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▶ To cite this version:

Sébastien Couarraze, Michèle Saint Jean, Guillaume Decormeille, Charles Henri Houze Cerfon, Vincent Minville, et al.. Short term effects of simulation training on stress, anxiety and burnout in critical care health professionals: before and after study. Clinical Simulation in Nursing, 2023, 75, pp.25-32. 10.1016/j.ecns.2022.12.001. hal-04434524

HAL Id: hal-04434524 https://hal.science/hal-04434524v1

Submitted on 8 Jan 2025

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SHORT TERM EFFECTS OF SIMULATION TRAINING ON STRESS, ANXIETY AND BURNOUT IN CRITICAL CARE HEALTH PROFESSIONALS / A BEFORE AND AFTER STUDY

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Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the ITSimS trainers who made the simulation sessions possible and the professionals who agreed to participate in our study.

Declaration of competing interest

All authors declare they have no conflict of interest to disclose.

Funding

This study was possible thanks to the financial support of the French Society for Anesthesia and Critical Care (Société Française d'Anesthésie et de Réanimation, SFAR), with the SFAR anesthesia nurse grant 2019.

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1	Short term effects of simulation training on stress, anxiety and burnout in
2	critical care health professionals: a before and after study
3	
4	
5	Abstract
6	Introduction
7	Anesthesia and critical care professionals have been shown to be particularly affected by the
8	problems of stress, anxiety and burnout. Simulation training could be a sustainable solution to
9	help healthcare workers to deal with this situation. There is however poor scientific evidence
10	on the short-term effect of simulation training on stress, anxiety and burnout in anesthesia and
11	critical care workers.
12	Material and methods
13	This prospective observational study was conducted over one year. All anesthesia and critical
14	care professionals participating in simulation training for critical situations were considered
15	for inclusion. Perceived Stress Score (PSS), State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) and
16	Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) were collected before and 1 week after the training.
17	Results
18	Ninety-three participants fully completed the before and after study. PSS levels were
19	significantly lower after the simulation sessions ($p = 0.008$), as were STAI levels (anxiety
20	state (p < 0.001) and anxious personality trait (p = 0.002). The severity of burnout levels also
21	decreased after simulation training ($p < 0.001$).
22	Conclusion
23	Simulation training based on critical situations exposure seems to have positive and rapid
24	effects on stress, anxiety and burnout in anesthesia and critical care staff.
25	
26	Keywords: simulation – stress – burnout – anxiety – prevention
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31 32	
52 22	

35 **1. Introduction**

Anesthesia and Critical Care Medicine professionals are exposed to stressful situations with important personal and/or professional consequences. [1–5] They have been shown to be particularly affected by the problems of stress, anxiety and burnout, especially during the COVID-19 pandemic. [6,7] There is a need to act and find sustainable solutions to help healthcare workers to deal with this situation.

41 Training using simulation could be a relevant solution by allowing progressive learning with 42 different levels of complexity, exposure to different clinical situations, improving learner's 43 confidence. Simulation can be used as a curricular tool for learners throughout their training. 44 Procedural simulation allows the development of technical skills reproducing care acts. It 45 constitutes a basic foundation for the training of health professionals. These technical gestures 46 are carried out with patients as in the simulated participant or hydride simulation modality. 47 Finally, this user care is performed within the framework of interprofessional clinical activity 48 with different healthcare actors, such as during a full-scale interprofessional simulation 49 session. In this curricular vision of simulation, each modality is used in order to gradually 50 increase the complexity of the cases by adapting to the level of the learners. Training for 51 exposure to stress can improve clinical performance. [8] Simulation training seems to 52 influence work-related stress and turnover of nurses. [9] During the debriefing phase, the 53 creation of a motivating learning experience appears to be essential to improve the learner's 54 confidence at work. [10] The immersion during simulation is able to reproduce emotions 55 close to those observed in the clinical practice. [11] However, psychological safety can be guaranteed during simulation training by making it clear during the pre-briefing that 56 57 participants can leave the session if they feel the need to. Simulation seems to be successful in 58 desensitizing healthcare workers to stress facing critical clinical situations. [12]

The effect of simulation training on stress could be rapid. There is however poor scientific evidence on the short-term effect of simulation training on stress, anxiety and burnout in anesthesia and critical care workers. The main objective of this study was to evaluate the short-term impact (1 week) of simulation training on commonly perceived stress, anxiety and burnout in this population. We hypothesized that simulation training could rapidly improve the stress of healthcare workers.

