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Peer reviewed

1 **A narrative review of occupational scheduling that impacts fatigue and recovery**
2 **relevant to veterinarian well-being**

3

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23

24 **Abstract**

25 **Background**

26 Sleep insufficiency is a worldwide affliction with serious implications for mental and physical
27 health. Occupational factors play a large role in determining sleep habits. Healthcare workers are
28 particularly susceptible to job-mediated sleep insufficiency and inadequate rest in general. Little
29 is published on sleep practices among veterinarians, and overall recognition of the impacts of
30 inadequate rest within the veterinary profession is poor.

31 **Objectives and procedures**

32 This review describes occupational factors affecting sufficiency of rest and recovery, reviews
33 veterinary-specific and relevant adjacent literature pertaining to sleep patterns, and discusses
34 potential solutions for addressing occupational schedules contributing to sleep insufficiency and
35 inadequate rest. Online databases were searched to extract contemporary literature pertaining to
36 sleep, insufficient rest, and occupational factors, with a focus on veterinary medicine and other
37 healthcare sectors.

38 **Results**

39 Occupational factors leading to inadequate rest among healthcare workers include excessive
40 workloads, extended workdays, cumulative days of heavy work hours, and after-hours on-call
41 duty. These factors are prevalent within the veterinary profession and may contribute to
42 widespread insufficient rest and the resulting negative impacts on health and well-being among
43 veterinarians.

44 **Conclusion and clinical relevance**

45 Sufficient sleep quantity and quality are critical to physical and mental health and are negatively
46 affected by many aspects of the veterinary profession. Critical review of current strategies

47 employed in clinical practice is essential to promote professional fulfillment, health, and well-
48 being among veterinarians.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 An increasing body of evidence (1,2), together with much anecdotal data, are raising awareness
52 of and concerns with the rates of chronic occupational stress, burnout, and suicide in the
53 veterinary profession. Therefore, there is an urgent need to identify and develop means to
54 mitigate factors that contribute to workplace stress and barriers to well-being. Occupational
55 factors that lead to insufficient rest in healthcare include extended workdays, cumulative days of
56 extended work hours, night shifts, and after-hours on-call. These factors are commonly
57 exacerbated by insufficient staffing and unreasonable workloads. Sleep-related impairment is an
58 occupational hazard, and the veterinary profession has long been characterized by long and
59 uncertain work hours. Furthermore, those that choose to enter this profession commonly do so
60 for altruistic reasons and with little initial consideration of long-term work sustainability and
61 quality of life (*e.g.*, financial stability, family planning).

62 Sleep insufficiency (both acute and chronic) encompasses inadequate quantity or quality
63 of sleep and is particularly prevalent among healthcare workers (3). The 2018 National Health
64 Interview Survey of more than 14 000 households administered by the Centers for Disease
65 Control and Prevention and the US Census Bureau documented that 36% (95% CI: 32.9 to
66 40.0%) of healthcare workers and 45% (95% CI: 39.9 to 51.0%) of healthcare support workers
67 nationwide do not obtain consistently sufficient sleep of 7 to 8 h per night (4). Although many
68 aspects of personal and professional life can affect sleep quantity, quality, or both, occupational
69 and structural factors may not be appropriately considered by healthcare workers and

70 administrators who may be blinded by the fatigue paradox, which is the expressed assumption by
71 an individual that they themselves are unaffected by fatigue, despite observations by the same
72 individuals that identify troubling manifestations of workplace fatigue as common (5). In a meta-
73 analysis of 228 studies on occupational impacts to individual health, Goh *et al* reported that
74 various workplace stressors generally increased the odds of poor health outcomes to
75 approximately the same extent that exposure to secondhand smoke affects physical health
76 (physical health OR: 1.47, mental health OR: 1.49), and noted that the health effects of
77 secondhand smoke exposure are widely viewed as sufficiently large to warrant regulatory
78 intervention (6). They reported increased risks of mortality associated with long working hours
79 for men (OR: 1.17, 95% CI: 1.01 to 1.35) and women (OR: 1.41, 95% CI: 0.89 to 2.24) (6).

