

“The healthcare safety environment:
Egyptian health practitioners’ attitude to medical errors”

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Abstract

Medical errors overwhelm the healthcare environment worldwide. **Aim:** Identify correlates of the healthcare workers’ attitude toward medical errors prevention within the health facility environment. **Methods:** Healthcare providers from selected private health organizations in greater Cairo, Egypt were surveyed; their work load, burnout, leader-member exchange quality; their influences upon health workers’ attitude toward medical errors prevention were analyzed. **Results:** Among 5,725 health professionals surveyed, 2,260 (39.5%) returned valid responses. Participants’ mean age was 33.4 years (± 7.76 SD); male-female ratio was 1.26:1. Nursing predominate other occupations, e.g., 35.4% vs. 21.6% physicians. Both leadership member exchange quality and health workers’ attitude

toward medical errors prevention scores were significantly higher in male workers [$t(df=2258)=0.106, p<0.05$; $t(df=2258)=1.22, p<0.05$, respectively]. Leader-member exchange and attitude toward medical errors prevention scores varied by occupation [$F(df=4, 2,255)=2.48, p=0.045$]; physicians score higher than technicians, nurse, and pharmacists, [$F(df=4, 2,255)=6.65, p=0.02$]. Participants' leader-member exchange score increased by age [$F(df=3, 2,237)=3.52, p=0.016$]. Burnout score decreased by decreasing age [$F(df=3, 2,237)=3.37, p=0.042$]. Leader-member exchange and health workers' attitude toward medical errors prevention are correlated ($r= 0.16, p=0.015$). Workload positively correlated with burnout ($r= 0.351, p<0.001$), and inversely correlated with attitude toward medical errors prevention ($r= -0.161, p<0.016$). Otherwise, health workers' attitude toward medical errors prevention and burnout inversely correlated ($r=-0.473, p<0.001$). Burnout could predict changes in the health workers' attitude toward medical errors prevention ($\beta= -0.032, p<0.001$); work experience was a predictor for burnout ($\beta = -0.122, p=0.008$). **Conclusions:** Work stressors impact health workers' health workers' attitude toward medical errors prevention, including private health workers, who are often under a financial target pressure. Given their favorable health workers' attitude toward medical errors prevention and leader-member exchange profile, older health workers can play a role in combating medical errors risk in the healthcare institutions arena.

Keywords: Health workers, medical errors, Cairo, Egypt

Introduction

Enthusiastic health systems strive to achieve quality and “perfection” throughout the healthcare providing process. Quality, in turn, assures a maximum leverage upon the patient's safety and health outcomes. Distinguished health services now immensely depend both upon adherence to highest performance standards and the need to embrace advanced, and often sophisticated technologies which provide better diagnostic and therapeutic opportunities to the patient's and the provider's best interest. In such a highly challenging atmosphere, a system's management approach is inevitable in order to assure well adjusted and smooth flow of the healthcare process, with minimal flaws, uncertainty, and errors potential. Although errors are an unavoidable trait of mankind, (e.g., “to err is human”) (1) planners for interventional human services, including healthcare, work diligently to furnish an appropriate environment for the most favorable outcome, safety, and minimal unwanted events. Medical errors involve mistakes health providers make in patient testing, care, or treatment (2). Medical errors types include failures of planned actions and use of wrong plans to achieve outcomes, e.g., wrong diagnosis, wrong site, wrong procedure, and incomplete treatment of illness. Also encountered are hospital acquired infections (HAIs) and anesthesia errors. Incriminated causes of medical errors include modest experience, poor communication (either horizontally or vertically), and inadequate staffing (3). By far, many of the negative patient safety events are related to systems and how people operate within them. Consequently, every year, thousands of patients die because of medical errors. Such errors can occur anywhere in the health care system, whether public hospitals, private practices, nursing homes or pharmacies.

To help reduce the incidence of medical errors and hence improve patient safety, we need to identify error-prone initiation factors; develop approach for prevention. For instance, burnout BO has been considered a major cause of medical errors (4). The negative outcome of such risk for individuals and organizations is overwhelming. If BO is a proximal cause of medical error, efforts to overcome stressful work conditions, particularly

BO, may help decrease the occurrence of medical errors (5). Other factors impacting medical errors include workload (WL), work experience, load tolerance, continuous professional training, the organization's reward policy, and the organization's leadership philosophy. Scholars working on these risk areas often prioritize a risk of interest over other risks. For instance, BO literature has been criticized that it has largely ignored the study of how the leadership processes affects BO. For this reason, correlates of impaired patient safety and medical errors, leader-member exchange quality (LMX), and WL need to be addressed more integrally. In essence, LMX involves an approach that conceptualizes leadership from the perspective of relationship. It implies that leaders develop different relationships with their followers. (6) When the leader has a stronger relationship with the subordinates, a positive effect on employees' attitudes toward patients and the perception toward the organization are heightened. Expectedly, too, medical errors may well be prevented from happening. Especially in health care, supporting LMX quality indirectly influences organizational and personal outcomes, e.g., by reducing BO. (7) Since healthcare managers often tend to discriminately treat their subordinates, the influence of LMX quality on the overall work performance either subjectively and objectively varies.