67

2. Material and methods

68

69 **2.1 Design of the study**

70 We conducted a prospective single-center observational before/after study on stress of 71 healthcare workers around a simulation-based training intervention from January to December 72 2019 (Figure 1). This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of 73 Toulouse Jean Jaures (CERNI-Université Fédérale de Toulouse - number 2016-009, approval 74 without specific comments). The study design was pre and post intervention comparison. The 75 pre-evaluation was done the day before the simulation session. The post assessment was done 76 one week after the training session to comply with the recommendations of the scales used. 77 All participants were contacted one week after their training. We did a follow-up in the 78 following week.

79

80

2.2 Simulation training

81 The study site was the Toulouse Institute for Simulation Training in healthcare. This 82 simulation center receives more than 6000 participants each year. The themes of the sessions 83 were defined around critical situations, as malignant hyperthermia, massive hemorrhage in the 84 operating room, respiratory distress in the recovery room, initial management of severe multiple traumas in the intensive care unit. The critical situation simulation sessions included 85 86 4 scenarios during the training day. The simulation modality was full scale, i.e. the 87 participants were immersed in an identically reproduced work environment (operating room, 88 trauma room, recovery room, etc.). During the training day, the participants alternated 89 between 3 positions: actors, rescue actors and observers. Actors were the participants who 90 started the simulation session. Rescue actors were participants who could be called upon by 91 the actors to assist in the management in the same way that healthcare professionals can call 92 for help in clinical practice. Finally, observers were participants who were not actors in the 93 session but who observed the session without any part in the management and who 94 participated in the debriefing. Thus, participants were involved in 2 simulations and observed 95 2 simulations. The simulation sessions lasted 15 to 20 minutes and the debriefings lasted 45 to 96 60 minutes. Regardless of their posture, all participants were present during the debriefing of 97 the session. In order to standardize the debriefings and avoid differences between sessions, all debriefings were conducted according to the PEARLS model. [13] The debriefing team wassystematically composed of a physician and a nurse specialized in critical care or anesthesia.

100

101 **2.3 Participants**

All participants in 31 sessions were offered inclusion in the study. They expressed their written informed consent to participate in the study. Each training day consisted of 8–10 people working in critical care (anesthesiologist and critical care physicians or residents, nurse anesthetists, ICU nurses, student nurses' anesthetists and nursing assistants). Participants were asked to maintain their professional posture during the training.

107

108

2.3.1 Inclusion criteria

109 The main inclusion criterion was to be a participant in a full-scale critical situation simulation 110 session. It was compulsory to work in an anesthesia-intensive care unit (operating room, 111 intensive care unit, trauma room, etc.). Each participant had to have given written informed 112 consent.

113

114

2.3.2 Exclusion criteria

115 Participants whose personal or professional experience could be affected by a major personal 116 or professional event that would alter the scales were not considered for inclusion. For 117 example, if the participants had a death in the family or a separation or had experienced a 118 difficult conflict or layoff, etc. This personal assessment was left to the discretion of the 119 participants and was present on the written consent. In addition, the consent form listed a 120 number of resources (internal and external psychologists, occupational medicine, quality of 121 life at work advisors, etc.) to be contacted if necessary. Thus, a potential resource was made 122 available to the participants if they felt the need and desire to do so. A second exclusion 123 criteria was no response to the assessment before or after the training session.

124 125

2.4 Data

Three validated scales were used for the assessment of stress, anxiety and burnout. Depending
on the recommendations of each scale, they were re-informed between 1 and 4 weeks after the
exposure.

