

RESEARCH

Open Access



# Burnout, stress and resilience of an Australian regional hospital during COVID-19: a longitudinal study

Samantha J. Armstrong<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Joanne E. Porter<sup>2</sup>, Jo-Ann Larkins<sup>2</sup> and Christopher Mesagno<sup>1,2</sup>

## Abstract

Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has placed huge strain on hospital staff around the world. The aim of the current longitudinal study was to investigate the resilience, stress and burnout of hospital staff located at a large, regional hospital in Victoria, Australia during the COVID-19 pandemic over time via cross-sectional surveys. The surveys were disseminated six times from August 2020 to March 2021, with the first three data collection points distributed during a state-wide lockdown. A total of 558 responses from various professional roles within the hospital over the survey period were included in the sample. Analysis of variance indicated significant main effects for the psychological variables across time, age, and workload. Hospital staff reported an increase in burnout levels throughout the eight-months. Significant negative relationships were observed between resilience and burnout, and between resilience and stress. A backward regression highlighted the contribution of resilience, stress, age, and nursing roles on burnout. Hierarchical regression analysis indicated that resilience contributed to the stress-burnout relationship. This study strengthens the evidence between resilience and burnout among healthcare workers and hospital staff and highlights the need for psychological wellbeing programs to be implemented for hospital staff impacted by a prolonged worldwide pandemic.

**Keywords:** Psychological resilience, Stress resilience, Nursing, Hospital, COVID-19

## Background

The year 2020 saw the declaration of the worldwide pandemic Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). By December 2021, there were 276 million recorded COVID-19 cases; almost 5.3 million deaths recorded across 222 countries and territories since the pandemic began [1] with Australia reporting over 260,000 cases and over 2000 deaths [2]. Worldwide comparisons show Australia's COVID-19 morbidity and mortality rates are relatively low in the first year, however the pandemic placed significant strain on healthcare systems nationwide. Government mandated lockdowns (i.e., restrictions on

personal active transport and socialising) to prevent the spread of COVID-19 were implemented in some Australian states. The first 'wave' of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 occurred in March/April and was accompanied by the first lockdown period in Victoria from the 31st of March to the 31st of May. The second 'wave' appeared in June to September and lockdown was from the 6th of August to the 9th<sup>th</sup> of November and was considered to be the height of the pandemic for the year 2020 and by the end of the year, there were approximately 28,500 cases of COVID-19 [3]. The following year (2021) fluctuated with COVID-19 waves of infection, though these waves occurred outside the scope of this project. Researchers have shown that lockdowns result in poorer mental health for individuals worldwide [4–12] and also healthcare workers [13]. Australian populations have also

\*Correspondence: [Samantha.armstrong@vu.edu.au](mailto:Samantha.armstrong@vu.edu.au)

<sup>1</sup> Victoria University, 70/104 Ballarat Rd, Footscray, VIC 3011, Australia  
Full list of author information is available at the end of the article



© The Author(s) 2022. **Open Access** This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons licence, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons licence, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons licence and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated in a credit line to the data.

suffered psychologically from the enforced lockdowns [14–21], including those within the health care system such as nurses, physicians, and allied health staff [22].

Burnout and stress are familiar terminology and often used synonymously, especially during COVID-19. Stress is defined as any non-specific demand that can affect a person's physiological and psychological bodily processes, resulting in our ability or inability to cope and can lead to psychophysiological vulnerability or thriving [23]. Burnout is the accumulation of stress over time and is characterised by feelings of mental and physical exhaustion, negative attitude, and feeling like workplace goals are unachievable [24–26]. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, a review of Australian hospital (nursing) staff highlighted moderate to high levels of stress and burnout [27], particularly staff working in emergency departments [28, 29]. Burnout is more prominent in younger populations within hospital settings [30]. Staff in metropolitan hospitals were also more likely to suffer from symptoms of stress and burnout compared to regional hospitals [31, 32].

During the COVID-19 pandemic, hospital staff, including physicians, nurses, administration, and human resources were under pressure to prepare and manage the personal and occupational consequences of COVID-19. Hospital staff, particularly frontline staff (i.e., working in the COVID-19 hospital wards) and emergency department personnel [33, 34], were at a higher risk of contracting COVID-19 compared to the general population [35–37]. In Australia, healthcare workers were subjected to three times the risk of infection compared to the general population during the first 6 months of the pandemic [38]. Victoria had the highest infection rates when compared to other states during the second wave of the virus (August 2020), which saw 3500 healthcare worker infections [39, 40]. In response to COVID-19, some hospitals within Australia became designated COVID-19 hospitals, with any person suspected of, or confirmed to have, COVID-19 transported to a COVID-19 hospital. As COVID-19 symptoms are similar to many other illnesses (e.g., influenza), the caseload for hospital staff significantly increased for potential COVID-19 infected persons. This contributed to the strain on the healthcare system, and in addition significantly impacted the health and wellbeing of hospital staff.

Multiple factors contributed to poor psychological wellbeing of hospital staff. For both clinical and non-clinical staff, COVID-19 forced changes to procedural and working conditions such as the introduction of retraining programs, which increased staff workload [41]. Hospital staff contended with the fear of virus transmission to family members [42–44] and a limited availability of personal protective equipment [45]. The closure of education

centres, such as schools and pre-school learning centres, meant healthcare workers with children could no longer work their regular employment hours [46]. Similar to other countries, the COVID-19 changes adversely affected the mental health of hospital staff resulting in increased levels of stress, anxiety, depression and burnout [42, 47–51], particularly frontline hospital staff [48, 52] and nurses [48, 53, 54]. Medical/clinical healthcare personnel demonstrated poorer mental health outcomes in comparison to non-medical healthcare personnel during COVID-19 [55, 56].

Poor mental health as a consequence of the pandemic prompted further government initiatives to promote positive psychological and physiological health and wellbeing within the workplace such as the Healthcare Worker Infection Prevention and Wellbeing Program implemented in November 2020. One of the aims of the health and wellbeing programs was to build personal resilience among the workforces. Whilst resilience has become a 'buzzword' in recent years, its importance has never been more pertinent in a time of a pandemic. Whilst the operational definition of stress resilience is contentious, researchers propose that stress resilience emphasises both the psychological and physiological stress processes that encourages positive and/or negative adaptations in the face of adversity, which can lead to optimised psychophysiological functioning or psychophysiological vulnerability [57–60]. An individual's level of stress resilience is founded upon their adaptability to the current situation and based on what they have learned from previous experience [61]. An individual's resilience, stress, and burnout levels are practically and theoretically dependent. Researchers found that hospital personnel with high levels of resilience are more able to manage and overcome workplace stress [62–65]. Additionally, individuals that indicate lower levels of stress and moderate to high levels of resilience are less likely to suffer from burnout [66, 67]. In addition, individuals that suffer from burnout are more likely to consider job resignation [68] and hospital staff that present with greater resilience show better workplace longevity [69, 70]. Researchers have suggested that older individuals are more resilient to occupational stress [71] and COVID-19-related stressors [22, 51]. One possible reason for these results might be that greater workplace experience is linked to greater resilience [72]. Thus, as age increases, exposure to workplace stressors increase, which may help develop psychological resilience. Peripherally, age appears to be an optimising factor for resilience. Furthermore, workload can influence stress and burnout; hospital staff that work long hours exhibit higher stress and their feelings of resilience are limited in comparison to staff working less hours [73]. Workload is positively correlated with burnout [74, 75].

Whilst it is apparent that literature on stress, burnout and resilience amongst hospital-based health care workers (mainly physicians and nurses) is well researched, there appears to be limited investigation conducted on other workplace roles within these hospitals. Quantitative research that aims to contribute to the research lacuna and complement the existing data is warranted. Longitudinal research on COVID-19 is limited [76], with few time-series studies observing the effect of COVID-19 on the psychological wellbeing of healthcare workers [77–79], and minimal studies focused on Australian health workers. Therefore, collecting time-series data from hospital staff during a worldwide pandemic working from a regional, designated COVID-19 hospital over time can inform on the mental health of hospital staff for future pandemics. This paper will present findings of an eight-month stress resilience study within a large, regional hospital.

