REPORT 1 OF THE COUNCIL ON ETHICAL AND JUDICIAL AFFAIRS (1-I-19)
Competence, Self-Assessment and Self-Awareness
(Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The expectation that physicians will provide competent care is central to medicine. It undergirds professional autonomy and the privilege of self-regulation granted to medicine by society.

The ethical responsibility of competence encompasses more than knowledge and skill. It requires physicians to understand that as a practical matter in the care of actual patients, competence is fluid and dependent on context. Importantly, the ethical responsibility of competence requires that physicians at all stages of their professional lives be able to recognize when they are and when they are not able to provide appropriate care for the patient in front of them or the patients in their practice as a whole.

Self-aware physicians discern when they are no longer comfortable handling a particular type of case and know when they need to obtain more information or need additional resources to supplement their own skills. They recognize when they should ask themselves whether they should postpone care, arrange to have a colleague provide care, or otherwise find ways to protect the patient's well-being.

To fulfill their ethical responsibility of competence, physicians at all stages in their professional lives should cultivate and exercise skills of self-awareness and active self-observation; take advantage of tools for self-assessment that are appropriate to their practice settings and patient populations; and be attentive to environmental and other factors that may compromise their ability to bring their best skills to the care of individual patients. As a profession, medicine should provide meaningful opportunity for physicians to hone their ability to be self-reflective.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON ETHICAL AND JUDICIAL AFFAIRS[*]

CEJA Report 1-I-19

Subject: Competence, Self-Assessment and Self-Awareness

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Referred to: Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws

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1   The expectation that physicians will provide competent care is central to medicine. This
2   expectation shaped the founding mission of the American Medical Association (AMA) and runs
3   throughout the AMA *Code of Medical Ethics* [1-4]. It undergirds professional autonomy and the
4   privilege of self-regulation granted to medicine by society [5]. The profession promises that
5   practitioners will have the knowledge, skills, and characteristics to practice safely and that the
6   profession as a whole and its individual members will hold themselves accountable to identify and
7   address lapses [6-9].
8
9   Yet despite the centrality of competence to professionalism, the *Code* has not hitherto examined
10   what the commitment to competence means as an ethical responsibility for individual physicians in
11   day-to-day practice. This report by the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs (CEJA) explores this
12   topic to develop ethics guidance for physicians.
13
14   DEFINING COMPETENCE
15
16   A caveat is in order. Various bodies in medicine undertake point-in-time, cross-sectional
17   assessments of physicians' technical knowledge and skills. However, this report is not concerned
18   with matters of technical proficiency assessed by medical schools and residency programs,
19   specialty boards (for purposes of certification), or hospital and other health care organizations (e.g.,
20   for privileging and credentialing). Such matters lie outside the Council's purview.
21
22   The ethical responsibility of competence encompasses more than knowledge and skill. It requires
23   physicians to understand that as a practical matter in the care of actual patients, competence is fluid
24   and dependent on context. Importantly, the ethical responsibility of competence requires that
25   physicians at all stages of their professional lives be able to recognize when they are and when they
26   are not able to provide appropriate care for the patient in front of them or the patients in their
27   practice as a whole. For purposes of this analysis, competence is understood as "the habitual and
28   judicious use of communication, knowledge, technical skills, clinical reasoning, emotions, values,
29   and reflection in daily practice for the benefit of the individual and the community being served"
30   and as "developmental, impermanent, and context dependent" [10].
31
32   Moreover, the Council is keenly aware that technical proficiency evolves over time—what is
33   expected of physicians just entering practice is not exactly the same as what is expected of mid-