- 129
- 130 2.4.1 Perceived Stress Score

131 The Perceived Stress Score (PSS) was created in order to measure the stressful nature of 132 situations. [14] It was translated and validated in French. [15] The PSS 10 is able to measure 133 perceived stress both in terms of its psychometric qualities and its application. [15,16] The 134 PSS 10 consists of ten items that participants are asked to quantify in terms of frequency of 135 occurrence using a five-point Likert scale ranging from never (1) to often (5). Questions 4, 5, 136 7 and 8 are reversed, with scores ranging from 5 for never to 1 for often. This scale is part of a 137 transactional approach to stress. The PSS takes into account an individual's perception of the 138 demands of a situation as well as the resources and abilities they feel they have to control the 139 situation.

140 The PSS 10 scores were classified into three categories:

141 - 21 or less: person managing stress

142 - 22 to 26: person generally manage stress but some situations remain complex

- 27 and above: person does not manage stressful situations and feels under constant
 threat of perpetual threat
- 145

146

2.4.2 State Trait Anxiety Inventory

The State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) was created by Spielberger, Gorsuch and Lushene. [17] It was translated and validated in French. [18] This questionnaire includes 20 questions for the state of anxiety and 20 for the anxious personality traits. Indeed, as we wanted to use scales based on transactional stress and thus a self-assessment of individuals regarding their ability to act in situations, we found it relevant to add a scale taking into account the personality of individuals.

The forty questions are to be assessed using four-point Likert scales. Some of the questions are reversed, 10 for the anxiety state and 9 for the anxiety personality trait. Each item is scored from 1 to 4, with 1 being the lowest and 4 the highest degree of anxiety. The summed score ranges from 20 to 80.

- 157 The STAI scores were classified into the following categories
- 158 35 or less: very low
- 159 36 to 45: low
- 160 46 to 55: medium
- 161 56 to 65: high
- 162 66 or more: very high
- 163
- 164 2.4.3 Maslach Burnout Inventory

- 165 The Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) was used for the specific level of burnout of
- 166 healthcare workers. [19] It was translated and validated in French. [20]
- 167 This inventory includes three dimensions:
- 168 -Depersonalization
- 169 —Emotional exhaustion
- 170 —Personal accomplishment at work
- 171 The first two dimensions are elements in favor of burnout, whereas personal accomplishment
- 172 at work is a protective element. The MBI consists of 22 questions to be assessed on a Likert
- 173 scale of intensity and/or frequency. When interpreting, each item is scored from 0 to 6 and the
- 174 dimensions can be scored as low, moderate or high.

175 For depersonalization and emotional exhaustion, high levels indicate serious impairment; for 176 personal fulfillment, low levels indicate weakness. It is sufficient for one of the three 177 dimensions to be affected to speak of burnout. Depending on the number of dimensions 178 affected, it is possible to distinguish three stages of severity:

- 179 — Low: one dimension affected
- 180 -Moderate: two of the three dimensions are affected
- 181 -Severe: all three dimensions are affected
- 182
- 183

2.5 Data collection tools

184 We created a computerized questionnaire including the 3 selected scales. The computerized 185 questionnaire was hosted in compliance with French law and the National Commission for 186 Information Technology and Civil Liberties. We added socio-demographic questions to 187 characterize the cohort. Participants in the simulation sessions had to fill in the questionnaire 188 before their training. In accordance with the recommendations of the three scales in a before-189 and-after study, individuals were contacted one week after their participation in a simulation 190 session. Indeed, after one week, it is not possible to say whether the potential changes in 191 scores are due to the intervention or to other factors.