## Methods

### Participants

Participants were recruited from a large, regional hospital in Victoria, Australia and included staff across multiple divisions, including people and culture, clinical services, high acuity services, medical services, mental health services, education and training and information and regional services. A total of 648 responses were submitted across the six surveys and after data cleaning yielded a cumulative total of 558 hospital staff submissions that gave usable responses in the surveys. Declining response rates occurred over the six data collection points, with the surveys yielding 137 (August), 141 (September), 95 (October), 68 (November), 54 (December) and 63 (February/March) completed responses. Given an estimated hospital workforce available at time of sampling of 2000 employees, a power analysis suggested sample sizes of between 66 (at 90% confidence with a 10% margin of error) to 323 (at 95% confidence with a 5% margin of error). The number of responses for each sampling event are compatible with this range of estimates.

Overall, the sample across all surveys was female dominant (453), with 98 males, and seven participants that preferred to not say. Staff over the age of 40 made up 59.3% of the sample. For analysis, the participants that indicated their professional position within their workplace were split into three groups: nursing (emergency, midwifery), medical (physicians, anaesthetists), and other (all non-medical and non-nursing staff). Based on aggregated participant categories, data showed there were mostly nurses completing the surveys (243), although the other groups were relatively evenly spread (medical = 132, other = 152). The sample were mainly full-time hospital staff (407, 72.9%) with the remainder of participants

working part-time or casually employed (27.1%). The clinical services and mental health departments were the most engaged throughout data collection (299 submissions). Professional longevity within the workforce showed staff that had six or more years' experience in the field (46.9%) had the greatest engagement across the surveys, compared to staff who had two to 6 years' experience (25.3%), and less than 2 years' experience (27.5%) within their profession.

### Measures

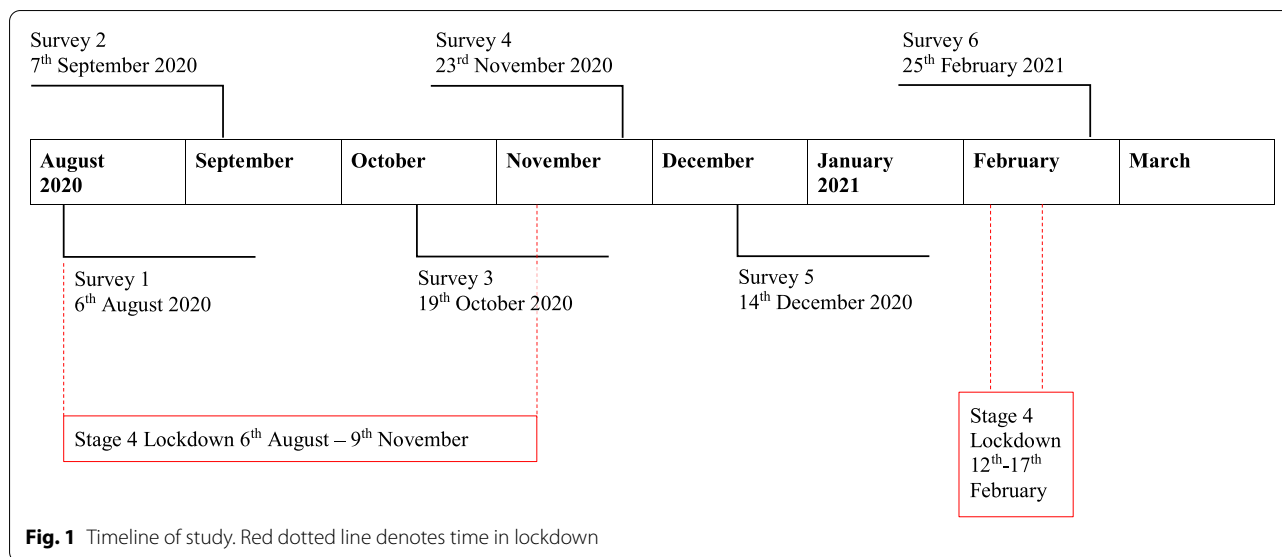
Basic demographic information included information of participants such as gender, age, professional role within the workplace, workload, and workplace longevity at the current hospital.

### Resilience

The Brief Resilience Scale (BRS; [80]) is a 6-item questionnaire designed to assess an individual's ability to recover from stressful circumstances [81]. Questions include *I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times*, and *I usually come through difficult times with little trouble*. Answers are provided on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Since the total is divided by the total number of items, the combined scores range from 1 to 5, with scores from 1.00–2.99 indicating low resilience, 3.00–4.30 moderate resilience, and 4.31–5.00 high resilience [82]. The scale displays acceptable internal consistency ( $\alpha = .80-.91$ ; Smith et al., 2008) and has been used internationally with psychometric support [81]. Test-retest reliability is adequate with an intraclass correlation of .69 over 4 weeks with 48 participants and .62 for 12 weeks with 61 participants [80]. Reliability analyses for the current sample were acceptable with a Cronbach's  $\alpha$  score of .86.

### Stress

Stress was assessed with the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; [83]), which is a 10-item questionnaire assessing an individual's level of stress within their current situation and feelings of control, including daily stressors to major events over the past month. An example question is, *In the last week, how often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?* Answers are provided on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (*never*) to 4 (*very often*). Items four, five, seven and eight are reverse scored, and the 10 items are summed for a total score. Scores range from 0 to 40 with higher scores indicating higher stress. Scores from 0 to 13 indicating low stress, 14–26 moderate stress, and 27–40 high stress levels. The PSS has good psychometric properties showing strong test-retest reliability ( $r = .90$  for a two-week interval [84]);, good internal consistency [85], and adequate



convergent and discriminant validity with other stress inventories [86]. Reliability analyses for the current sample were acceptable with a Cronbach's alpha score of .87.

### Burnout

The 14-item Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure (SMBM; [87]), a shortened version of the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Questionnaire [88], was used to assess symptoms of occupational burnout. Burnout is measured on three subscales: physical fatigue, emotional exhaustion, and cognitive weariness. Questions include *I am physically drained*, and *my thinking process is slow*. Minor changes were made to four questions on the SMBM. SMBM 4 wording was changed from 'dead' to 'flat' since consideration was given for emergency personnel managing hospital mortality. SMBM wording for questions 12, 13 and 14 was changed from "customers" to "patients" since using patients is better aligned with their workplace interactions. Items were measured on a Likert scale from 1 (*almost never*) to 7 (*almost always*). The SMBM scores were represented as the average of the 14 total items with higher scores reflecting high symptoms of burnout. The SMBM shows adequate internal consistency with majority of studies scoring a  $\alpha > 0.70$  [87, 89–91]. Regarding construct validity, the SMBM is well correlated with other reliable burnout measures, such as the Maslach Burnout Inventory and the Shirom-Melamed Burnout Questionnaire [88, 90]. Reliability analyses for the current sample were acceptable with a Cronbach's alpha score of .96.

### Procedure

Emails to participate in the study were facilitated by the Education and Research facility at the regional hospital.

The email contained an electronic link to the online survey. The survey comprised of a plain language information statement and by agreeing to complete and submit the survey, the participant agreed to full consent. Once the participant's survey was submitted, the data was unable to be withdrawn since all data collected was anonymous. The survey took 10 minutes to complete.

The surveys were disseminated by the director of research at the regional hospital to all staff members each month from August 2020 to March 2021 (with the exception of January). Each survey was accompanied by one reminder email before the closure date. There were six data extraction points over an eight-month period. The participants that chose to participate in each of the monthly surveys were submitted anonymously, and therefore participants could not be 'tracked' throughout the six data collection time-points. The months of February and March were combined due to low response rates in those months. Each survey was open for 1 week, with the exception of the last survey, which was open for 2 weeks across February and March. The first, second and third surveys were disseminated during the second government mandated lockdown period in Victoria, Australia. Subsequent surveys were conducted outside of the lockdown period. The beginning of 2021 suggested that the contagion level of COVID-19 within Australia was declining and therefore the study concluded survey distribution after the sixth survey (see Fig. 1 for survey dissemination timeline).