Workload refers to the amount of work or number of work units assigned to an individual to perform or complete over a given period. (8) Occupationally, WL has been linked to fatigue, anxiety, and overall impaired physiological, mental, and physical performance. In most healthcare settings WL can be a primary risk for BO. The latter predisposes to medical errors (4). The "WL- BO - medical errors" series is a well observed phenomenon in the healthcare arena. Notably, overloaded nurses are liable to emotional stress, cynicism, anger and ultimately BO. For instance, in Europe, heavy WL adversely affected patient safety to the degree that patients may die after common surgery when they are cared for by a heavier workload nurse. The issue is that the burden of care increased, e.g., as a result of an increase in population aging. Thereby, nurses often have to assume mandatory overtime work to treat for chronic understaffing. Physicians, too, are subject to workload, especially in such highly competitive healthcare climate. Over working physicians render patient safety in jeopardy. For instance, it was found that nearly half of surveyed physicians by Johns Hopkins investigators believe that excessive WL can affect the safety of their patients and consider as the cause of a large number of medical errors. (9) In comparison, BO refers to a state of emotional, physical and mental exhaustion resulting from excessive and prolonged occupational stress. (10) Burnout is considered a serious public health problem due to its increasing rate of incidence and negative impact on the entire healthcare system. This is mostly because BO has been largely connected with work performance, job satisfaction and quality of life (QoL). In Shanafelt, et al 2009 (4) work to evaluate the relationship between BO and perceived medical errors, Most American surgeons interviewed reported that medical errors were strongly related to the degree of BO and mental QoL they have been suffering. Another source of BO recently involves self efficacy, the reinforcement of which prevents BO. (11) A self efficacious employee is in a better position to keep and perform calm despite stressful conditions. Ultimately, a healthcare place that is disturbed by WL and BO is prone to devastating complications in terms of worsened morbidity, mortality, disability, and organization's stability. In the presence of terrifying figures, e.g., 98,000 deaths in 1999 due to mistakes in hospitals, (1) or 180,000 of Medicare deaths in 2010, (12) the credibility of the healthcare system is questionable. The cost to hospitals and community is unbearable. Medical errors, adverse effects, and mistakes committed during care providing can be prevented or reduced (13) and hospitals need to seek opportunities to reduce this risk.

In Egypt, the fabric of the public healthcare system is rather unique in terms of types, ownership, and access to service. All people have the right for a free health service, regardless their social or employment status. The Egyptian Ministry of Health AND Population (MOHP) is the major provider of all levels of care in Egypt (with around 5,000 health facilities and 80,000 beds, nationwide). Comparatively, the private sector has 2,024 inpatient facilities, with a total of about 22,647 beds, accounting for approximately 16 percent of the total inpatient bed capacity in Egypt. (14) Overall, the Egyptian health care system faces multiple challenges in improving and ensuring the health and wellbeing of the Egyptian people, especially the low social class populations. In addition to combating illnesses associated with poverty and lack of education, the system must respond to emerging diseases associated with modern lifestyle. To this end, quality, comprehensive coverage, long waiting lists, and the limited availability of updated technologies are issues concerning both the health officials and the people of Egypt.

The relatively limited resources the governmental healthcare environment suffers, and the raised the people's expectations for a better care, urge a considerable number of middle-class and most high-class populations to seek healthcare at the private healthcare market. After the declaration of an open economic policy in 1974, the private health sector began to grow. The private health sector provision in Egypt includes everything from private practices, high-tech diagnostic and therapeutic centers, and private hospitals of all sizes and levels. The Egyptian National Health Care Provider Survey (15) showed that 89 percent of the physicians with private clinics had multiple jobs. Seventy-three percent of the physicians had two jobs, 14 percent had three jobs, and 2 percent had four jobs. Commonly, governmentally employed physicians who cannot afford to open their own private clinics opt to work in more than one private facility to make up for the income deficit and achieve prestigious standard of living doctors traditionally strive. Likewise, other healthcare professionals, including nurses, pharmacists, health technicians, and allied health providers, consider working with private employers upon part-time contractual agreement. Many, too, opt to work full-time with these organizations to assure better earning, often at the expense of their family - and leisure times. Such healthcare professionals could be practicing under rather stressful work conditions on daily basis, and this paves the way for WL, exhaustion, and BO. This situation may well be reflected upon the physicians' physical and mental well being and eventually work performance. This work has been built on the hypothesis that health workers ATEs prevention is an intermediary healthcare outcome that may be affected by a set of factors, including LMX quality, WL, and BO. Particularly the private care health professional in Cairo, Egypt who are at risk of assuming long working hours and stressful work conditions are at such greater risk. Understanding this relationship may well be a step toward the preventing medical errors and hence alleviating the harmful impact on the entire healthcare outcome including patient safety.

Methods

The study design: A multiphase project joining a group of interested researchers and healthcare workers from health organizations in several Arabic districts, including Cairo-Egypt, Saudi Arabia western province, and central Saudi Arabian province was established to study some determinants and outcomes associate with patient safety, performance indicators, and quality assurance of the healthcare environment in these districts. Medical errors, a major component of the risk profile of patient safety, would be among the studied outcomes.