80 In this narrative review, we present the existing evidence regarding the impacts of
81 occupational factors on adequate rest, with a targeted review of literature relevant to common
82 veterinary practice logistics. A secondary objective is to suggest considerations for change to
83 mitigate some of the all-too-common occupational pressures for unhealthy lifestyles within the
84 veterinary profession. Insufficient rest also has the effect of reducing team dynamics, work
85 performance, and patient safety in human and veterinary healthcare; however, these topics are
86 covered elsewhere (7). The pathophysiology of sleep deprivation and inadequate rest is reviewed
87 in a companion article (8).

88

89 **Methods: Search strategy**

90 Studies examining the relationship between occupational factors and sleep insufficiency were
91 obtained using a previously described search strategy (8). Two search procedures were followed:
92 One author (MS) searched the online databases PubMed and Google Scholar using combinations

93 of the term “veterinarian” with the terms “sleep deprivation,” “sleep loss,” “sleep insufficiency,”
94 “fatigue,” “occupational,” “work schedule,” “duty hours,” “on call,” and “night shift,” to find
95 publications that informed the review goals. Because awareness and investigation of veterinarian
96 well-being topics have grown only recently, we restricted the search to the past 5 years (2017 to
97 2022) to identify contemporary evidence. There is little existing veterinary-specific knowledge in
98 this area, so we expanded the search to include the terms “physician,” “healthcare,” and
99 “resident,” and incorporated fundamental research and data from other professions that we
100 obtained by manual scoping of cited studies from articles identified in the initial searches.
101 Eligibility criteria included manuscripts examining occupational causes of sleep insufficiency
102 and their impacts on individual health, and peer-reviewed, full-text articles written in the English
103 language. Manuscripts that focused on topics of non-occupational stressors that might impact
104 sleep, work performance, medical errors, general insomnia, non-occupational circadian rhythm
105 disorders, parasomnias, hypersomnias, sleep-related breathing disorders, and sleep-related
106 movement disorders were excluded.

107

108 **Occupational health impacts to rest and recovery**

109 **Circadian misalignment**

110 The number and distribution of work hours in a work week can affect sleep, productivity, and
111 safety by affecting an individual’s circadian rhythm (9). Circadian misalignment describes the
112 incongruity between natural sleep-wake cycles and clock-regulated physiology. Sleep
113 insufficiency induces a circadian misalignment that effectively contributes to the development of
114 a variety of serious disease processes, including cardiovascular diseases and those associated
115 with metabolic syndrome, such as obesity and diabetes (10-13). Circadian disruption also impairs

116 cognitive performance, including inhibitory control, working memory, task-switching, and
117 psychomotor vigilance (14,15). Wakefulness, poor sleep quality or interrupted sleep, and
118 irregularities in the timing of sleep can all impede circadian adaptation to work-rest schedules
119 and result in a state of insufficient rest, even if an individual has access to sufficient total sleep
120 time (13,14).

121 **Influence of extended duty hours**

122 In general, overtime, extended shifts, or extended work availability all have negative effects on
123 recovery processes and impair functioning, contributing to chronic fatigue and reducing the
124 restorative value of rest periods (16,17). Numerous studies have associated long working hours
125 with sleep deficits, and this appears to be true whether long working hours are spread over the
126 week or performed more acutely as overnight extended duty shifts (14,18,19). Physicians with
127 long (> 48) weekly work hours had higher odds for insufficient sleep than physicians with short
128 (< 40) weekly work hours (OR: 1.78, 95% CI: 1.15 to 2.76) (18).

129 With chronicity, incomplete recovery from work associated with long working hours
130 impacts all major body systems (8,20-26). A meta-analysis reported a 40% increased risk for
131 coronary artery disease with long work hours (> 10 h/d, or > 40 to > 65 h/wk) (27). Long
132 working hours exhibit a dose-responsive association with prediabetes and diabetes: Compared to
133 working 35 to 40 h/wk, hazard ratios were 1.28 (1.17 to 1.40) for working 41 to 52 h/wk, and
134 2.80 (2.54 to 3.09) for working > 52 h/wk (24,28). Working long hours has been associated with
135 obesity (29). Psychological distress among physicians (as measured by a General Health
136 Questionnaire score > 8) was associated with both long work hours and engaging in night duty
137 (30). Among physicians, disrupted and insufficient sleep has been associated with high burnout
138 rates (31,32). Risk of depression in physicians was predicted by sleep and work hours, with the

139 highest rates of depression (32.7%) associated with poor quality, short duration sleep (≤ 6 h
140 nightly; OR: 2.33, 95% CI: 1.52 to 3.57; $P < 0.001$) (33). Sleep insufficiency among physicians
141 suffering from depression also led to a chronic course for depression (OR: 1.55, 95% CI: 1.01 to
142 2.36; $P = 0.04$), and each hour of lost sleep corresponded to a 55% increase in odds for
143 remaining depressed (33).