192

193 2.6 Statistical analysis

194 Data were expressed in number and percentage for categorical variables and mean \pm standard 195 deviation (SD) for quantitative variables. A paired t-test was performed to compare scale 196 levels before and after the intervention. The value of $p \le 0.05$ was used as the threshold of 197 significance. Qualitative data was expressed as a percentage and materialized in histograms 198 compiled as a percentage for easy visualization. Regression's analysis was performed to

199	evaluate the risk factors of stress, anxiety and burnout. A Pearson test was performed between
200	the different scales to assess their correlation with each other. Statistics were computed using
201	Stata software (v16, StataCorp, College station, USA).
202	
203	2 Results
204	
205	3.1 Socio-demographic data
206	Of the 258 people participating in the simulation sessions, 209 agreed to participate in the
207	study, with 93 responses after the simulation sessions. The socio-demographic data of the
208	cohort are shown in Table 1 .
209	
210	3.2 Perceived stress before/after
211	The raw data results of the PSS are presented in Table 2. PSS was significantly lower after
212	simulation-based training ($p = 0.008$). After training, individuals were more likely to handle
213	stressful situations ($p = 0.017$). (Figure 2).
214	
215	3.3 Anxiety and anxious personality trait before/after
216	The raw data results of the STAI state and trait are presented in Table 2. Anxiety state (p <
217	0.001) and anxious personality trait ($p = 0.002$) decreased after the training. The share of
218	healthcare professionals with a low or very low anxiety state or personality trait increases by
219	10% (Figure 3). Both pre- and post-session levels of anxiety states were consistently and
220	significantly lower than individuals' personality traits ($p < 0.05$).
221	
222	3.4 Burnout before/after
223	The severity of burnout levels was significantly ($p < 0.001$) lower after training (Figure 4).
224	The results of the three dimensions of MBI are presented in figure 5. Emotional exhaustion (p
225	= 0.522) and depersonalization ($p = 0.889$) were similar before and after the training these
226	dimensions of burnout did not change significantly. In contrast, professional accomplishment
227	increased significantly after the training ($p < 0.001$) (Figure 6).
228	
229	3 Discussion
230	The primary purpose of this study was to examine the short-term effect of simulation-based
231	training on three scales commonly used to measure perceived stress, anxiety and burnout. A

positive effect of training based on full-scale simulation of critical situations has been observed as perceived stress was reduced with participants feeling to better handle stressful situations after the training, anxious personality trait of individuals significantly improved, and the severity of burnout were lower after the session.

236 Simulation seems to be able to improve the perception of stress. Simulation based-training 237 increases participants' positive stress coping abilities. [21] Stress training is relevant because 238 it improves actual performance in a critical clinical situation. [22] The military, for example, 239 is experimenting with personnel optimization techniques, including methods related to stress 240 management. These techniques improve the physiological effects of stress and perceived 241 stress. [23] In the transactional model of stress developed by Lazarus and Folkman, the notion 242 of resources to cope with stressful situations is important. [24] Thus, training to acquire or 243 develop skills can improve the coping strategies of individuals. It is all the more relevant to 244 look at stress as high levels of stress are linked to a decrease in the quality of care. [25–27]

We were able to demonstrate a decrease in STAI levels after a simulation training session. However, when the simulation is used as a means of assessment, STAI levels increase. [28] When simulation is used as a learning method, STAI levels decrease after training. [29] This effect of decreasing STAI is effective in simulation-based training for anesthesia and intensive care residents. [30] Simulation is stressful and anxiety-provoking, however, levels of anxiety states were consistently lower than individuals' personality traits. This means that the health professionals were comfortable with their usual state.

252 The ultimate manifestation of stress is burnout when a worker has been consumed by stress. 253 The choice of the MBI for the study as a burnout scale can be debated but we obtained levels 254 comparable to the literature, for people practicing in anesthesia before the training. The 255 improvement obtained is in line with the results obtained by El Khamali et al. through 256 simulation sessions. [9] The development of the MBI's dimension of professional 257 accomplishment has led to an improvement in burnout levels. The change in these two 258 indicators suggests a real and profound impact of simulation-based training among healthcare 259 professionals. During simulation-based training, health professionals create social links 260 between peers. This social support is a factor in improving burnout. [31] Training to develop 261 coping strategies improves the well-being of residents. [32] This is likely to prevent burnout. 262 Simulation of critical situations to develop personal and interpersonal resources can be a 263 means of preventing or improving the level of burnout among health professionals.