### Data analysis

Descriptive analysis was conducted to understand demographical trends on the main variables. A one-way, between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was

conducted to examine the changes in resilience, stress, and burnout over time (between groups variable). A multifactorial ANOVA was used to determine the impact of age, gender, workload, professional longevity, and work role within the hospital upon the dependent variables of resilience, stress, burnout and time. Spearman’s correlation coefficients were calculated to examine the relationships between variables. Backward multiple regression was used to assess significant factors that contributed to burnout. Finally, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to observe the mediating role of resilience on burnout. All statistical analyses were computed using SPSS (Version 26.0). Alpha was set at  $p < .05$  significance for all analyses and where applicable partial eta squared (partial  $\eta^2$ ) was used to measure effect sizes.

**Results**

**Data cleaning**

To manage missing data, a modified listwise deletion method was implemented, deleting completely random

cases with more than one test battery incomplete, rather than one or more missing value. Whilst Miettinen [92] suggested the latter method is the only approach to assure no bias has been introduced, Vach [93] postulates the draconian rules of listwise deletion limit the scope of the data and the method should be more reasoned and fluid, hence resulting in a modified data cleaning method. Cases removed (by data time point) from the total sample of 648 included: 25 (August), 31 (September), 9 (October), 15 (November), 1 (December), and 7 (February/ March). Mean replacement was not used for missing values as the missing item guidelines were exceeded on those occasions.

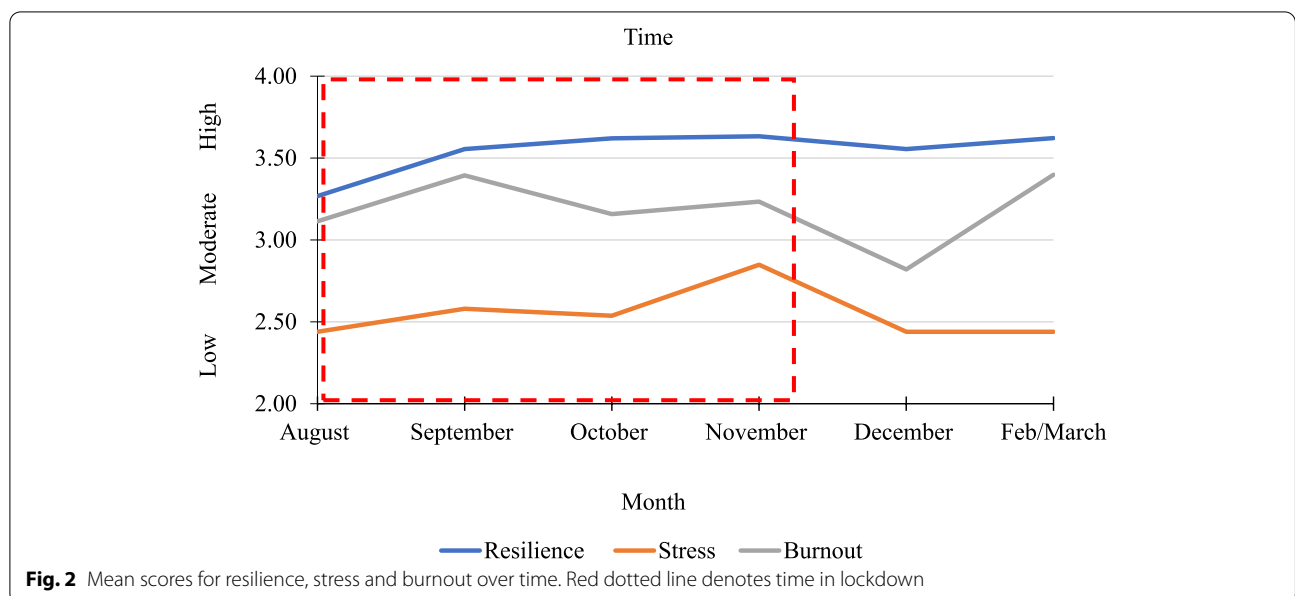
**Analysis of variance**

**Time**

Table 1 presents the means and standard deviations for resilience, stress and burnout over the six time points. For each of the six surveys, resilience and burnout scores indicate moderate levels that are comparable to general

**Table 1** Means and standard deviations for resilience, stress, and burnout across time

Time	Resilience				Stress				Burnout			
	M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max	M	SD	Min	Max
August	3.25	.69	1.83	5.00	24.30	6.57	10.00	40.00	3.14	1.14	1.00	6.93
September	3.52	.71	1.50	5.00	25.87	7.21	10.00	40.00	3.42	1.22	1.00	6.93
October	3.61	.69	2.00	5.00	25.02	6.77	10.00	40.00	3.10	1.25	1.21	6.86
November	3.65	.74	2.00	5.00	28.62	3.08	22.00	36.00	3.25	1.22	1.43	6.57
December	3.55	.58	2.33	5.00	23.94	6.50	11.00	39.00	2.87	1.04	1.00	5.64
February/March	3.58	.71	2.00	5.00	25.41	7.03	11.00	40.00	3.50	1.18	1.43	6.93



**Fig. 2** Mean scores for resilience, stress and burnout over time. Red dotted line denotes time in lockdown

population norms [80, 90]. Stress scores for the sample indicate moderate to high levels of stress [83]. Figure 2 shows the mean scores over time with corresponding lockdown periods.

The ANOVA showed a main effect for time and resilience,  $F(5, 505) = 4.09, p < .001$ , with a small Cohen [94] effect size (partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ ). Post-hoc comparisons using Tukey HSD indicated significant differences for August, indicating significantly lower resilience compared to all other data collection times. A significant main effect was evident for time and stress,  $F(5, 502) = 4.34, p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ . The month of November saw the highest stress scores compared to other data collection months with Tukey HSD identifying November significantly different from all months except February/March. A significant main effect was also found for burnout and time,  $F(5, 509) = 2.50, p < .05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .03$ . Hospital staff exhibited significantly higher scores for burnout for September compared to December data collection period, but no other significant differences were found.

**Age**

Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations for age across resilience, stress and burnout parameters. The ANOVA showed a main effect for age and resilience,  $F(6, 505) = 3.12, p < .005$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ . Significant differences on resilience scores were found for the 26–30 age bracket in comparison to the 31–35 age bracket, the 36–50 age bracket, the 41–50 age bracket and the 61–70 age bracket, but not the 21–25 age bracket or 51–60 age bracket showing the lower age group exhibiting lower resilience scores. A main effect was found for age and stress,  $F(6, 502) = 3.12, p < .005$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .04$ , whereby hospital staff in their low 30s [31–35] showed significantly higher scores on stress compared to staff aged 36 and above. A significant age main effect was found for age and burnout,  $F(6, 509) = 6.35, p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .07$ , highlighting that staff aged 31–35 showed greater burnout scores compared to the 26–30 age bracket, the

36–40 age bracket, the 41–50 age bracket, the 51–60 age bracket and the 61–70 age bracket, although not the 21–25 age bracket.

**Workload**

The ANOVA showed a main effect for workload and resilience,  $F(5, 505) = 5.02, p < .001$ , partial  $\eta^2 = .05$ , with higher resilience scores for hospital staff at a higher workload capacity. Whilst all staff indicated a moderate level of resilience across different workloads, a significant difference was evident between full-time staff ( $M = 3.65, SD = 0.71$ ) and staff working .4 EFT ( $M = 3.27, SD = 0.64$ ), .6EFT ( $M = 3.33, SD = 0.72$ ) and .8EFT ( $M = 3.53, SD = 0.66$ ), respectively. No significant results were found for stress,  $F(5, 502) = .87, p > .05$ , or burnout,  $F(5, 490) = .95, p > .05$ , across workload.

**Workplace position**

The ANOVA indicated no main effects for workplace position for resilience,  $F(2, 505) = .04, p > .05$ , stress,  $F(2, 502) = 1.27, p > .05$ , or burnout,  $F(2, 490) = .30, p > .05$ .