Sampling framework and criteria used for selecting sampling: In this work, healthcare providers from selected private health organizations in greater Cairo, Egypt were surveyed during the period between March 2014 and June 2014; their WL, BO, LMX quality and the influences of these determinants upon the healthcare workers' ATEs would be analyzed. One-hundred and fifteen health organizations fulfilling official medical, municipal and commercial registration requirements in greater Cairo district were surveyed. Inclusion criteria also included health organizations with a minimum of 95 professional health workers, including medical staff, nursing, technicians, and allied health services staff. Participating hospitals and facilities were randomly selected in a stratified fashion to represent the approximate proportion of licensed private healthcare organizations working in northern, southern, eastern, and western Cairo (29=25.2%, 26=22.6%, 32=27.8%, 28=24.3% hospitals/healthcare facilities, respectively). Further, healthcare employees were proportionately randomly selected from each organization's departments/ sections/units.

Data collection instruments and procedures: A validated predesigned questionnaire to screen the healthcare staff of the selected institutions was utilized. A study sample from the participating healthcare organizations mounting up to 9,340 subjects was reached and invited to respond to the questionnaire, 5,725 (61.3%) of whom returned the self-administered questionnaire. Every effort was done in order to deliver the questionnaire by hand and obtain consent of the participants throughout the study period to assure effective communication and hence maximum response rate of the targeted population. In order to be included in the analysis, only returned questionnaires reporting valid answers on $\geq 80\%$ of the items would be considered. The questionnaire included a total of eighty-seven items. (The term item may be used throughout this work to describe every single "question" asked to identify to what extent it "measures the same point of interest". Should an item be manipulated, e.g., for a statistical analysis purpose, the term may be referred to as "variable"). Included also are items if the answer to the preceding question was "yes". The questionnaire items cover the following domains: a) demographic and background information (10 questions), b) hospital/health organization information (5 questions), c) work system information (25 questions), d) patient safety climate and culture in the organization (37 questions), perceived performance on unit effectiveness and satisfaction with care provided (6 questions), e) quality of working life (5 questions). The relatively large number of questions was carefully decided and set to assure maximum validity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire. For instance, the work system domain contained questions on vital work processing and flow, such as communication openness, communication accuracy, communication timelines; time pressures affecting patient safety, workload, coordination mechanisms, workplace design, equipment design, and access to supplies. The personal and demographic domain addresses items related to age, gender, socio-economic status, education, professional information, including occupation, previous years of experience, and years of experience in the current hospital work area of the respondent. Importantly, too, the subscale about factors affecting ATE included questions addressing vital information regarding the LMX, WL, and BO. Likewise, the quality of working life scale included clear questions about fatigue, tension, and also job satisfaction. Specifically, input variables of this research's interest that would potentially influence the study outcome were based on definitions drawn from evidence-based resources. For instance, LMX quality was addressed based on definition by Deluga, 1998, (6) WL as defined by Jex, 1998, (8) and BO, as defined by Maslach, et al, 2001 (10) (see before). On the other hand, both ATEs and medical errors would be dealt with as described by Farger, 2012(16). Generally, a five-point Likert scale could be used for stratifying such categorical variables. The Likert format uniformly provides options ranging from 1 to 5. The response selection ranges between "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree"; whether or not a "strongly disagree"

response would be given maximum score five or least score one depends on the nature of the question. For instance, in questions addressing inquiries the agreement to which is in favor of a positive workers' ATEs (an outcome of this work's interest), "strongly agree" scores five and "strongly disagree" scores one; and vice versa. The questionnaire takes 35-45 minutes to complete. [All required official permissions were obtained; arrangements with the participating organizations done prior to conducting the survey.](#) In preparation for the study, a pilot administration was conducted to assess the questionnaire's test-retest reliability. Thirty health-worker colleagues were given the questionnaire to respond to (response-a). The same questionnaire was re-administered by the same group one week later (response-b). A panel of juries consists of experts in research, healthcare quality, preventive medicine, medical directing, and chief nursing, was selected to judge the responses. Test-retest reliability was calculated to assess the temporal stability of the questionnaire items, using appropriate correlation techniques. An acceptable – to - strong reliability evidence for the questionnaire's items was found: reliability alphas 0.78 for the selected determinants, 0.83 for lifestyle, 0.76 for chronic diseases, and 0.91 for screening tests scales. Onsite, participants were informed about the aim of the study prior to the completion of questionnaire. A verbal consent from each participant was considered a personal permission to participate in the study. Otherwise, it was made clear that participation was voluntary, and that any participant could opt to withdraw any time during the study. We have also stressed the anonymity and confidentiality of any collected information, and that only generic outcome data might be disseminated in scientific settings.

Data management and analysis: Data were entered to a Microsoft program with adequate back up; open-ended questions coded, and observations made ready for statistical analysis. First, descriptive statistics, including frequency data, would be displayed. Parametric techniques, e.g., *t*-test of independent samples, could be used comparing mean differences, considering normal distribution of the continuous data. Testing the differences between three groups or more in their observed levels of a continuous data, considering normality assumption, one-way ANOVA test would be used. Correlation techniques, whether Pearson's or Spearman's depending on normality distribution, to compare the strength of correlation between any two continuous variables of interest could also be used, as appropriate. Multiple linear regression models, e.g., to predict the change in the workers' ATE as a result of a unit change in the predictor variables (e.g., work experience, occupation, LMX, workload, burnout), could be constructed. The SPSS software for Microsoft- version-20 was used for statistical analysis. All tests were at level of significance $\alpha=0.05$; results with *p*-values <0.05 were considered "statistically significant."