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[*] Reports of the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs are assigned to the Reference Committee on
Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws. They may be adopted, not adopted, or referred. A report may not
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1   career physicians or physicians who are changing or re-entering practice or transitioning out of
2   active practice to other roles. Each phase of a medical career, from medical school through
3   retirement, carries its own implications for what a physician should know and be able to do to
4   practice safely and to maintain effective relationships with patients and with colleagues.
5
6   The concept that informs this report differs as well from the narrower definition of competence as
7   the knowledge and skills an individual has to do a job. Rather, this report explores a broader notion
8   of competence that encompasses deeper aspects of wisdom, judgment and practice that enable
9   physicians to assure patients, the public, and the profession that they provide safe, high quality care
10   moment to moment over the course of a professional lifetime.
11
12   FROM SELF-ASSESSMENT TO "INFORMED" SELF-ASSESSMENT
13
14   Health care institutions and the medical profession as a whole take responsibility to regulate
15   physicians through credentialing and privileging, routinely testing knowledge (maintenance of
16   certification, requirements for continuing education, etc.) and, when needed, taking disciplinary
17   action against physicians who fail to meet expectations for competent, professional practice.
18   However, the better part of the responsibility to maintain competence rests with physicians'
19   "individual capacity, as clinicians, to self-assess [their] strengths, deficiencies, and learning needs
20   to maintain a level of competence commensurate with [their] clinical roles" [11].
21
22   Self-assessment has thus become integral to many appraisal systems [5, 10, 12-16]. Yet clinicians
23   and trainees tend to assess their peers' performance more accurately than they do their own—for
24   example, those who perform in the bottom quartile tend to over-estimate their abilities, while those
25   in the top quartile tend to under-estimate themselves [5,12,13,17].
26
27   Self-assessment involves an interplay of factors that can be complicated by personal characteristics
28   (e.g., gender, ethnicity, or cultural background); by lack of insight or ability to be self-observant in
29   the moment; and by external factors, such as the purpose of self-assessment [12,18]. The published
30   literature also indicates that interventions intended to enhance self-assessment may seek different
31   goals—improving the accuracy of self-assessors' perceptions of their learning needs, promoting
32   appropriate change in learning activities, or improving clinical practice or patient outcomes [12].
33
34   Thus self-assessment tools alone are not sufficient measures of physicians' ability to provide safe,
35   high quality care. Feedback from third parties is essential [19]. However, physicians can be hesitant
36   to seek feedback for fear of looking incompetent or exposing possible deficiencies or out of
37   concern that soliciting feedback could adversely affect their relationships with those whom they
38   approach [20]. They may also question the accuracy and credibility of the assessment process and
39   the data it generates [21]. And they are not sure how to use information that is not congruent with
40   their self-appraisals [20].
41
42   To be effective, feedback must be valued by those being assessed as well as by those offering
43   assessment [14]. When there is tension between the stated goals of assessment and the implicit
44   culture of the health care organization or institution, assessment programs can too readily devolve
45   into an activity undertaken primarily to satisfy administrators that rarely improves patient care [20].
46   Feedback mechanisms should be appropriate to the skills being assessed—multi-source reviews
47   ("360° reviews"), for example, are generally better suited to providing feedback on communication
48   and interpersonal skills than on technical knowledge or skills—and easy for evaluators to
49   understand and use [14]. High quality feedback will come from multiple sources; be specific and
50   focus on key elements of the ability being assessed; address behaviors rather than personality or
51   personal characteristics; and "provide both positive comments to reinforce good behavior and

1   constructive comments with action items to address deficiencies" [22]. Beyond such formal
2   mechanisms, physicians should welcome and seek out informal input from colleagues. They should
3   be willing to offer timely comments to colleagues as well.
4
5   One study among physicians and trainees found that participants interpreted and responded to
6   multiple types of information, such as cognitive and affective data, from both formal and informal
7   sources [23]. Participants described "critically reflecting 'in action,' that is, during an activity or
8   throughout the day":
9
10   I think we do a lot of it without thinking of it as reflection. We do it every day when we look at
11   a patient's chart. You look back and see the last visit, "What did I do, or should I have done
12   something different?" I mean that's reflection, but yet I wouldn't have thought of that as self-
13   assessment or self-reflection, but we do it dozens of times a day [23].
14
15   EXPERTISE & EXPERT JUDGMENT
16
17   On this broad understanding of competence, physicians' thought processes are as important as their
18   knowledge base or technical skills. Thus, understanding competence requires understanding
19   something of the nature of expertise and processes of expert reasoning, themselves topics of
20   ongoing exploration [24,25,26,27].
21
22   Expert judgment is the ability "to respond effectively in the moment to the limits of [one's]
23   automatic resources and to transition appropriately to a greater reliance on effortful processes when
24   needed" [24], a practice described as "slowing down." Knowing when to slow down and be
25   reflective has been demonstrated to improve diagnostic accuracy and other outcomes [26]. To
26   respond to the unexpected events that often arise in a clinical situation, the physician must
27   "vigilantly monitor relevant environmental cues" and use these as signals to slow down, to
28   transition into a more effortful state [25]. This can happen, for example, when a surgeon confronts
29   an unexpected tumor or anatomical anomaly during a procedure. "Slowing down when you should"
30   serves as a critical marker for intraoperative surgical judgment [24].
31
32   *Influences on Clinical Reasoning*
33
34   Physicians' skills of clinical reasoning develop through education, training, and experiences. Every
35   physician arrives at a diagnosis and treatment plan for an individual in ways that may align with or
36   differ from the analytical and investigative processes of their colleagues in innumerable ways.
37   Nonetheless, all physicians are susceptible to certain common pitfalls in reasoning, notably relying
38   unduly on heuristics and habits of perception, and succumbing to overconfidence.
39
40   Physicians use time-saving cognitive short cuts (heuristics) to help identify and categorize relevant
41   information. But such short cuts can also mislead physicians to miscategorize information based on
42   seeming similarity or to place too much weight "on examples of things that come to mind easily
43   [28]. Other common cognitive missteps can derail clinical reasoning as well, including
44   misperceiving a coincidental relationship as a causal one, or the tendency to remember information
45   transferred at the beginning or end of an exchange but not information transferred in the middle
46   [28,29,30].
47
48   Like every other person, physicians can also find themselves prone to conscious or unconscious
49   habits of perception or biases. They may allow unquestioned assumptions based on a patient's race
50   or ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, or health behavior, for example, to shape how they
51   perceive the patient and how they engage with, evaluate, and treat the individual [31]. Physicians