**Correlations**

A Spearman’s bivariate correlational analysis was conducted to explore the relationships between age, workload, resilience, stress, and burnout (Table 3). There was a small, significant positive relationship between age and resilience,  $\rho = .14, n = 556, p < .01$ . Significant negative relationships were found for age and stress,  $\rho = .14, n = 553, p < .01$ , and age and burnout,  $\rho = .19, n = 539, p < .01$ , although both relationships indicated weak associations according to Cohen [94]. Significant, weak positive relationships were prevalent for workload and resilience,  $\rho = .20, n = 556, p < .01$ . Moderate, negative associations were observed between resilience and stress,  $\rho = -.30, n = 555, p < .01$  and resilience and burnout,

**Table 2** Means and standard deviations for age across resilience, stress, and burnout parameters

Age	Resilience		Stress		Burnout	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
21–25 (n = 33)	3.28	.70	27.85	6.73	3.5	1.22
26–30 (n = 71)	3.22	.69	26.33	6.63	3.32	1.03
31–35 (n = 66)	3.54	.77	27.85	7.11	3.99	1.40
36–40 (n = 55)	3.58	.56	24.51	6.70	3.26	1.16
41–50 (n = 128)	3.58	.74	24.80	6.84	3.11	1.14
51–60 (n = 153)	3.45	.71	24.95	6.11	3.04	1.16
61–70 (n = 50)	3.69	.58	23.68	5.70	2.80	.94

**Table 3** Correlation matrix (Spearman) for gender, age, workload, position, resilience, stress and burnout

	Gender	Age	Workload	Position	Resilience	Stress	Burnout
Gender	–	-.13** (n = 550)	-.17** (n = 549)	-.13** (n = 520)	-.08* (n = 551)	.01 (n = 548)	.06 (n = 534)
Age		–	-.01 (n = 554)	.14** (n = 524)	.14** (n = 556)	-.14** (n = 553)	-.19** (n = 539)
Workload			–	.24** (n = 526)	.20** (n = 539)	-.04 (n = 553)	-.05 (n = 539)
Position				–	.05 (n = 526)	.03 (n = 523)	-.09* (n = 511)
Resilience					–	-.30** (n = 555)	-.36** (n = 541)
Stress						–	.58** (n = 540)
Burnout							–

\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed); \*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

$r_{ho} = -.36$ ,  $n = 541$ ,  $p = .01$ . The strongest, positive relationship was evident between stress and burnout,  $r_{ho} = .58$ ,  $n = 541$ ,  $p < .01$ .

### Regressions

A backward multiple regression analysis was conducted to determine which variables significantly contributed to burnout (Table 4). The variables age, gender, workload, position within the hospital (medical and nursing dummy variables), stress, and resilience were entered into the model and explained 38.3% of the variance toward burnout,  $R^2 = .383$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .374$ ,  $F(7, 485) = 42.95$ ,  $p < .001$ . Step 2 removed gender from the model, and Step 3 removed medical position from the model with both steps explaining the same variance percentage as Step 1. Step 4 removed workload explaining 38.1% of the variance towards burnout,  $R^2 = .381$ , adjusted  $R^2 = .376$ ,  $F(4, 488) = 75.01$ ,  $p < .001$ . Unstandardised ( $B$ ) and standardised ( $\beta$ ) regression coefficients, and square semi-partial or 'part' correlations ( $sr^2$ ) for each predictor are reported in Table 4.

### Discussion

The purpose of this study was to observe the psychological wellbeing of Australian regional hospital staff across six data time points over eight months of the COVID-19 pandemic. The primary aims were to examine psychological parameters of hospital staff and to provide insight on the health-related consequences of COVID-19 over time related to resilience, stress and burnout and the contribution of resilience and stress on burnout.

#### Burnout's crescendo

Based on the unprecedented chronic nature of COVID-19, it is not surprising that hospital staff burnout rates increased during this longitudinal study. Despite the low mortality rates in Australia compared to other countries, the psychological wellbeing of hospital staff is in peril. The increasing rates of burnout symptoms may be attributed to fear of contagion [95], perception of workplace

support [96], or prolonged anticipation of a disaster in a constantly changing environment [97], suggesting a constant state of psychological alertness and fear of the high mortality rates among healthcare workers globally [98]. Since these attributions are largely speculative, more research is necessary to determine the most accurate cause.

#### Associations with COVID-19 lockdown

It was presumed that high stress and burnout symptoms would parallel with the COVID-19 lockdown time periods. This was partially supported. Firstly, burnout scores were similar across the three and a half months of lockdown, with September (middle of lockdown) showing the highest scores for burnout of hospital staff. There were differences in burnout scores between September and December, providing a comparison between lockdown and non-lockdown periods. These results are similar to Smallwood et al's [22] cross-sectional study on 9518 Australian healthcare workers that coincided with the second Melbourne lockdown (September to October) who found participants with high scores in resilience still experienced high burnout. Yet the current study's burnout scores were less severe. Smallwood et al. suggested that resilience may not assist in protecting individuals from psychological vulnerability during COVID-19, which corresponds with the current results that resilience had a small but worthy contribution towards burnout compared to stress. November burnout scores were similar to scores during lockdown period. Unexpectedly, the highest burnout scores were seen during the months of February/March, at the end of the data collection period. When this study was initially developed, the extended duration of this pandemic was not considered, and emphasis was on lockdown periods having the greatest impact on stress and burnout. In hindsight, the prolonged duration of the pandemic has meant healthcare workers are enduring chronic states of workplace burnout. Speculatively, that may be why burnout scores

**Table 4** Results of backward method standard regression analysis (Dependent Variable- Burnout)

Variable	Step 1				Step 2				Step 3				Step 4			
	B	Lower	Upper	sr <sup>2</sup>	B	Lower	Upper	sr <sup>2</sup>	B	Lower	Upper	sr <sup>2</sup>	B	Lower	Upper	sr <sup>2</sup>
BRS	-.28**	-.40	-.15	-.16	-.28**	-.40	-.15	-.16	-.28**	-.40	-.15	-.16	-.26**	-.38	-.14	-.15
PSS	.10**	.08	.11	.51	.10**	.08	.11	.53	.10**	.08	.11	.54	.10**	.08	.11	.54
Age	-.06*	-.10	-.01	-.08	-.06*	-.10	-.01	-.08	-.06*	-.10	-.01	-.08	.06*	-.12	-.01	-.09
Nursing	.20	-.01	.40	.08	.20	-.01	.40	.08	.18*	.01	.35	.08	.16	-.01	.33	.07
Workload	.05	-.03	.14	.06	.05	-.03	.14	.05	.05	-.14	-.02	.04				
Medical	.03	-.20	.26	.01	.03	-.20	.26	.01								
Gender	-.00	-.26	.22	.00												
R	.62				.62				.62				.62			
R <sup>2</sup>	.38				.38				.38				.38			
?R <sup>2</sup>	.38**				.00				.00				.00			
N	508															
CI Confidence interval																

\* p < .05; \*\* p < .00. BRS Brief Resilience Scale; PSS Perceived Stress Scale



were high during the last survey. Smallwood et al. [22] concluded that the moderate to severe burnout rates across healthcare workers in Australia are not surprising considering the prolonged duration of the pandemic coupled with the multiple, enforced lockdown restrictions. Secondly, for stress, significant differences were seen between lockdown and non-lockdown periods, with November (a non-lockdown period) indicating the highest stress scores, while August and October (during lockdown) showing lower stress scores. Two small cross-sectional studies conducted outside of lockdown in metropolitan Melbourne hospital staff during COVID-19 (from April to June 2020) indicated low to moderate levels of stress [99] and burnout [65]. Based on the timeline of the aforementioned studies, and the current study's data collection timeline, an accumulative effect upon stress levels for hospital staff and healthcare workers may have occurred; as the pandemic duration increases, stress increases potentially contributing to an increased rate of burnout.

### Correlations

It was hypothesised that there would be a negative correlation between resilience and stress and resilience and burnout. As expected, there were significant moderate, negative associations between resilience and stress, and resilience and burnout. The observed relationships and strength between variables are consistent with previous findings on nursing populations [67, 100–103]. Furthermore, as age increased, resilience also increased across the time points, complementing past research [22, 51, 71]. Although, no significant findings were exhibited for age on stress and burnout for the current study. This is contradictory to past research which highlights a significantly higher prevalence of burnout for younger nursing staff under 30 years of age [104]. A meta-analysis by Brewer and Shapard [105] showed a strong positive correlation between age and burnout which was not evident in our current results.