Results

In the study, 2,260 returned questionnaires with fulfilling response validity criteria out of 5,725 responses (39.5%) were entered in the analysis. (In the display of data, either term such as "respondents", "participants", "health professionals", or "health providers", might be used interchangeably, study individuals, would be used to describe the individuals who were included in the analysis).

Table 1a describes selected demographic and professional data of the study participating group. Age-wise, younger age group (20 - <30 years) constitutes almost one-third of the

participants (32.3%, n=730). Male workers slightly dominate the study population (55.31%, n = 125), constituting a male – to female ratio of 1.26:1. The study participants are practicing at 12 primary work areas, highest of which was “other unit/ward” (63 = 27.9%), and least was emergency department (4 =1.8%).

Table 1a: Distribution of the study group by demographic

	<i>Characteristic</i>	n	%
<i>Age (y)*</i>	20 to <30	730	32.3
	30 to <40	1040	46.0
	40 to <50	340	15.0
	≥50	130	5.8
	Missing	20	0.9
	Total	2260	100.0
<i>Gender</i>	Male	1250	55.3
	Female	990	43.8
	Total	2260	100.0
<i>Primary work area</i>	Medical ward	50	2.2
	Surgical ward	140	6.2
	Intensive care unit (ICU), (any type)	260	11.5
	Oncology	110	4.9
	Hematology	70	3.1
	Emergency department	40	1.8
	Anesthesiology	50	2.2
	Laboratory	360	15.9
	Pharmacy	230	10.2
	Radiology	180	8.0
	Other unit/ward	630	27.9
	No specific unit	120	5.3
	Missing	20	0.9
Total	2260	100.0	

* Mean age = 33.4 (±7.76SD)

Table 1b: Distribution of the study group by professional criteria

	<i>Characteristic</i>	n	%
<i>Occupation</i>	<i>Physician</i>	510	22.6
	<i>Nurse</i>	800	35.4
	<i>Pharmacist</i>	160	7.1
	<i>Technician</i>	580	25.7
	<i>Other</i>	190	8.4
	<i>Missing</i>	20	0.9
	<i>Total</i>	2260	100.0
	<i>Less than 5 years</i>	460	20.4

<i>Work experience duration *</i>	<i>5 to 10 years</i>	980	43.4
	<i>11 to 15 years</i>	380	16.8
	<i>16 to 20 years</i>	190	8.4
	<i>More than 20 years</i>	200	8.8
	<i>Missing</i>	50	2.2
<i>Total</i>		2260	100.0
<i>Years of experience in the current organization **</i>	<i>Less than 1 year</i>	280	12.4
	<i>1 to 5 years</i>	1690	74.8
	<i>6 to 10 years</i>	270	11.9
	<i>Missing</i>	20	0.9
	<i>Total</i>	2260	100.0

* Mean work experience: 9.5±6.98y ** Mean years of experience in current work: 3.1±1.2

As in Table 1b, the least common work experience durations were >20y and 16-20y [200(8.8%, 19(8.4%), respectively]. The mean scores both for LMX (male 3.64±0.96, female 3.52±0.84) and ATEs (male 3.524±0.56, female 3.445±0.40, respectively) show statistically significant differences between male and female workers [$t(df=2258)=0.106$, $p<0.05$ and $t(df=2258)=1.22$, $p<0.05$, respectively].

Table 2: Difference in the mean scores of the study variables of interest among the participants two gender groups

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Gender</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Test statistic</i>	<i>p-value</i>
<i>LMX</i>	<i>Male</i>	1250	3.64	0.963	$t(df=2258)=$	<0.05
	<i>Female</i>	1010	3.52	0.838		
<i>WL</i>	<i>Male</i>	1250	3.05	0.914	$t(df=2258)=$	>0.05
	<i>Female</i>	1010	3.07	0.893		
<i>BO</i>	<i>Male</i>	1250	2.30	0.788	$t(df=2258)=$	>0.05
	<i>Female</i>	1010	2.23	0.767		
<i>ATEs</i>	<i>Male</i>	1250	3.52	0.559	$t(df=2258)=$	<0.05
	<i>Female</i>	1010	3.44	0.405		

As displayed in Table 2, the mean scores both for LMX (male 3.64±0.96, female 3.52±0.84) and ATEs (male 3.524±0.56, female 3.445±0.40, respectively) show statistically significant differences between male and female workers [$t(df=2258)=0.106$, $p<0.05$ and $t(df=2258)=1.22$, $p<0.05$, respectively].

Table 3a: Difference in the mean scores of the study variables of interest among the study's age groups

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Test statistic</i>	<i>p-value</i>
<i>LMX</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 3.521$	0.061
<i>WL</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 2.350$	0.094
<i>BO</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 3.372$	0.042
<i>ATEs</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 2.960$	0.117

In the one-way ANOVA testing (Tables 3a) to measure the influence of age upon the difference in the study population scores of the main study scales, first, LMX showed a significant different in the mean scores between age groups [$F(df=3, 2237)=3.52$, $p=0.016$].