- 264
- 265

266 Limitations

267 This study has some limitations.

The pre-post method we used can be discussed. The guidelines of the National Institutes of Health (NIH) quality assessment tool for before after (Pre-Post) study without a control group were followed. Only validated scales were used, with a relatively short delay between their collection. The post-session data were collected one week after the training in order to remain consistent with the scales used. It would be interesting to make longer-term measurements and to measure the persistence of the effect of the simulation.

Secondly, the current study was conducted in a single center and one specialty. It would be interesting to carry out the same study but in a multi-centre approach and with other specialties that experience critical situations, such as emergency medicine, to confirm these results. In addition, it would be interesting to evaluate the maintenance of the gain on the scales in the longer term. This would require further study to determine.

Finally, the use of a qualitative method such as an interview could have provided informationon the characteristics of stress, the sources or factors of anxiety and ill-being at work.

281

282 4 Conclusion

Simulation training based on critical situations exposure seems to have positive and rapid effects on stress, anxiety and burnout in anesthesia staff. Simulation, beyond being a learning device, seems to have positive effects on psychological parameters. This offers interesting perspective as the use of simulation training as a prevention tool in healthcare population exposed to stress, anxiety and burnout.

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291 Acknowledgements

We would like to thank all the ITSimS trainers who made the simulation sessions possible and the professionals who agreed to participate in our study.

294

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- 394
- 395

397 Table 1. Description of the cohort - socio-demographic data

	n = 93	%
Gender		
Female	71	76
Male	22	24
Age		
Junior:	38	41
< 30 years	38	41
Senior:	55	59
30 to 39 years	39	42
40 to 49 years	13	14
50 to 60 years	3	3
Profession		
Paramedical staff:	76	82
Care assistant	20	21.5
Nurse	42	45
Nurse anesthetist	8	9
Student nurse anesthetist	6	6.5
Medical profession:	17	18
Resident in anesthesia and critical care	17	18
Status:		
Professional	70	75
Student	23	25
Place of practice		
Operating room	28	30
Recovery room	13	14
Care service	3	3
Specialized critical care	12	13
Intensive care unit	33	35.5
Other	4	4.5

Description of the cohort

Table 2. Scales results in numerical values: Perceived Stress Score (PSS), State Trait

Anxiety Inventory (STAI) – Difference of the t-test

n = 93		Before	After	After p value*	
	Mean	25.7	24.6	-	
PSS	SD	4.52	5.01	p = 0.008	
	SEA	0.47	0.52		
	Mean	39.1	37		
STAI Trait	SD	7.58	8.58	p = 0.002	
	SEA	0.79	0.89		
	Mean	39.1	34.9		
STAI State	SD	8.82	8.25	p < 0.001	
	SEA	0.91	0.86		