### Staff workload during a pandemic

It was presumed that hospital staff with a greater workload would indicate higher stress and burnout with corresponding lower resilience levels. Contradictorily, hospital staff with a higher workload showed significantly greater resilience than staff working part-time. This finding is inconsistent with other research [73] that found long hours and shift work negatively impacted their personal resilience, although this research was not conducted during a pandemic. Further correlational analyses indicated age and level of experience were evenly distributed across workload classifications and therefore did not contribute valuable information as to why the hypothesis was not

supported. A cross-sectional study on the experiences of Australian nurses during COVID-19 indicated that there was a decrease in work hours and clinical tasks during the height of COVID-19 [106]. This may account for the current study results, whereby full-time staff may have experienced a reduced workload, indicating why greater resilience was apparent for full-time workers. Part-time staff are more likely to have young families [107] and the closure of schools led to children completing their schoolwork from home. Home schooling may have increased the workload for part-time hospital staff and may also suggest why their resilience levels were significantly lower than their full-time colleagues. In addition, individuals working part-time may have normally used their spare time to engage in leisure and social activities, which has been shown to improve psychological well-being [108, 109], but since these activities were limited during lockdown, this may have affected part-time staff resilience levels.

### Clinical versus non-clinical

It was expected that clinical hospital staff (nurses and physicians) would indicate greater stress and burnout compared to other hospital staff members. Contrary to the hypothesis, there were no statistically significant differences among hospital staff for resilience, stress and burnout. A recent study on healthcare workers during COVID-19 found no differences between physician or nurse's levels of stress (or depression) and in addition, no associations were identified between poor mental health outcomes and staff involved in treatment of COVID-19 patients in comparison to staff involved in other non-COVID-19-related hospital duties [51]. This is consistent with additional research on professional roles of hospital staff (clinical or other) during COVID-19 [65]. The current results suggest that regardless of position within the hospital, and despite direct involvement with COVID-19 patients, hospital staff as a group experience similar rates of stress and burnout. All staff may interact with a COVID-19 patient, have a fear of contagion, and the limitation of social support due to implemented lockdowns may contribute to stress and burnout, regardless of their professional role within the hospital workplace.

### Limitations

Whilst the current findings present a snapshot of hospital staff during COVID-19, there are limitations that must be considered when drawing conclusions. Firstly, the study was cross-sectional therefore difficult to interpret the data changes 'across time' since we could not track within-subjects data throughout the six data collection points. Ideally, a repeated-measures within-subjects design across six time-points would

have generated more informative data sets regarding interpretation ‘over time.’ Though, this was not possible with the current sample. Secondly, the declining, modest response rates throughout the data collection time points temper conclusions regarding the representativeness of the current findings. Lower response rates may have been due to survey fatigue. Lastly, due to the unexpected nature of a healthcare disaster, we were unable to obtain baseline data to compare before COVID-19 began, but instead, data could be collected post-COVID-19 to determine the resilience, stress, and burnout levels when the COVID-19 threat subsides (when vaccination rates increase).

### Implications

The findings of this study present additional avenues for further research. Because stress resilience is a multidimensional construct, it is important to determine the core components of stress resilience and how it is then reflected and measured within the research. In addition, the current study assessed the contributory effect of resilience on burnout using time-point cross-sectional data, thus future research should consider a within-subjects longitudinal study as this will strengthen the assumptions of resilience contributing to psychological optimisation. Research during a pandemic should also obtain further personal participant information to better inform further contributory factors that may impact psychological wellbeing such as, family situation, financial distress, and any pre-existing mental health conditions. In addition, a more extensive examination of workplace roles during a pandemic (compared to regular professional roles before a pandemic) would provide further insight on the impact of a pandemic on individuals working within the hospitals. Within a pandemic situation, it would be useful to compare a designated COVID-19 hospital with a non-COVID-19, creating a potential control group for comparison.

### Conclusion

Whilst mindful of the cross-sectional design of the current study, hospital staff showed a moderate level of burnout throughout the six data collection points of this study, though data shows symptoms of burnout are steadily increasing. Due to a lack of longitudinal research, it is unknown whether the psychological health of Australian healthcare workers is worsening, yet it can be assumed that the healthcare population will follow similar global trends presenting poor mental health outcomes as time progresses. Hospital staff showed high stress during the month of November, yet thankfully other data collection time-points showed moderate levels of stress. Additionally, the current data contends younger

hospital staff are at a greater risk of burnout which is concerning as younger hospital staff in the current study showed lower resilience compared to older staff working a part-time load. Hospital staff would benefit from supportive interventions for the current pandemic and during future healthcare crises and strategies attempting to improve the psychological health of hospital staff could target younger populations. Resilience training programs may assist in the prevention of workplace burnout and psychosocial interventions may assist with halting the decline of burnout of hospital workers during COVID-19. Further longitudinal data during and post-COVID-19 is required to ascertain the effect of a pandemic on the psychological health of our sorely needed healthcare professionals and hospital staff.

### Abbreviations

BRS: Brief Resilience Scale; COVID-19: Corona-virus disease 2019; PSS: Perceived Stress Scale; SMBM: Shirom-Melamed Burnout Measure.

### Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to the Australia regional hospital staff who participated in the survey over the eight-month period. Additionally, to all the hospital staff who have worked tirelessly to keep us all safe throughout this pandemic, we thank you. Thank you, Brendan O'Brien, for your support and feedback through earlier drafts of this manuscript.

### Authors' contributions

Conceptualisation and design: S. A., C. M., J. P. Analysis and interpretation: S. A., J. L. Editing: S. A., C. M., J. P., J. L. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

### Funding

Open Access funding enabled and organized by CAUL and its Member Institutions. This research was supported by an Australian Government Research Training Program (RTP) Stipend and RTP Fee-Offset Scholarship through Federation University Australia, and Victoria University, Australia.

### Availability of data and materials

The data that support the findings of this study are available from Latrobe Regional Hospital, but restrictions apply to the availability of these data which were used under license for the current study, and so are not publicly available. Data are however available from the authors upon reasonable request and with permission of Latrobe Regional Hospital.

### Declarations

#### Ethics approval and consent to participate

Ethical clearance was approved by Latrobe Regional Hospital Human Research Ethics committee (Project number: 2020-16) and Federation University Human Research Ethics committee (Project number: E20-011) and qualified as low-risk. All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations. Full informed consent was agreed by all participants that completed and submitted the survey.

#### Consent for publication

Not applicable.

#### Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### Author details

<sup>1</sup>Victoria University, 70/104 Ballarat Rd, Footscray, VIC 3011, Australia. <sup>2</sup>Federation University, University Dr, Mount Helen, VIC 3350, Australia.

Received: 9 April 2022 Accepted: 26 July 2022  
Published online: 02 September 2022