144 Research has demonstrated that a mild sleep reduction of just 30 min/night may result in
145 acute performance decrements, such as a slower reaction time and reduced vigilance over time
146 (34), which has safety impacts. Physicians driving home after working extended duration shifts
147 were more likely to report a motor vehicle crash (OR: 2.3, 95% CI: 1.6 to 3.3) or near-miss
148 incident (OR: 5.9, 95% CI: 5.4 to 6.3) compared with those working standard shifts (35). Safety
149 impacts are seen with longer workdays even without obvious sleep deficiency: Compared with
150 working 8-hour shifts in industrial settings, working a 10-hour shift has a 13% higher risk of
151 incident or injury, and working a 12-hour shift increases this risk by 27% (36). The “dose-
152 response” nature of occupational health impacts has been highlighted in both industrial and
153 healthcare settings, with increased injury rates corresponding to both increased hours per day and
154 total hours per week and on-call status (37,38). Disordered sleep and mood disorders in
155 healthcare workers were independently associated with adverse outcomes relative to post-shift
156 motor vehicle crashes, near-miss crashes, occupational exposures, and medical errors; and when
157 occurring together, they contributed additively to risk (39). A survey by the American Nurses
158 Association determined that 1 in 10 nurses reported a motor vehicle crash that they believed was
159 related to fatigue or shift work (26).C

160 **Influence of on-call**

161 Nighttime on-call is associated with deteriorations in neuropsychological and cognitive function,
162 mental health, and physical health (40,41). An assessment of physician stress associated with
163 being on call for 24 h demonstrated significant deterioration in all physiological, performance,
164 and mood indicators in comparison with working a normal workday but not being on call (42).
165 Significant reduction in heart rate variability (a useful tool for monitoring the autonomic nervous
166 system) was observed in the on-call group compared to the control group ($F = 28.19$; $P < 0.001$)
167 indicating that the stress was intense enough to inhibit the vagal modulation of the autonomic
168 nervous system (42). Physicians with on-call duties also exhibited elevated biomarkers of
169 systemic inflammation, at a level associated with increased cardiovascular risk and mortality,
170 compared to those without on-call duties (43).

171 One or more nights on call per week has been associated with lower mood and with
172 anxiety and depression in physicians in a myriad of studies (44-50) and correlated highly with
173 various stress symptoms such as exhaustion, irritation, sleep disturbances, memory disturbances,
174 and headaches (51). Notably, stress symptoms increased with increasing on-call workload and
175 disappeared during vacation (51). This is unsurprising, given that physicians typically receive 2
176 to 3 phone calls during the night when carrying out at-home on-call work (similar to the rate
177 reported in a recent study of veterinary residents) and even 1 shift/mo of at-home, on-call work
178 was associated with increased risk of sleep difficulties (52-54). Partial sleep deprivation (sleep
179 restriction to < 7 h in a 24-hour period) associated with on-call duties has been demonstrated to
180 affect a variety of aspects of mood in physicians, with reports of increased irritability, sleepiness,
181 and feeling jittery; and decreased energy, confidence, and talkativeness (55). In healthy adults,
182 partial sleep loss from sleep continuity disruption was shown to be more detrimental to positive
183 mood and affect than was partial sleep loss from delayed bedtime, and individuals with sleep

184 continuity disruption had significantly less slow-wave sleep after the first night of sleep
185 deprivation (56). High call burden (when called in ≥ 3 times/wk on nights or weekends)
186 predicted physician risks for sleeping at the wheel (OR: 3.36, 95% CI: 1.51 to 7.86; $P = 0.004$)
187 and motor vehicle crashes (OR: 3.07, 95% CI: 1.17 to 8.80; $P = 0.03$), and generally resulted in
188 distress, job dissatisfaction and reduced work ability (44). These findings are not surprising, as
189 being on-call from home demonstrably and adversely affects sleep quantity and, in most cases,
190 sleep quality (51,53,57).