[Further, participants aged 20-<30 scored significantly lower compared to those who age ≥ 50 (post hoc LSD test, mean difference = -0.769 , $p=0.005$), and those aged 30-<40 had a significantly lower LMX score than the ≥ 50 peers (mean difference = -0.75 , $p=0.005$). Unexpectedly, the respondents' BO mean score significantly decreased by decreasing age [$F(df=3, 2237)=3.372$, $p=0.042$], where those aged 30-<40 scored significantly higher compared to those who age 40-<50 (post hoc LSD test: mean difference = 0.331 , $p=0.031$). Otherwise, both WL and ATEs mean scores were not influenced by age (Table 3a).

Table 3b: Difference in the mean scores of the study variables of interest among the study's occupation groups

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Test statistic</i>	<i>p-value</i>
<i>LMX</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 2.408$	0.045
<i>WL</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 3.139$	0.033
<i>BO</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 1.325$	0.098
<i>ATEs</i>	$F(df = 3, 2237) = 3.758$	0.014

Another set of 4 ANOVA tests has been calculated to analyze the difference in the mean scores of each of the principal study scales among different occupation groups (Table 3b). The LMX mean scores were significantly different [$F(df=4, 2255)=2.408$, $p=0.045$]. [Further, post-hoc test for LMX score differences within occupation groups showed that physicians had a significantly higher mean LMX scores than all occupations (technicians, nurse, pharmacists), except "other" occupation (mean score differences: physician – technician= 0.53 , $p=0.02$, physician – nurse= 0.55 , $p=0.01$, physician – pharmacist= 0.64 , $p=0.012$)]. The WL mean scores varied between occupation groups [$F(df=4, 2255)=3.139$, $p=0.033$]. [Within group post hoc test showed that "other" occupation was significantly higher than "technicians" (mean score difference = 0.47 , $p=0.0034$). The WL score differences within the remaining occupation groups were not statistically significant].

The difference for the ATEs mean scores between occupation groups was also significant [$F(df=4, 2255)=3.758$, $p=0.014$]. [Within group post hoc test showed that "other" occupation was significantly higher than "technicians" (mean score difference = 0.47 , $p=0.0034$)]. The score differences for the WL scale between the occupation groups were not statistically significant (Table 3b).

Table 4: Correlations analyses of scores of the scales of interest

		<i>LMX</i>	<i>WL</i>	<i>BO</i>	<i>ATE</i>
<i>LMX</i>	<i>Pearson correlation</i>	1	0.003	-0.123	0.162
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>		0.963	0.064	0.015
	<i>n</i>	2260	2260	2260	2260
<i>WL</i>	<i>Pearson correlation</i>	0.003	1	0.351	-0.161
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	0.963		<0.001	0.016
	<i>n</i>	2260	2260	2260	2260

<i>BO</i>	<i>Pearson correlation</i>	-0.123	0.351	1	-0.473
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	0.064	<0.001		<0.001
	<i>n</i>	2260	2260	2260	2260
<i>ATE</i>	<i>Pearson correlation</i>	0.162	-0.161	-0.473	1
	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	0.015	0.016	<0.001	
	<i>n</i>	2260	2260	2260	2260

In Table 4, the correlation analysis between the study scales, one another, first shows that both LMX and ATEs had a rather weak, yet significant, mean scores correlation ($r=0.162$, $p=0.015$). Workload and BO mean scores were moderately correlated ($r=0.351$, $p<0.001$). The ATEs mean score and BO's were inversely and moderately correlated, too ($r=-0.473$, $p<0.001$).

Table 5a: Predicting the change in ATEs against the change in BO: a bivariate linear regression analysis

<i>Coefficients^a</i>							
<i>Model</i>	<i>Un-standardized coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized coefficients</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>95.0% CI for β</i>	
	β	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>			<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>
Constant	4.175	0.090		46.245	<.001	3.997	4.353
BO mean	-0.302	0.038	-0.473	-8.031	<.001	-0.376	-0.228

a. Dependent variable: ATEs mean score

Table 5b: Predicting the change in BO against the change in WL and work experience: a multiple linear regression analysis

<i>Coefficients^a</i>								
<i>Model</i>	<i>Un-standardized coefficients</i>		<i>Standardized coefficients</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>95.0% CI for β</i>		
	β	<i>Std. Error</i>	<i>Beta</i>			<i>Lower</i>	<i>Upper</i>	
1	<i>Constant</i>	1.348	0.172		7.830	<0.001	1.009	1.687
	<i>WL mean</i>	0.302	0.054	0.351	5.607	<0.001	0.196	0.408
2	<i>Constant</i>	1.567	0.188		8.320	<0.001	1.196	1.938
	<i>WL mean</i>	0.318	0.054	0.369	5.948	<0.001	0.213	0.424
	<i>Experience mean</i>	-0.112	0.042	-0.167	-2.689	0.008	-0.194	-0.030

a. Dependent variable: BO mean score

Tables 5a and 5b exhibit data of the two linear regression analysis attempts. The first regression (Table 5a) shows how WL could predict the variability in the ATEs as a result of BO change. For each unit score increase in BO, ATEs score decreases by 0.032 score unit ($\beta = -0.032$, $p<0.001$) (Table 5a).