## References

- World Health Organisation. Weekly epidemiological update on COVID-19 2021. Available from: [www.who.int/publications/m/item/weekly-epidemiological-update-on-covid-19-21-december-2021](http://www.who.int/publications/m/item/weekly-epidemiological-update-on-covid-19-21-december-2021). Cited 2022 Jan 5.
- Australian Government Department of Health. Coronavirus (COVID-19) case numbers and statistics. 2021. Available from: [www.health.gov.au/news/health-alerts/novel-coronavirus-2019-ncov-health-alert/coronavirus-covid-19-case-numbers-and-statistics](http://www.health.gov.au/news/health-alerts/novel-coronavirus-2019-ncov-health-alert/coronavirus-covid-19-case-numbers-and-statistics). Cited 2021 Dec 20.
- Health Alo, Welfare. The first year of COVID-19 in Australia: direct and indirect health effects. Canberra: AIHW; 2021.
- Baloch GM, Sundarasan S, Chinnna K, Nurunnabi M, Kamaludin K, Khoshaim HB, et al. COVID-19: exploring impacts of the pandemic and lockdown on mental health of Pakistani students. *PeerJ*. 2021;9:e10612. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.10612>.
- Benke C, Autenrieth LK, Asselmann E, Pane-Farre CA. Stay-at-home orders due to the COVID-19 pandemic are associated with elevated depression and anxiety in younger, but not older adults: results from a nationwide community sample of adults from Germany. *Psychol Med*. 2020;1-2. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291720003438>.
- Voss G, Paiva AF, Delerue MA. A study of the association between the stringency of Covid-19 government measures and depression in older adults across Europe and Israel. *Int J Environ Res*. 2021;18(15):8017. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18158017>.
- Bruno G, Panzeri A, Granzoli U, Alivernini F, Chirico A, Galli F, et al. The Italian COVID-19 psychological research consortium (IT C19PRC): general overview and replication of the UK study. *J Clin Med*. 2021;10(1):52. <https://doi.org/10.3390/jcm10010052>.
- Lee SA. How much "thinking" about COVID-19 is clinically dysfunctional? *Brain Behav Immun*. 2020;87:97–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2020.04.067>.
- Patrick SW, Henkhaus LE, Zickafoose JS, Lovell K, Halvorson A, Loch S, et al. Well-being of parents and children during the COVID-19 pandemic: a national survey. *Pediatrics*. 2020;146(4):e2020016824. <https://doi.org/10.1542/peds.2020-016824>.
- Pierce M, Hope H, Ford T, Hatch S, Hotopf M, John A, et al. Mental health before and during the COVID-19 pandemic: a longitudinal probability sample survey of the UK population. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2020;7(10):883–92. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30308-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30308-4).
- Twenge JM, Joiner TE. Mental distress among U.S. adults during the COVID-19 pandemic. *J Clin Psychol*. 2020;76(12):2170–82. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.23064>.
- Zacher H, Rudolph CW. Individual differences and changes in subjective wellbeing during the early stages of the COVID-19 pandemic. *Am Psychol*. 2021;76(1):50–62. <https://doi.org/10.1037/amp0000702>.
- Saraswathi I, Saikarthik J, Senthil Kumar K, Madhan Srinivasan K, Ardhanaari M, Gunapriya R. Impact of COVID-19 outbreak on the mental health status of undergraduate medical students in a COVID-19 treating medical college: a prospective longitudinal study. *PeerJ*. 2020;8:e10164. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.10164>.
- Li SH, Beames JR, Newby JM, Maston K, Christensen H, Werner-Seidler A. The impact of COVID-19 on the lives and mental health of Australian adolescents. *Eur Child Adolesc Psychiatry*. 2021. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-021-01790-x>.
- Newby JM, O'Moore K, Tang S, Christensen H, Faasse K. Acute mental health responses during the COVID-19 pandemic in Australia. *Plos One*. 2020;15(7):e0236562. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0236562>.
- Fisher JR, Tran TD, Hammarberg K, Sastry J, Nguyen H, Rowe H, et al. Mental health of people in Australia in the first month of COVID-19 restrictions: a national survey. *Med J Aust*. 2020;213(10):458–64. <https://doi.org/10.5694/mja2.50831>.
- van Agteren J, Bartholomaeus J, Fassnacht DB, Iasiello M, Ali K, Lo L, et al. Using internet-based psychological measurement to capture the deteriorating community mental health profile during COVID-19: observational study. *JMIR Ment Health*. 2020;7(6). <https://doi.org/10.2196/20696>.
- Rossell SL, Neill E, Phillipou A, Tan EJ, Toh WL, Van Rheenen TE, et al. An overview of current mental health in the general population of Australia during the COVID-19 pandemic: results from the COLLATE project. *Psychiatry Res*. 2021;296:113660. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.113660>.
- Stanton R, To QG, Khalesi S, Williams SL, Alley SJ, Thwaite TL, et al. Depression, anxiety and stress during COVID-19: associations with changes in physical activity, sleep, tobacco and alcohol use in Australian adults. *Int J Environ Res*. 2020;17(11):4065. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph17114065>.
- Sameer AS, Khan MA, Nissar S, Banday MZ. Assessment of mental health and various coping strategies among general population living under imposed COVID-lockdown across world: A cross-sectional study. *Ethics Med Public Health*. 2020;15:100571. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jemep.2020.100571>.
- Biddle N, Edwards B, Gray M, Sollis K. Initial impacts of COVID-19 on mental health in Australia: ANU Centre for Social Research Methods; 2020. <https://doi.org/10.26193/HLMZNW>.
- Smallwood N, Karimi L, Bismark M, Putland M, Johnson D, Dharmage SC, et al. High levels of psychosocial distress among Australian frontline healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic: a cross-sectional survey. *Gen Psychiatr*. 2021;34(5):e100577. <https://doi.org/10.1136/gpsych-2021-100577>.
- Chrousos George P, Kino T. Interactive Functional Specificity of the Stress and Immune Responses: The Ying, the Yang, and the Defense against 2 Major Classes of Bacteria. *J Infect Dis*. 2005;192(4):551–5. <https://doi.org/10.1086/432135>.
- Bianchi R, Schonfeld IS, Laurent E. Is burnout a depressive disorder? A re-examination with special focus on atypical depression. *Int J Stress Manag*. 2014;21(4):307. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0037906>.
- Embricaco N, Papazian L, Kentish-Barnes N, Pochard F, Azoulay E. Burnout syndrome among critical care healthcare workers. *Curr Opin in Crit Care*. 2007;13(5):482–8. <https://doi.org/10.1097/MCC.0b013e3282efd28a>.
- Arora M, Asha S, Chinnappa J, Diwan AD. Review article: burnout in emergency medicine physicians. *Emerg Med Australas*. 2013;25(6):491–5. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1742-6723.12135>.
- Badu E, O'Brien AP, Mitchell R, Rubin M, James C, McNeil K, et al. Workplace stress and resilience in the Australian nursing workforce: a comprehensive integrative review. *Int J Ment Health Nurs*. 2020;29(1):5–34. <https://doi.org/10.1111/inm.12662>.
- Shanafelt TD, Boone S, Tan L, Dyrbye LN, Sotile W, Satele D, et al. Burnout and satisfaction with work-life balance among US physicians relative to the general US population. *Arch Intern Med*. 2012;172(18):1377–85. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archinternmed.2012.3199>.
- Potter C. To what extent do nurses and physicians working within the emergency department experience burnout: a review of the literature. *Australas Emerg Nurs J*. 2006;9(2):57–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aenj.2006.03.006>.
- Holland PJ, Allen BC, Cooper BK. Reducing burnout in Australian nurses: the role of employee direct voice and managerial responsiveness. *Int J Hum Resour Manag*. 2013;24(16):3146–62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.775032>.
- Clough BA, Ireland MJ, Leane S, March S. Stressors and protective factors among regional and metropolitan Australian medical doctors: a mixed methods investigation. *J Clin Psychol*. 2020;76(7):1362–89. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.22940>.
- Opie T, Lenthall S, Wakerman J, MacLeod M, Knight S, Rickard G, et al. Occupational stress in the Australian nursing workforce: a comparison between hospital-based nurses and nurses working in very remote communities. *Aust J Adv Nurs*. 2011;28(4):36.
- Gomez-Ochoa SA, Franco OH, Rojas LZ, Raguindin PF, Roa-Diaz ZM, Wyssmann BM, et al. COVID-19 in health-care workers: a living systematic review and meta-analysis of prevalence, risk factors, clinical characteristics, and outcomes. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2021;190(1):161–75. <https://doi.org/10.1093/aje/kwaa191>.
- Eyre DW, Lumley SF, O'Donnell D, Campbell M, Sims E, Lawson E, et al. Differential occupational risks to healthcare workers from SARS-CoV-2 observed during a prospective observational study. *Elife*. 2020;9:e60675. <https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.60675>.