191 Only 23% of 164 surveyed physicians reported obtaining 6 to 8 h of sleep during on-call
192 nights, compared to 88% when not on call (58). When nightly duration of uninterrupted sleep
193 was specified, only 10% of on-call physicians achieved 6 to 8 h, compared to 80% of those not
194 on call (58). When asked to rate the quality of sleep during a call night, 91% of physicians
195 reported “fair” to “poor” sleep quality, and 75% relayed that they needed a daytime nap due to
196 on-call-related fatigue (58). Sleep is affected by the on-call condition beyond the mere sleep time
197 lost while being out of bed (and in bed while falling asleep again). Those working on call have
198 greater difficulty falling asleep and staying asleep while on call compared to when they are not
199 on call (58). Studies have repeatedly shown that on-call employees experience disrupted and
200 poor-quality rest and sleep regardless of whether or not a call is actually received (42,59,60).
201 Both non-rapid eye movement (NREM) and rapid eye movement (REM) sleep were strongly
202 reduced in physicians on overnight call, and research clearly shows that night on-call duty
203 caused a sizeable overall sleep reduction (57,61). The on-call condition itself appears to involve
204 transient insomnia and indirect effects that lengthen the period of sleep loss in addition to the
205 direct sleep deficit acquired when called to work (61). The disturbed recovery inherent to time

206 spent on call is demonstrably not equivalent to rest time and is of substantially reduced
207 restorative value (62).

208 **Influence of overnight shift work**

209 It is well-recognized that overnight shift work has a negative impact on well-being, with
210 potential effects on metabolic health, cancer risks, heart health, and mental health (63). The
211 primary mechanism whereby this occurs is circadian misalignment and disruption of the
212 circadian rhythm (63). Overnight shiftwork commonly results in sleep displacement and reduced
213 overall sleep quality. Daytime sleep after night work is commonly 2 to 4 h shorter than night
214 sleep (63-65). With regular (fixed-shift) scheduling, some adjustment to night work at a rate of
215 ~1 h/d can occur (66), although daylight exposure during early morning hours can inhibit full
216 adjustment, commonly maintaining at least partial day orientation and leading to social jet lag
217 (64,67).

218 Available evidence indicates that prior sleep-wake history, including exposure to acute
219 and chronic sleep restriction and irregular sleep-wake schedules, may greatly affect an
220 individual's resilience in the face of subsequent sleep loss (14). This can be mitigated by
221 circadian adaptation; however, this is a gradual process requiring extended, consistent exposure
222 to the altered work-rest cycle, and there is a high degree of variability in the capacity of night-
223 shift workers to do so (60). Without specific interventions, it is estimated that only ~25% of
224 workers show circadian adaptation to night work (68). Meta-analysis showed that average sleep
225 times varied among permanent day-shift workers (7.0 h/d), permanent and rotating evening-shift
226 workers (7.6 to 8.1 h/d), permanent night-shift workers (6.6 h/d), and rotating night-shift workers
227 (5.9 h/d) (69), although differences in schedule design details will impact these outcomes.

228 Sleep and alertness of shift workers can be affected by the design of shift systems,
229 including fixed or rotating schedule design, speed and direction of shift rotation, time of
230 changeovers, and duration of time between changeovers, and studies support optimizing shift
231 schedule design to minimize chronic sleep deficiencies (9,64,70). Short-term compensatory
232 efforts such as caffeine use and napping that are directed at alertness and cognitive parameters
233 may improve functionality and safety over the shift but, without adjustment, likely do not
234 ameliorate chronic metabolic dysregulation and its subsequent impacts (63). From an
235 occupational health perspective, it has been suggested that adapting shift schedules where
236 possible to account for the impact of individual chronotype (the behavioral manifestation of
237 one's underlying circadian rhythm as a propensity to sleep at particular times) on sleep duration
238 and timing may also mediate some of the adverse health effects associated with overnight work
239 (11,71,72). Aligning work hours and chronotype is associated with longer sleep duration across
240 the work schedule (72,73). This is more easily accomplished with fixed shifts, where employees
241 may self-select for different shift types. Regardless of time of day, the duration of breaks
242 between successive work shifts was shown to be important, with quick returns (< 11 h off
243 between shifts) associated with insomnia, excessive sleepiness, and shift work disorder (74,75).
244 Early day shift start times and quick-return evening-to-day shift transitions should be avoided
245 within safety-sensitive environments such as healthcare due to associations with impaired
246 performance (76).