In the second regression model (Table 5b) to predict the variation in BO, as an intermediary dependent variable, due to changes in a selected group of predictors, including gender, work experience, occupation, LMX, and WL was calculated. (Only WL and work experience were significantly entered to the model). Each unit increase in WL score significantly yields ATEs decreases by 0.302 unit score in BO ($\beta = 0.302$, $p<0.001$).

Significantly, too, a unit increase in work experience score leads to a decrease in BO score by 0.112 units ($\beta = -0.122, p=0.008$).

Discussion

The private health care general environment in Egypt: Early in the design of this work, there was keenness to admit to the study the largest number possible of Cairo health professionals. The private healthcare field in Cairo sector covers a considerable portion of the health demand of the Egyptian society. Further, this sector enjoys a wide variety of healthcare expertise with profession-related risks to exercise analyzing the healthcare ATEs patterns in the target population. First the study sampling frame contained 9,340 affiliates who were diligently reached to assure as large sample size as possible and to cover up for any low questionnaire response rates to predict (613% return rate and 39.5% valid response rate). Not uncommonly, lower figures, (e.g., 25.5%) of a response rate, e.g. to Web-based surveys or a slightly higher rate (31.5%) surface-mail surveys have been reported. (17) In the first phase of the analysis, we meant to thoroughly describe the study scales (LMX, WL, BO, ATEs); their distributions by socio-demographic/ professional status, including occupation and work experience. This helped identify the weight and significance of each of these factors in exploring the medical errors impression trends of the studied population. For instance, younger professionals (20-30 years old) tended to report lower LMX scores than older-age counterparts, and vice versa. Since the majority (46.0%) of respondents aged 30 to <40, age should be given an utmost consideration in interpreting the organization's medical errors profile.

Why young age people are less resistant to burnout: The 30 to <40 year old respondents reported a significantly higher BO score compared to older groups. Apparently, older professionals seem to tolerate BO more frequently than younger colleagues. To start with, the pattern of the effect of age, e.g., on LMX could easily be understood, since age has been perceived as human trait that promotes the individual's ability to make wiser decisions and more effective leadership performance. Therefore, we can easily accept the finding that the health professionals' age is pro better LMX quality. In contrast, it sounds little uncommon that younger individuals report a higher subjectivity, and hence less tolerability to BO while on the job. As such, we may argue that BO itself is not an "all or none" issue. Burnout in the healthcare arena has many causes to think about other than age. (18) For instance, several job traits come into play in determining the level of BO in healthcare institutions, such as role conflicts and role overload. Absence of a clear guideline for the tasks and duties assigned to health workers makes them uncertain about the limits of the task and therefore they become liable to put-off more easily. In which case, even junior practitioners may be at risk of BO in a shorter time interval as compared to doing the same task under better job conditions. The organization's characteristics also have an important role in the BO challenge, for linking the organization's reward-punishment policy to work performance does guard against BO overload. Personal traits other than age also have a role in the higher incidents of BO, such as the health worker's self-efficacy (19) and the amount of social support workers receive from the surroundings. Thereby, age here should be handled carefully while planning for a medical errors improvement. For instance, tasks that need more communication and leadership experience, or tasks of planning and policy making nature may be assigned to older age professionals who have higher communication and LMX skills, until all staff has been able to live up to the expected level of LMX and BO tolerance standard, all in parallel with diminishing the effect of the factors that lead to a BO tendency among staff. Of note, too, is that BO was not significantly related to our study

group occupations. Instead, it was only significantly related to WL; the latter varied by occupations, (e.g., “other” specialties tend for higher WL levels than technicians). In fact, BO has been a matter of focus in medical errors research. The issue encompasses emotional, physical and mental exhaustion as a result of excessive work stresses, especially work overload. (10) Neglecting the BO challenge leads to devastating drawbacks on the whole healthcare system. Otherwise, BO not uncommonly varies between different healthcare occupations, elsewhere. For instance, 50% of physicians believe that among the contributing factors to medical errors is fatigue, as a form of BO. (20) Likewise, medical errors reported by surgeons were significantly linked to their degree of BO and their mental QoL. (4) Nursing also experiences a voluminous work overload and has to perform an endless number of duties and may eventually end up with BO. (21)

Work experience influence upon burnout: Work experience, as well as self efficacy on the job has been given the due care in the analysis. More than 43% of our participants had 5 -10 years of relevant work experience. Also, 74.8 % of the participants had 1- 5 years of experience with their current employers. Work experience scoring enabled us to predict the variation in BO tendency secondary to the change in the work experience standard. In a study by Perry et al (2014) (22) on voluntary medical male circumcision (VMMC) services in Kenya, South Africa, Tanzania, and Zimbabwe, a multivariate analysis for predictors of work fatigue/BO had been undertaken. The average work experience for Kenyan providers was 31 months compared to South Africa (10 months), Tanzania (15 months), and Zimbabwe (11 months). In comparison to our participants, except for a considerable proportion of the Kenyans (67%), less number of VMMC providers started to experience work fatigue/burnout around the end of the work durations (33% South African, 17% Zimbabwean, and 15% Tanzanian providers). In their regression analysis, Perry et al (2014) (22) first report an increase both in age and duration of work which was associated with an increased likelihood of experiencing work fatigue/BO. However, higher career duration total at VMMCs decreased the likelihood of experiencing BO. Evidently, the same trend of a decreasing variability in BO by work experience in the VMMC survey has been shared by our study.