35. Keeley AJ, Evans C, Colton H, Ankcorn M, Cope A, State A, et al. Roll-out of SARS-CoV-2 testing for healthcare workers at a large NHS Foundation Trust in the United Kingdom, March 2020. *Euro Surveill.* 2020;25(14). <https://doi.org/10.2807/1560-7917.ES.2020.25.14.2000433>.
36. Hunter E, Price DA, Murphy E, van der Loeff IS, Baker KF, Lendrem D, et al. First experience of COVID-19 screening of health-care workers in England. *Lancet.* 2020;395(10234):e77–e8. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30970-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30970-3).
37. Nguyen LH, Drew DA, Graham MS, Joshi AD, Guo CG, Ma W, et al. Risk of COVID-19 among front-line health-care workers and the general community: a prospective cohort study. *Lancet Public Health.* 2020;5(9):e475–e83. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667\(20\)30164-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2468-2667(20)30164-X).
38. Quigley AL, Stone H, Nguyen PY, Chughtai AA, MacIntyre CR. Estimating the burden of COVID-19 on the Australian healthcare workers and health system during the first six months of the pandemic. *Int J Nurs Stud.* 2021;114:103811. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2020.103811>.
39. Buising KL, Williamson D, Cowie BC, MacLachlan J, Orr E, MacIsaac C, et al. A hospital-wide response to multiple outbreaks of COVID-19 in health care workers: lessons learned from the field. *Med J Aust.* 2021;214(3):101–4 e1. <https://doi.org/10.5694/mja2.50850>.
40. Victorian State Government Health and Human Services. Victorian healthcare worker coronavirus (COVID-19) data. 2020 Available from: [www.dhhs.vic.gov.au/victorian-healthcare-worker-covid-19-data](http://www.dhhs.vic.gov.au/victorian-healthcare-worker-covid-19-data).
41. Lee CCM, Thampi S, Lewin B, Lim TJD, Rippin B, Wong WH, et al. Battling COVID-19: critical care and peri-operative healthcare resource management strategies in a tertiary academic medical centre in Singapore. *Anaesthesia.* 2020;75(7):861–71. <https://doi.org/10.1111/anae.15074>.
42. Pappa S, Ntella V, Giannakas T, Giannakoulis VG, Papoutsis E, Katsaounou P. Prevalence of depression, anxiety, and insomnia among healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2020;88:901–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2020.05.026>.
43. Shanafelt T, Ripp J, Trockel M. Understanding and addressing sources of anxiety among health care professionals during the COVID-19 pandemic. *JAMA.* 2020;323(21):2133–4. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jama.2020.5893>.
44. Wallace CL, Wladkowski SP, Gibson A, White P. Grief during the COVID-19 pandemic: considerations for palliative care providers. *J Pain Symptom Manag.* 2020;60(1):e70–e6. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpainsymman.2020.04.012>.
45. Ripp J, Peccoraro L, Charney D. Attending to the emotional well-being of the health care workforce in a New York City health system during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Acad Med.* 2020;95(8):1136–9. <https://doi.org/10.1097/ACM.00000000000003414>.
46. Gavin B, Hayden J, Adamis D, McNicholas F. Caring for the psychological well-being of healthcare professionals in the Covid-19 pandemic crisis. *Ir Med J.* 2020;113(4):51.
47. Yoruk S, Guler D. The relationship between psychological resilience, burnout, stress, and sociodemographic factors with depression in nurses and midwives during the COVID-19 pandemic: a cross-sectional study in Turkey. *Perspect Psychiatr Care.* 2021;57(1):390–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/ppc.12659>.
48. Lai J, Ma S, Wang Y, Cai Z, Hu J, Wei N, et al. Factors associated With mental health outcomes among health care workers exposed to Coronavirus Disease 2019. *JAMA.* 2020;3(3):e203976. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2020.3976>.
49. Shen X, Zou X, Zhong X, Yan J, Li L. Psychological stress of ICU nurses in the time of COVID-19. *Crit Care.* 2020;24(1):200. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13054-020-02926-2>.
50. Bohlken J, Schomig F, Lemke MR, Pumberger M, Riedel-Heller SG. COVID-19 pandemic: stress experience of healthcare workers - a short current review. *Psychiatr Prax.* 2020;47(4):190–7. <https://doi.org/10.1055/a-1159-5551>.
51. Tiete J, Guatterri M, Lachaux A, Matossian A, Hougardy JM, Loas G, et al. Mental health outcomes in healthcare workers in COVID-19 and non-COVID-19 care units: a cross-sectional survey in Belgium. *Front Psychol.* 2020;11(3542):612241. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.612241>.
52. Lu W, Wang H, Lin Y, Li L. Psychological status of medical workforce during the COVID-19 pandemic: a cross-sectional study. *Psychiatry Res.* 2020;288:112936. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychres.2020.112936>.
53. Chegini Z, Arab-Zozani M, Rajabi MR, Kakemam E. Experiences of critical care nurses fighting against COVID-19: A qualitative phenomenological study. *Nurs Forum.* 2021;56(3):571–8. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nuf.12583>.
54. Kakemam E, Chegini Z, Rouhi A, Ahmadi F, Majidi S. Burnout and its relationship to self-reported quality of patient care and adverse events during COVID-19: A cross-sectional online survey among nurses. *J Nurs Manag.* 2021;29(7):1974–82. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.13359>.
55. Zhang C, Yang L, Liu S, Ma S, Wang Y, Cai Z, et al. Survey of insomnia and related social psychological factors among medical staff involved in the 2019 novel Coronavirus disease outbreak. *Front Psychiatry.* 2020;11:306. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2020.00306>.
56. Garcia-Fernandez L, Romero-Ferreiro V, Lopez-Roldan PD, Padilla S, Calero-Sierra I, Monzo-Garcia M, et al. Mental health impact of COVID-19 pandemic on Spanish healthcare workers. *Psychol Med.* 2020;1-3. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291720002019>.
57. Cowen EL, Wyman PA, Work WC, Parker GR. The Rochester child resilience project: overview and summary of first year findings. *Dev Psychopathol.* 1990;2(2):193–212. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S095457940000705>.
58. Richardson GE. The metatheory of resilience and resiliency. *J Clin Psychol.* 2002;58(3):307–21. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jclp.10020>.
59. Obbarius N, Fischer F, Obbarius A, Nolte S, Liegl G, Rose M. A 67-item stress resilience item bank showing high content validity was developed in a psychosomatic sample. *J Clin Epidemiol.* 2018;100:1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclinepi.2018.04.004>.
60. O'Donohue JS, Mesagno C, O'Brien B. How can stress resilience be monitored? a systematic review of measurement in humans. *Curr Psychol.* 2019;40(6):2853–76. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-019-00226-9>.
61. Fletcher D, Sarkar M. Psychological Resilience. *Eur Psychol.* 2013;18(1):12–23. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1016-9040/a000124>.
62. McGowan JE, Murray K. Exploring resilience in nursing and midwifery students: a literature review. *J Adv Nurs.* 2016;72(10):2272–83. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jan.12960>.
63. Watson R, Deary I, Thompson D, Li G. A study of stress and burnout in nursing students in Hong Kong: a questionnaire survey. *Int J Nurs Stud.* 2008;45(10):1534–42. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2007.11.003>.
64. Beaumont E, Durkin M, Hollins Martin CJ, Carson J. Compassion for others, self-compassion, quality of life and mental well-being measures and their association with compassion fatigue and burnout in student midwives: a quantitative survey. *Midwifery.* 2016;34:239–44. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.midw.2015.11.002>.
65. Dobson H, Malpas CB, Burrell AJ, Gurvich C, Chen L, Kulkarni J, et al. Burnout and psychological distress amongst Australian healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Australas Psychiatry.* 2021;29(1):26–30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1039856220965045>.
66. Guo YF, Luo YH, Lam L, Cross W, Plummer V, Zhang JP. Burnout and its association with resilience in nurses: a cross-sectional study. *J Clin Nurs.* 2018;27(1–2):441–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jocn.13952>.
67. Rushton CH, Batcheller J, Schroeder K, Donohue P. Burnout and resilience among nurses practicing in high-intensity settings. *Am J Crit Care.* 2015;24(5):412–20. <https://doi.org/10.4037/ajcc2015291>.
68. Jackson D, Firtko A, Edenborough M. Personal resilience as a strategy for surviving and thriving in the face of workplace adversity: a literature review. *J Adv Nurs.* 2007;60(1):1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04412.x>.
69. Kim M, Windsor C. Resilience and work-life balance in first-line nurse manager. *Asian Nurs Res.* 2015;9(1):21–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.anr.2014.09.003>.
70. Turner SB. The resilient nurse: an emerging concept. *Nurse Leader.* 2014;12(6):71–90. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mnl.2014.03.013>.
71. Ang SY, Uthaman T, Ayre TC, Mordiffi SZ, Ang E, Lopez V. Association between demographics and resilience - a cross-sectional study among nurses in Singapore. *Int Nurs Rev.* 2018;65(3):459–66. <https://doi.org/10.1111/inr.12441>.
72. Gillespie E, Allen-Craig S. The enhancement of resilience via a wilderness therapy program: a preliminary investigation. *Aust J Outdoor Educ.* 2009;13(1):39.
73. O'Dowd E, O'Connor P, Lydon S, Mongan O, Connolly F, Diskin C, et al. Stress, coping, and psychological resilience among physicians. *BMC Health Serv Res.* 2018;18(1):730. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12913-018-3541-8>.