**t* test, hypothesis: Before > After

423 Figure 1. Flow chart of the study

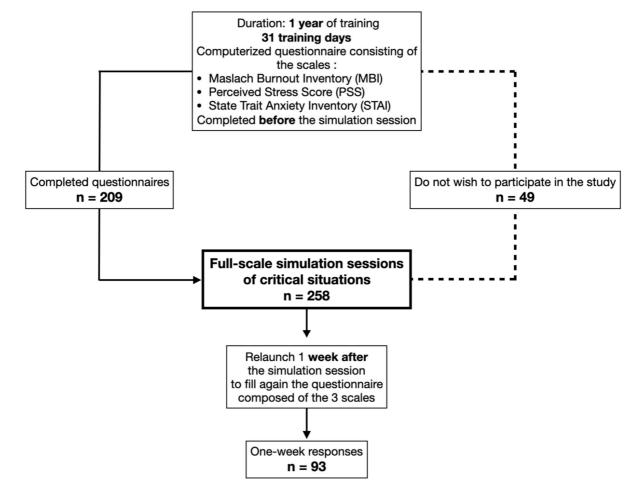
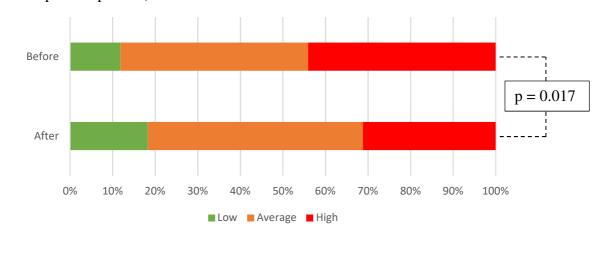
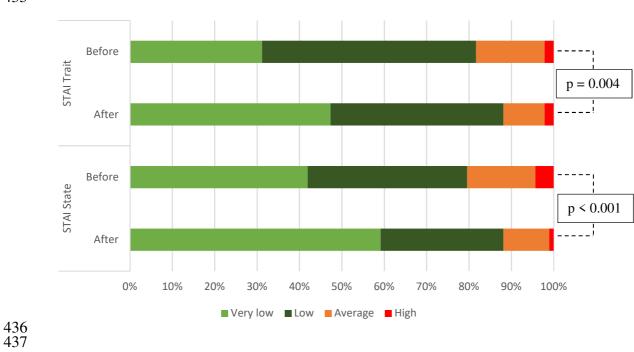


Figure 2. Perceived Stress Score (PSS) results according to score levels - (histogram

429 compiled in percent)





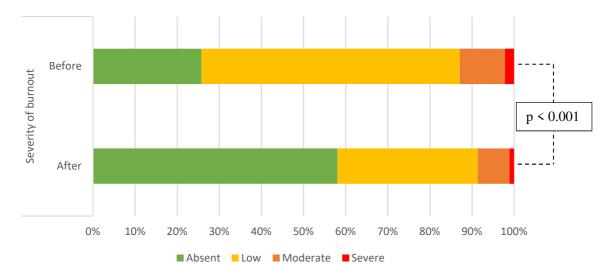
433 Figure 3. State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI)results according to scale levels –

434 (histogram compiled in percent)

Figure 4. Severity of burnout level before and after simulation-based training -

(histogram compiled in percent)





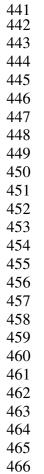
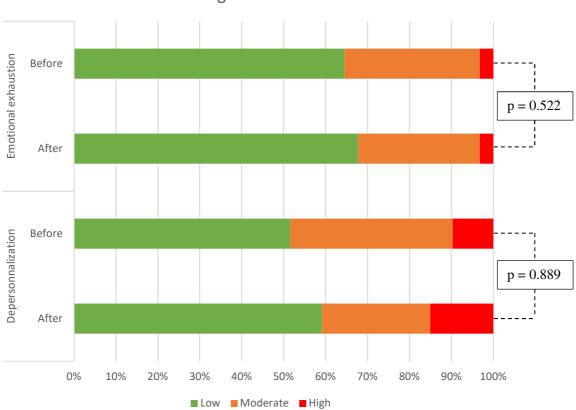
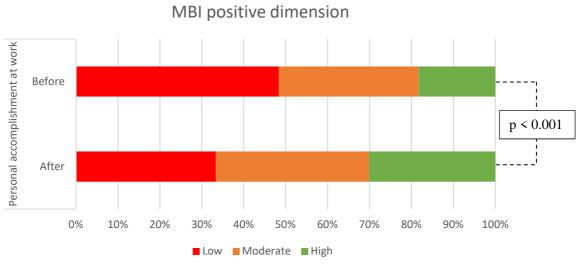


Figure 5. Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) results according to scale levels and

dimensions – negative or positive dimensions



MBI negative dimensions



479 Figure 6 - Difference in the level of personal accomplishment at work before and after

480 training