247 While the current understanding of optimal shift scheduling is not comprehensive and
248 long term-data are lacking, some research indicates that a rapid forward rotation schedule (2
249 morning shifts, 2 evening shifts, and 2 night shifts, followed by 3 d off) may be most conducive
250 to night shift tolerance and minimization of individual health impacts; however, this must be

251 balanced against operational logistics and worker willingness to participate in rotating shift
252 designs (77-79). This type of schedule may not be viable for workers with young families, for
253 example, due to the challenging impacts on home logistics. General recommendations for
254 rotating shift schedules include using forward rotation (morning-evening-night) and frequency of
255 rotation ≤ 3 d, and allowing ≥ 3 d recovery after the last night shift (70,80,81).

256 Within healthcare, a variety of shift designs are described (70,82,83). Research supports
257 shift lengths of ≤ 12 h, with shifts of 8 to 10 h recommended (70,80,81). Twelve-hour shifts have
258 been associated with high rates of multiple poor health behaviors: short sleep duration, smoking,
259 obesity, low physical activity, and higher alcohol use (84). Nurses were 3 \times more likely to make
260 an error when working ≥ 12 -hour compared to 8.5-hour shifts (85). Nursing shifts > 13 h were
261 linked to patient dissatisfaction (86). Due to workflow differences, operational considerations for
262 nurses are often different than for physicians (83). A simulated scheduling model suggested that
263 overlapping shift scheduling for emergency physicians with policies that restrict physicians from
264 taking new patients during the end of their shift could provide a variety of benefits, and the
265 authors encouraged institution-specific cost-benefit analyses (87). Benefits included reducing
266 patient handoffs by 41% and reducing patient time in the emergency department by 14% while
267 accommodating a 10 to 15% increase in patient volume (87).

268

269 **Factors affecting individual vulnerability to sleep loss**

270 Work-related fatigue is an important occupational safety and health problem, and because of this,
271 some of the working population experiences disproportionate risks of injury and illness (88,89).
272 Occupational circadian misalignment affects individuals differently. It has been reported that
273 almost 20% of overnight workers cannot tolerate night work, about 10% enjoy it, and the rest

274 exhibit variable tolerance (90). Factors associated with better adaptation to night work are being
275 young; being male; having late chronotype, low languidity score (tendency to become tired or
276 sleepy upon losing sleep), and low neuroticism score (tendency to experience the world as
277 stressful); and having high scores on extraversion, internal locus of control (belief that one is in
278 control of one's life and environment), and sleep flexibility (77). Individual chronotype impacts
279 circadian adaptation to night work (77). Individuals with an evening-oriented chronotype exhibit
280 less rigid sleep timing and higher shift work tolerance compared to morning-oriented
281 chronotypes, and late sleepers appear to suffer less from night shifts (77).

282 Aging has been associated with decreased ability to make circadian adjustments (91). For
283 many, the ability to adapt to shift work is more difficult over the age of 40, as older shift workers
284 experience a reduction in the ability of circadian rhythms to readjust to new schedules (92).
285 During a simulated shift rotation of 2 12-hour day shifts followed by 2 12-hour night shifts, all
286 study participants exhibited performance decrements during the night shifts; however, younger
287 workers (average age 21 y) were better able to maintain performance across day and night shifts
288 while older workers (average age 44 y) were more prone to sleep-disruption impacts (93). Based
289 on these results and the correlation between sleep deprivation effects and alcohol intoxication
290 effects (94), the study authors hypothesized that it may take fewer hours of wakefulness in older
291 subjects to reach a performance decrement equivalent to a blood alcohol concentration of 0.1%
292 (93). As older adults have greater difficulty obtaining daytime recovery sleep, they are
293 commonly more vulnerable to the sleep-loss effects of a sequence of extended duty or night
294 shifts (95-97). However, after a single night of acute sleep deprivation, young adults may show
295 comparatively more pronounced impacts of acute sleep deprivation than adults over 55 y of age
296 (97). In general, younger workers have better shift work tolerance in terms of subjective

297 sleepiness, performance tests, recovery after work, and sleep time; older workers have a higher
298 need for recovery after work (98,99).