74. Watson AG, McCoy JV, Mathew J, Gundersen DA, Eisenstein RM. Impact of physician workload on burnout in the emergency department. *Psychol Health Med*. 2019;24(4):414–28. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13548506.2018.1539236>.
75. Brown S, Whichello R, Price S. The impact of resiliency on nurse burnout: an integrative literature review. *Medsurg Nurs*. 2018;27(6):349.
76. Cabarkapa S, Nadjidai SE, Murgier J, Ng CH. The psychological impact of COVID-19 and other viral epidemics on frontline healthcare workers and ways to address it: a rapid systematic review. *Brain Behav Immun Health*. 2020;8:100144. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbih.2020.100144>.
77. Lopez Steinmetz LC, Herrera CR, Fong SB, Godoy JC. A longitudinal study on the changes in mental health of healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Psychiatry*. 2022;85(1):56–71. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00332747.2021.1940469>.
78. Cai Z, Cui Q, Liu Z, Li J, Gong X, Liu J, et al. Nurses endured high risks of psychological problems under the epidemic of COVID-19 in a longitudinal study in Wuhan China. *J Psychiatr Res*. 2020;131:132–7. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpsychires.2020.09.007>.
79. Van Steenkiste E, Schoofs J, Gillis S, Messiaen P. Mental health impact of COVID-19 in frontline healthcare workers in a Belgian Tertiary care hospital: a prospective longitudinal study. *Acta Clin Belg*. 2021;1-8. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17843286.2021.1903660>.
80. Smith BW, Dalen J, Wiggins K, Tooley E, Christopher P, Bernard J. The brief resilience scale: Assessing the ability to bounce back. *Int J Behav Med*. 2008;15(3):194–200. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705500802222972>.
81. Rodriguez-Rey R, Alonso-Tapia J, Hernansaiz-Garrido H. Reliability and validity of the Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) Spanish version. *Psychol Assess*. 2016;28(5):e101–e10. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pas0000191>.
82. Smith BW, Epstein EM, Ortiz JA, Christopher PJ, Tooley EM. The foundations of resilience: what are the critical resources for bouncing back from stress? Resilience in children, adolescents, and adults. New York: Springer; 2013. p. 167–87.
83. Cohen S, Kamarck T, Mermelstein R. A global measure of perceived stress. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1983;24(4):385–96. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2136404>.
84. Almadi T, Cathers I, Hamdan Mansour AM, Chow CM. An Arabic version of the perceived stress scale: Translation and validation study. *Int J Nurs Stud*. 2012;49(1):84–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2011.07.012>.
85. Sheldon C, Kamarck T, Mermelstein R. A global measure of perceived stress. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1983;24(4):385–96.
86. Mitchell AM, Crane PA, Kim Y. Perceived stress in survivors of suicide: Psychometric properties of the perceived stress scale. *Res Nurs Health*. 2008;31(6):576–85.
87. Lerman Y, Melamed S, Shragin Y, Kushnir T, Rotgoltz Y, Shirom A, et al. Association between burnout at work and leukocyte adhesiveness/aggregation. *Psychosom Med*. 1999;61(6):828–33. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00006842-199911000-00017>.
88. Melamed S, Kushnir T, Shirom A. Burnout and risk factors for cardiovascular diseases. *Behav Med (Washington, DC)*. 1992;18(2):53–60. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08964289.1992.9935172>.
89. Glise K, Hadzibajramovic E, Jonsdottir I, Ahlborg G. Self-reported exhaustion: A possible indicator of reduced work ability and increased risk of sickness absence among human service workers. *Int Arch Occup Environ Health*. 2010;83(5):511–20.
90. Shirom A, Melamed S. A comparison of the construct validity of two burnout measures in two groups of professionals. *Int J Stress Manag*. 2006;13(2):176–200. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1072-5245.13.2.176>.
91. Johansson T, Lindström M, Holm K. The morning salivary cortisol response in burnout. *J Psychosom Res*. 2005;59:103–11.
92. Miettinen OS. *Theoretical Epidemiology: Principles of Occurrence Research in Medicine*. New York: John Wiley & Sons; 1985.
93. Vach W. *Logistic Regression with Missing Values in the Covariates*. Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 1994.
94. Cohen J. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Hillsdale: L. Erlbaum Associates; 1988.
95. Du J, Dong L, Wang T, Yuan C, Fu R, Zhang L, et al. Psychological symptoms among frontline healthcare workers during COVID-19 outbreak in Wuhan. *Gen Hosp Psychiatry*. 2020;67:144–5. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.genhosppsych.2020.03.011>.
96. Smallwood N, Pascoe A, Karimi L, Bismark M, Willis K. Occupational disruptions during the COVID-19 pandemic and their association with healthcare workers' mental health. *Int J Environ Res*. 2021;18(17):9263. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijerph18179263>.
97. Sotomayor-Castillo C, Nahidi S, Li C, Macbeth D, Russo PL, Mitchell BG, et al. Infection control professionals' and infectious diseases physicians' knowledge, preparedness, and experiences of managing COVID-19 in Australian healthcare settings. *Infect Dis Health*. 2021;26(4):249–57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.idh.2021.05.002>.
98. Ehrlich H, McKenney M, Elkbuli A. Protecting our healthcare workers during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Am J Emerg Med*. 2020;38(7):1527–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajem.2020.04.024>.
99. Holton S, Wynter K, Trueman M, Bruce S, Sweeney S, Crowe S, et al. Psychological well-being of Australian hospital clinical staff during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Aust Health Rev*. 2021;45(3):297–305. <https://doi.org/10.1071/AH20203>.
100. Gillespie BM, Chaboyer W, Wallis M, Grimbeek P. Resilience in the operating room: Developing and testing of a resilience model. *J Adv Nurs*. 2007;59(4):427–38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2648.2007.04340.x>.
101. Guo YF, Cross W, Plummer V, Lam L, Luo YH, Zhang JP. Exploring resilience in Chinese nurses: a cross-sectional study. *J Nurs Manag*. 2017;25(3):223–30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12457>.
102. Zhou H, Peng J, Wang D, Kou L, Chen F, Ye M, et al. Mediating effect of coping styles on the association between psychological capital and psychological distress among Chinese nurses: a cross-sectional study. *J Psychiatr Ment Health Nurs*. 2017;24(2–3):114–22. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jpm.12350>.
103. Ding Y, Yang Y, Yang X, Zhang T, Qiu X, He X, et al. The mediating role of coping style in the relationship between psychological capital and burnout among Chinese nurses. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(4):e0122128. <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0122128>.
104. Garrosa E, Moreno-Jimenez B, Liang Y, Gonzalez JL. The relationship between socio-demographic variables, job stressors, burnout, and hardy personality in nurses: an exploratory study. *Int J Nurs Stud*. 2008;45(3):418–27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2006.09.003>.
105. Brewer EW, Shapard L. Employee burnout: a meta-analysis of the relationship between age or years of experience. *Hum Resour Dev Rev*. 2016;3(2):102–23. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1534484304263335>.
106. Halcomb E, McInnes S, Williams A, Ashley C, James S, Fernandez R, et al. The experiences of primary healthcare nurses during the COVID-19 pandemic in Australia. *J Nurs Scholarsh*. 2020;52(5):553–63. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jnu.12589>.
107. Jamieson LN, Williams LM, Lauder W, Dwyer T. Nurses' motivators to work part-time. *Collegian*. 2007;14(2):13–9. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1322-7696\(08\)60550-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1322-7696(08)60550-8).
108. Deuster PA, Silverman MN. Physical fitness: a pathway to health and resilience. *US Army Med Dep J*. 2013:24–35.
109. Oksuz E, Demiralp M, Mersin S, Tuzer H, Aksu M, Sarikoc G. Resilience in nurses in terms of perceived social support, job satisfaction and certain variables. *J Nurs Manag*. 2019;27(2):423–32. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jonm.12703>.

## Publisher's Note

Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Ready to submit your research? Choose BMC and benefit from:

- fast, convenient online submission
- thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field
- rapid publication on acceptance
- support for research data, including large and complex data types
- gold Open Access which fosters wider collaboration and increased citations
- maximum visibility for your research: over 100M website views per year

At BMC, research is always in progress.

Learn more [biomedcentral.com/submissions](https://biomedcentral.com/submissions)