How is health workers’ ATEs influenced by the study’s medical errors correlates: In the analysis of our ATEs domain by occupation, physicians attained a significantly higher ATEs score than nurses. As a matter of fact, both professions have always been obsessed with medical errors committed at the worksite and down the healthcare road. Both professions are held accountable for their patients’ safety and remotely unlikely that an average physician or nurse would mean to intentionally inflict harm upon their patients. In a study by Valiee, et al (2014) (23) conducted a study to evaluate nurses’ perception about nursing error who had at least one year of work experience in critical care units in Tehran and Kurdistan, the participants reported that nursing errors were deemed unavoidable. Work pressure, caring blindly, and lack of coordination were among the condemned reasons. The nurses supported the recommendations given to alleviate their concern about errors, not to impact patients’ wellbeing. Shanafelt, et al (2009) (4) also indicate that when American surgeons were surveyed utilizing a validated depression screening instrument and standardized assessments of BO and QoL, they showed a strong desire that medical errors be diminished on the job. The surgeons blamed burnout and their mental QoL for medical errors, some of which may have been as fatal.

Medical errors as an ultimate consequence of work stresses: Medical errors and the risks of medical malpractice involve a multitude of underlying causes and triggering factors.

Among these factors are heavy WL and communication problems in the health organization. Under such climate, medical errors are prone to be encountered and their occurrence could be on the rise, unless otherwise mitigated by effective measures. To that end, medical errors largely jeopardize both patient safety and the health organizations stability. In a given health facility, unless the service environment was designed to the best outcome of patients' wellbeing, at least patients should not be harmed by the care they are given at the healthcare facility ("primum non nocere" = "first, do no harm" principle). (24) Especially in BO among healthcare workers' research and in the realm of healthcare profession, seemingly there is a moving of the focus from just "errors" to the broader favorable outcome of health service, which is patient safety. (25) An adequate understanding of medical errors plays a pivotal role in achieving the improved patient safety goal. Three main levels of inputs were studied in this work: organization level, as expressed by LMX quality, job level, as expressed by WL, and individual level, as expressed by BO; each has been analyzed as a hypothesized predictor for the health professionals' ATEs. The philosophy of selecting healthcare staff attitude toward medical errors as an outcome is envisioned in a sense that ATEs stands as an important intermediary step toward the prevention and control of medical errors. (26) In the literature, too, researches such as that by Frager (2012) (16) tended to utilize ATEs to measure and provide recommendations for medical errors prevention. Actually, utilizing ATE as an outcome in error research provides a vehicle for understanding opportunities to improve patient care safety. Understanding the circumstances related to errors is the starting point to work on the prevention of medical errors; furnishing a healthy environment for quality care and improved outcomes of the provided service. On the health institution's part, establishing a culture where a shift from punitive - to non-punitive approach, e.g., adopting "root cause analysis" (RCA) technique to depict the reason of errors so not to repeat, and "forward mode and effect analysis" (FMEA) to forecast potential reasons for errors, so prevent initially, enhances the success potential of the institution's health maintenance and improvement mission.

Rationale of addressing the selected study variables: The score trends of the principal study's input scales (LXM, WL; BO) reflect the prevalence status of these factors among the studied population sample. The mean LMX score of the study group was 3.59 ± 9.1 ; the higher the age, the higher the health professionals' LMX. Gellert (2011) (27), too, studied the influence of age upon the workers' perception of LMX in physically and mentally demanding case working settings. In agreement with our age-dependent LMX findings, Gilbert (2011) (27) reported that older employees tend to have a better exchange of relationship with their supervisors; and that mediated the relationship between age and job satisfaction. Since age positively impacts LMX, older health workers in Egypt can have an important role in transmitting a sound leadership experience to coworkers, e.g., being proactive in leadership promotion education and training activities. Incorporating leadership and communication skills in continuous medical education activities on a periodic basis where the attending staff are incentivized by credit hours and further rewarded by opening to them attractive career promotion opportunities, all are creative ideas to invest the currently preferable LMX result in this healthcare population. The mean WL score of the study population was borderline moderate (3.06 ± 0.903). Workload is another universal cause of medical errors in most health occupations and in most healthcare settings, worldwide. (4) Fortunately, the WL standard within our study boundary was only revolving around a moderate level, an encouraging situation so that with some more effort to improve the workload domain in the studied institutions WL stressor could be suppressed and a workplace with the least medical errors burden could be brought about. Workload among

health professionals can vary by the type of healthcare occupation, particularly in the presence of shortage of staff, patient overflow, and shortage of logistics to satisfy the required volume of service. In our study, the mean score of WL reported by healthcare occupations ranged between 2.87 and 3.34. The highest score (3.34 ± 0.75) was reported by “other” occupation, followed by “physician” (3.23 ± 0.78), followed by “nurse” (3.03 ± 0.86), “pharmacist” (3.02 ± 1.02), and least (2.87 ± 1.04) to encounter were health technicians.