1 may fall victim to the tendency to seek out information that confirms established expectations or
2 dismiss contradicting information that does not fit into predetermined beliefs [28]. These often
3 inadvertent thought processes can result in a physician pursuing an incorrect line of questioning or
4 testing that then leads to a misdiagnosis or the wrong treatment.
5
6 So too, despite their extensive training, physicians, like all people, are often poor at identifying the
7 gaps in their knowledge [28,30]. They may consider their skills to be excellent, when, in fact, their
8 peers have identified areas for improvement [30]. Overconfidence in one's abilities can lead to
9 suboptimal care for a patient, be it through mismanaging resources, failing to consider the advice of
10 others, or not acknowledging one's limits [28,30].
11
12 Physicians should be aware of the information they do and do not have and they acknowledge that
13 many factors can and will influence their judgment. They should keep in mind the likelihood of
14 diseases and conditions and take the time to distinguish information that is truly essential to sound
15 clinical judgment from the wealth of possibly relevant information available about a patient. They
16 should consider reasons their decisions may be wrong and seek alternatives, as well as seek to
17 disprove rather than confirm their hypotheses [28]. And they should be sensitive to the ways in
18 which assumptions may color their reasoning and not allow expectations to govern their
19 interactions with patients.
20
21 Shortcomings can be an opportunity for growth in medicine, as in any other field. By becoming
22 aware of areas in which their skills are not at their strongest and seeking additional education or
23 consulting with colleagues, physicians can enhance their practice and best serve their patients.
24
25 FROM INFORMED SELF-ASSESSMENT TO SELF-AWARENESS
26
27 Recognizing that many factors affect clinical reasoning and that self-assessment as traditionally
28 conceived has significant shortcomings, several scholars have argued that a different understanding
29 of self-assessment is needed, along with a different conceptualization of its role in a self-regulating
30 profession [32]. Self-assessment, it is suggested, is a mechanism for identifying both one's
31 weaknesses and one's strengths. One should be aware of one's weaknesses in order to self-limit
32 practice in areas in which one has limited competence, to help set appropriate learning goals, and to
33 identify areas that "should be accepted as forever outside one's scope of competent practice" [32].
34 Knowing one's strengths, meanwhile, allows a physician both to "act with appropriate confidence"
35 and to "set appropriately challenging learning goals" that push the boundaries of the physician's
36 knowledge [32].
37
38 If self-assessment is to fulfill these functions, physicians need to reflect on past performance to
39 evaluate not only their general abilities but also specific completed performances. At the same
40 time, they must use self-assessment predictively to assess how likely they are to be able to manage
41 new challenges and new situations. More important, physicians should understand self-assessment
42 as an ongoing process of monitoring tasks during performance [3]. The ability to monitor oneself in
43 the moment is critical to physicians' ethical responsibility to practice safely, at the top of their
44 expertise but not beyond it.
45
46 Self-awareness, in the form of attentive self-observation, alerts physicians when they need to direct
47 additional cognitive resources to the immediate task. For example, among surgeons, knowing when
48 to "slow down" during a procedure is critical to competent professional performance, whether that
49 means actually stopping the procedure, withdrawing attention from the surrounding environment to
50 focus more intently on the task at hand, or removing distractions from the operating environment
51 [25].