299 Differences in the impacts of sleep disruption and insufficiency on health between men
300 and women have been documented. Men report better sleep and less fatigue and sleepiness with
301 on-call work than women (98). Women with family and domestic obligations are more
302 vulnerable to poor night shift adaptation, which may be explained by societal gender differences
303 in these roles (100). Female physicians often experience higher levels of work-related stress and
304 lower job control than male physicians, which could impact individual perceptions of on-call
305 effects rather than indicating the existence of a truly sex-linked physiologic difference in sleep
306 needs and non-reproductive impacts (58,101). However, female shift workers have a higher risk
307 of developing metabolic syndrome and diabetes mellitus compared to male shift workers (102-
308 104). A growing body of literature has examined the effects of shift work on reproductive
309 outcomes such as fertility, endometriosis risks, premenstrual impacts, and menstrual function
310 with variable effects; these outcomes are dependent on hormones with cyclic rhythms that can be
311 affected by circadian disruption associated with night work (105-107). Working nights or on call
312 can lead to increased risk for pregnancy complications including miscarriage, preterm labor, and
313 preeclampsia (108,109). Compared with working standard workweeks of < 40 hours, working
314 longer hours was associated with increased odds of miscarriage (OR: 1.38, 95% CI: 1.08 to
315 1.77), preterm delivery (OR: 1.21, 95% CI: 1.11 to 1.33), and low-birthweight infants (OR: 1.43,
316 95% CI: 1.11 to 1.84) (110). Women prone to earlier menopause may further truncate
317 their reproductive lifetime by working schedules that combine day and night shifts (111).

318

319 **Veterinary literature**

320 The veterinary-specific literature on topics related to occupational impacts on fatigue and sleep is
321 very limited, but in general, what reported data do exist are very similar to those reported in
322 physician populations (48,54,112,113). In a single institution in the USA, 66% of exiting
323 veterinary house officers (post-graduate apprentice trainees that may include interns, residents
324 and clinical fellows) reported that they had insufficient time in a typical week to meet their own
325 personal needs, 62% felt neutral or were dissatisfied with their physical well-being, and 57% felt
326 neutral or were dissatisfied with their emotional well-being (114). In 2021, veterinary house
327 officers in corporate and private practice internships and residencies in the USA reported
328 receiving 2 to 3 more d/mo off and 3 to 4 h more sleep in the 48 h before the survey than those in
329 academic institutions (115). Veterinary house officers (comprising 303 individuals from 9
330 institutions in the USA) responding to an online survey reported less sleep per night when on
331 clinic duty compared to off-clinic assignment, averaging only 6 h of sleep per night when on
332 clinics compared to 7.5 h when off clinics ($P < 0.01$) (54). Working hours were significantly
333 negatively related to sleep quantity (54). Respondents reported going to the clinic an average of 5
334 d (33%), 6 d (34%), or 7 d (32%) weekly (54). Respondents described spending 8 to 10 h (25%),
335 11 to 13 h (58%), or ≥ 14 h (15%) in the clinic on an average weekday, and 2 to 5 h (48%), 6 to 8
336 h (15%), and > 8 h (13%) on an average weekend day (54). Forty-five percent of respondents
337 reported being on call for 8 to 14 d/mo, with on-call blocks of ≤ 2 consecutive d (24%), 3 to 4
338 consecutive d (21%), and 7 consecutive d (49%) (54). Perceived sleep quality was much poorer
339 when on call than when not on call (OR: 36.20, 95% CI: 13.08 to 100.16; $P < 0.001$) (54). Forty
340 percent of respondents reported that fatigue interfered “extremely” or “quite a bit” with their
341 ability to empathize (54).

342 In an online survey of general practice veterinarians, offsite on-call shifts were reported
343 to have a negative impact on veterinarian job satisfaction, well-being, and personal relationships
344 (112). Sixty-six percent of responding veterinarians identified on-call duties as being a minor
345 (11.5%), moderate (21.9%), or important (33.2%) factor in the decision to leave a prior job
346 (112). Seventy-eight percent of these responders indicated that lack of on-call duties had
347 influenced their acceptance of a job previously, and 94% indicated that on-call duty requirements
348 would have a role in their acceptance of a future job (112). Female associate veterinarians were
349 also more likely to agree with the statement “I have thought about leaving my current job due to
350 my on-call responsibilities” and with the statement “I would take a job for less money if it did
351 not include on-call duties” (112).

