113.
- 19 Kleinpell R, Moss M, Good VS, Gozal D, Sessler CN. The critical nature of addressing burnout prevention: results from the Critical Care Societies Collaborative’s national summit and survey on prevention and management of burnout in the ICU. *Crit Care Med* 2020;48:249–253.
- 20 Shanafelt T. Physician burnout: stop blaming the individual. *NEJM Catalyst*; 2016 [accessed 2022 Jan 18]. Available from: <https://catalyst.nejm.org/doi/full/10.1056/CAT.16.0806>.