Among the work stressors analyzed, too, BO has achieved the lowest mean score (2.27 ± 0.78) in the main two work stressors (WL and BO) analyzed. There has been a traditional critique about using BO as a parameter for assessing the healthcare work environment and the often inherent stressors, meanwhile ignore studying the possible counter-regulatory effect of the LMX processes on the level of BO of healthcare workers. (28). Nonetheless, we can argue here this criticism claiming that our addressing the most recognizable factors affecting medical errors, particularly LMX could treat for the deficiency in the BO inquiry. Although LMX in our population shows a favorably negative, yet insignificant correlation with BO, LMX could exercise its effect on reducing the tendency for medical errors through other pathways, e.g., its direct effect on staff’s ATEs. The ATEs scores are already high, especially in older workers, and also high between different health professions. More tangible effect of LMX on BO and subsequently a bolstered patient safety could be accomplished through supporting a distinguished LMX interaction throughout the health care process at the studied institutions. Thomas and Lankau (2009) (7) also supports that providing a quality leadership within the health organization’s workers community may indirectly influence organizational and personal outcomes, e.g., reducing BO rate. Reduced BO burden minimizes the health workers’ absenteeism due to tiredness from overwork. It also increases their job satisfaction, and ultimately promotes their loyalty to their affiliated organizations. Moreover, to the best interest of the participating institutions’ outcomes, ATEs was inversely correlated with BO level, meaning the higher ATEs the lower would be the BO tendency of staff. Until the role of LMX has been mobilized, together with other supportive approaches to minimize the BO among Cairo care providers and necessary logistics have been furnished, there is a good opportunity to work on BO through utilizing the remarkably useful relationship between ATEs and BO among the surveyed professionals.

Predictability potential of the selected study variables: Near the end of the analysis, it was useful to examine, e.g., how BO could be used to predict the probability of the change in ATEs of the study sample members. The regression model indicates that BO makes health workers unlikely to control the occurrence of medical errors on the job. On the other hand, WL was predictor for the probability of an increase in the degree of BO ($\beta = 0.318$ units, $p < 0.05$). Van Bogaert, et al (2012) (29) studied the relationships between nurse practice environment, WL, BO, job outcomes and nurse-reported quality of care in psychiatric hospital staff in Belgium. They found that an improved data collection model could explain 50% of the variation in job outcomes. Thereby, WL itself was a predictor for the job outcomes and enabled the model to significantly explain the variation in these variables.

In conclusion, medical errors occurrence has been a health service “chronic syndrome”, health organizations are often barely immune to. Several types and risks for medical errors are quite preventable; yet, healthcare providers often continue to fall into the trap of error due to a multitude of reasons, many of which could have been avoided early in the care process. Seemingly, many hospitals started seeking reducing medical errors within their boundaries particularly improving the quality of care, especially after the era of quality and

patient safety. The levels of three major factors of a notable influence on the frequency of medical errors among our health professionals support the probability of rather reduced medical error load within the studied organizations. For instance, BO frequency is on the low side, and both LMX and ATEs are more than moderate level. Another finding in support of this BO situation is that it has not been related to the health workers' occupation. Interestingly, our participants' age sustains a desirable LMX pattern; the latter is a strong mediator both toward burnout and ultimately medical errors frequency. A tendency for a desirable level of ATEs on the job, especially physicians is also predominant. Having such positive ATEs provides a convenient opportunity to a lowered medical errors workplace. A future medical error improvement plan, e.g., retrieving findings of the study's regression analyses, needs to consider those factors predisposing medical errors, especially BO and WL. It is quite feasible to utilize our relatively low BO level in improving the medical errors strategy, in collaboration with other supportive measures, such as thrusting the organization's staff communication, and an employee reward system for commitment to quality recommendations and immediate reporting of error incidents. Prevention of medical errors should go simultaneously with any measures contemplated to treat the prospected medical errors situation. Accordingly a systematized plan incorporating all health workers and health services stakeholders to prevent errors using database from this research could be established. Particularly nursing overload should be handled with an utmost care in order to reduce the possibility of nursing errors, e.g., investing in preparing quality nursing cadres and offering generous incentives and career promotion opportunities for distinguished calibers. Finally, among the methods to alleviate the consequences of medical errors incidents is medical malpractice insurance. Physicians and some other health professions in Egypt are encouraged to sustain an appropriate insurance to pay off any claims and settle lawsuits brought by harmed patients. However, malpractice insurance is not the radical solution for medical errors. It may pay a portion of the cost of harm and disabilities incurred as a result of the providers' malpractice, yet, it does not restore lost lives or restore trust in the health system which could not guard its affiliates against errors and did not provide an adequate climate for an error-protected environment.

Future research on the pattern and determinants of medical errors in the Cairo health institutions, probably utilizing a hybrid methodological approach, such as sampling the medical records for detailed clinical information, reviewing morbidity and mortality reports, and interviewing stakeholders, including administrative and technical staff, may be included. A future qualitative research project where patients, and probably health practitioners in parallel are interviewed, their opinions, wants, needs and demands for a safe care environment are identified is also advised.

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