352

353 **Suggested solutions**

354 Suggested occupational solutions for the serious and complex problems of inadequate rest and
355 circadian misalignment caused by the healthcare workplace vary. At an individual level, early
356 and structured professional education on the impacts of sleep deprivation and sleep disorders on
357 performance and health and safety is imperative. This education should include information
358 regarding i) the tendency to underestimate sleep needs, ii) established guidelines for sleep
359 targets, and iii) optimizing sleep hygiene (8). Veterinarians need to be aware of the serious
360 impacts of both acute and chronic sleep insufficiency on their psychological and physical health
361 and cognitive function. At an organizational level, re-evaluation of systems to ensure that they
362 are not limiting clinician sleep is crucial. Suggestions for healthcare organizations to reduce
363 occupational risks from fatigue from the 2011 US Joint Commission on Sleep Health (Centers
364 for Disease Control and National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health) included the

365 following: examine and improve work schedules, staffing, and hand-off process, and consider
366 fatigue in all adverse events; involve staff in the design of their schedules; create and implement
367 a fatigue management plan; educate staff about sleep and fatigue; support staff who work long
368 shifts; and for organizations who allow sleep breaks during the work shift, provide a good sleep
369 environment and adequate release from work responsibilities (26). Most studies among
370 physicians and veterinarians support reducing clinician work hours overall, inclusive of trainees
371 and experienced clinicians (116-119).

372 On-call schedules and prolonged or extended work hours are common in veterinary
373 medicine. Having employees on call is perceived to be less expensive than providing off-peak
374 shift coverage, but while this type of scheduling may be cost saving for the business, it has
375 human costs (46). Reassessment of systems of at-home on-call is overdue and must recognize
376 that this duty should be categorized as work time. Research clearly supports that non-work hours
377 during which employees are required to remain available for work cannot be considered leisure
378 time (62). Similar trends are seen in both human and veterinary medicine, with falling
379 proportions of veterinarians and physicians that are willing to take on-call duty as part of
380 employment (112,113). Healthcare workers who work extended overnight shifts or have on-call
381 duty following a regular workday cannot compensate by sleeping either in advance or after the
382 night duty (14). At a minimum, planning for catch-up sleep before or after the on-call shift is
383 imperative, although it should be noted that true short-term “recovery” from acute sleep
384 deprivation is unlikely to be feasible even with provisions for recovery sleep (8). To improve
385 clinicians’ working conditions and stress levels and to ensure stable cognition, logistics should
386 provide an opportunity to compensate for the sleep loss of an overnight on-call shift with the

387 post-call day off, as the standard work-hour regulations for physicians currently dictate in Europe
388 (19).

389 Unlike individuals working extended shifts or on call, it is common for overnight shift
390 workers to preface a night shift with a nap, allowing those individuals to better compensate with
391 early sleep loading (64). While shift work is not physiologically benign (63), circadian
392 adaptation to a night-oriented schedule can occur, suggesting that appropriately scheduled
393 overnight shift work is physiologically preferable to on-call duties. Superficially minor details
394 can profoundly influence adaptation to shift work, and sleep needs and responses to deficits are
395 individualized. Not all clinicians may be physiologically capable of circadian adaptation or
396 disposed to effective night work, and hiring practices that are aimed at overnight staffing should
397 be targeted rather than generalized (8,68). Several studies have suggested that allowing personal
398 choice regarding shift preference and allowing healthcare workers to plan their own work
399 schedules may decrease fatigue-related stress (120,121). However, it should be noted that even
400 those individuals who do not show notable performance deficits under conditions of sleep
401 insufficiency are still at risk for other physiologic and mental health ramifications of chronically
402 insufficient sleep, so actions to minimize accumulating sleep debt are important for all.

403 Work-hour limitation policies do not exist in veterinary medicine. In extrapolating from
404 human literature, it should be noted that the evidence upon which physician house officer work-
405 hour policy limits were developed was largely derived from laboratory studies of healthy
406 subjects who passed physical examinations and volunteered to participate in relatively brief sleep
407 restriction or deprivation (7,122,123). If one considers the era in which resident physician duty-
408 hour policies were initially constructed, there are also likely some intrinsic assumptions about a
409 “typical” resident physician (young, healthy, male, single or with a wife managing the household

410 needs) that have been implicitly absorbed into ongoing healthcare culture regarding work hours
411 and sleep expectations (7,124). General application of current resident physician work-hour
412 expectations by employers would implicitly assume that the clinician population is entirely
413 healthy and highly resistant to the effects of sleep deprivation themselves. However, a number of
414 medical conditions common in the general population, including, but not limited to, sleep-related
415 breathing disorders, insomnia, burnout, and mood disorders, are associated with varying sleep
416 needs and tendencies among individuals. One example, obstructive sleep apnea, is estimated to
417 affect a large portion of the general population, impacting means of 22% (range: 9 to 37%) of
418 men and 17% (range: 4 to 50%) of women (125). Insufficient rest may negatively impact
419 symptom management and disease progression of chronic disease in individuals, and medical
420 conditions such as heart disease, high blood pressure, gastrointestinal disorders, sleep disorders,
421 insulin-dependent diabetes, seizure disorders, asthma requiring medication, psychiatric diseases,
422 and alcohol or drug abuse may worsen over time with overnight work (26). As there is no reason
423 to expect that veterinarians as a subpopulation would differ substantially in rates of common
424 medical conditions, it is likely that a significant fraction is at risk for impacts to baseline sleep
425 needs, leaving reduced capability for any additional physiologic compensation required by
426 occupational impacts to sleep. Policies also usually ignore the impacts of concurrent family
427 responsibilities, such as child or elder care, that may also affect sleep quality or quantity and
428 recovery from occupational sleep insufficiency. These oversights have the potential to
429 inadvertently render some clinicians disproportionately vulnerable to sleep loss and its effects.
430 Occupational schedules should permit reasonable and rational sleep management for all
431 clinicians.

432 Among physicians, generational differences in attitudes toward work have also been
433 described, with younger workers placing a higher value on family, career flexibility, and work-
434 life balance than their predecessors (126) that likely conflicts with willingness to participate in
435 extended hours or on-call work. However, observed trends in minimizing work-life conflict are
436 not wholly limited to the younger generation, reflecting concerns about personal health with
437 aging, changing family needs, burnout, or other changes in personal expectations as physicians
438 mature and age (126). These types of observed trends are likely to be similar in veterinary
439 medicine. In order to ensure inpatient and emergency coverage during after-hours periods,
440 creative incentivization in the forms of additional job perks and hazard pay rates might be
441 considered. Such incentives might encourage those who are better able to tolerate night work to
442 voluntarily accept these jobs at times in their lives that make reasonable sense for them, reducing
443 the need to conscript clinicians who lack the physiologic tolerance or flexibility in personal
444 responsibilities for after-hours work.

445 If practice logistics cannot be designed to permit appropriate clinician rest due to
446 financial or scheduling constraints, one must consider whether the traditional veterinary practice
447 business model that emphasizes breadth (“every practice offers/does all things”) may no longer
448 serve the profession well, and whether alternative options, organizational structures, and
449 collaborative relationships should be explored. Changing the business model of veterinary
450 practice to reduce occupational health impacts to individuals is necessary. However, it will
451 require not only reconceiving roles and logistics at an individual and practice level, but also
452 different approaches to managing public expectations and wider societal needs. For the latter,
453 regional professional collaboration among veterinarians and targeted public education will likely
454 be key (7,127).

455

456 **Conclusions**

457 Veterinary profession-specific data on occupational impacts to rest and recovery processes are
458 limited. However, what data exist demonstrate similar trends to those reported in other
459 occupations, particularly human healthcare, and justify the idea that intervention to mitigate
460 sleep-related impairment in veterinarians is important and warranted. Among factors affecting
461 human health, sleep deprivation is among the most modifiable, and individuals experiencing
462 chronic sleep losses should actively revise work and personal practices to improve sleep,
463 including undergoing evaluation for relevant medical conditions where appropriate. In the
464 workplace, in addition to re-evaluation of current practices for overnight duty scheduling, other
465 cultural and logistical institutional issues that contribute to chronic sleep disruption or inadequate
466 rest should be evaluated and addressed. Within veterinary academia, improved education on the
467 contribution of sleep to health should be a prioritized part of veterinary and post-graduate
468 training.

469 *“The worst part of residency, he shared, is the round-the-clock non-urgent patient*
470 *updates, nonclinical requests, and digital notifications...Every resident knows*
471 *what it is like to be startled awake in the middle of the night by seemingly*
472 *pointless notifications, a slightly higher than normal blood pressure reading, or a*
473 *request to renew a routine order that has been in place for days...My friend*
474 *explains, “Someone on the outside might think it’s annoying and not a big deal,*
475 *but multiply over years and countless hours of lost sleep...it’s like psychological*
476 *torture” (128).*

477

478

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482

483

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