1   Physicians should also be sensitive to the ways that interruptions and distractions, which are
2   common in health care settings, can affect competence in the moment [34,35], by disrupting
3   memory processes, particularly the "prospective memory"—i.e., "a memory performance in which
4   a person must recall an intention or plan in the future without an agent telling them to do so"—
5   important for resuming interrupted tasks [35,36]. Systems-level interventions have been shown to
6   help reduce the number or type of interruptions and distractions and mitigate their impact on
7   medical errors [37].
8
9   A key aspect of competence is demonstrating situation-specific awareness in the moment of being
10   at the boundaries of one's knowledge and responding accordingly [33]. Slowing down, looking
11   things up, consulting a colleague, or deferring from taking on a case can all be appropriate
12   responses when physicians' self-awareness tells them they are at the limits of their abilities. The
13   capacity for ongoing, attentive self-observation, for "mindful" practice, is an essential marker of
14   competence broadly understood:
15
16   Safe practice in a health professional's day-to-day performance requires an awareness of when
17   one lacks the specific knowledge or skill to make a good decision regarding a particular patient
18   . . . . This decision making in context is importantly different from being able to accurately rate
19   one's own strengths and weaknesses in an acontextual manner. . . . Safe practice requires that
20   self-assessment be conceptualized as repeatedly enacted, situationally relevant assessments of
21   self-efficacy and ongoing 'reflection-in-practice,' addressing emergent problems and
22   continuously monitoring one's ability to effectively solve the current problem [32].
23
24   Self-aware physicians discern when they are no longer comfortable handling a particular type of
25   case and know when they need to obtain more information or need additional resources to
26   supplement their own skills [32]. Self-aware physicians are also alert to how external stressors—
27   the death of a loved one or other family crisis, or the reorganization of their practice, for example—
28   may be affecting their ability to provide care appropriately at a given time. They recognize when
29   they should ask themselves whether they should postpone care, arrange to have a colleague provide
30   care, or otherwise find ways to protect the patient's well-being.
31
32   Physicians' ability to be sufficiently self-aware to practice safely can be compromised by illness, of
33   course. In some circumstances, self-awareness may be impaired to the point that individuals are not
34   aware of, or deny, their own health status and the adverse effects it can or is having on their
35   practice. In such circumstances, individuals must rely on others—their personal physician,
36   colleagues, family, social acquaintances, or even patients—to help them recognize and address the
37   situation. Physicians have a responsibility to one another and to patients to promote health within
38   the physician community, a responsibility that extends to intervening when a colleague's ability to
39   practice safely is compromised [E-9.3.2]. Physicians who are unable to recognize that they are
40   impaired due to cognitive disability or other illness are not necessarily blameworthy or unethical,
41   unless they decline to address their condition and modify their practice once others have drawn
42   attention to their inability to continue practicing medicine safely.
43
44   MAINTAINING COMPETENCE ACROSS A PRACTICE LIFETIME
45
46   For physicians, the ideal is not simply to be "good" practitioners, but to excel throughout their
47   professional careers. This ideal holds not just over the course of a sustained clinical practice, but
48   equally when physicians re-enter practice after a hiatus, transition from active patient care to roles
49   as educators or administrators, or take on other functions in health care. Self-assessment and self-
50   awareness are central to achieving that goal.

1   A variety of strategies is available to physicians to support effective self-assessment and help them
2   cultivate the kind of self-awareness that enables them to "know when to slow down" in day-to-day
3   practice. One such strategy might be to create a portfolio of materials for reflection in the form of
4   written descriptions, audio or video recording, or photos of encounters with patients that can
5   provide evidence of learning, achievement and accomplishment [16] or of opportunities to improve
6   practice. A strength of portfolios as a tool for assessing one's practice is that, unlike standardized
7   examinations, they are drawn from one's actual work and require self-reflection [15].
8
9   As noted above, to be effective, self-assessment must be joined with input from others. Well-
10 designed multi-source feedback can be useful in this regard, particularly for providing information
11 about interpersonal behaviors [14]. Research has shown that a four-domain tool with a simple
12 response that elicits feedback about how well one maintains trust and professional relationships
13 with patients, one's communication and teamwork skills, and accessibility offers a valid, reliable
14 tool that can have practical value in helping to correct poor behavior and, just as important,
15 consolidate good behavior [14]. Informal arrangements among colleagues to provide thoughtful
16 feedback will not have the rigor of a validated tool but can accomplish similar ends.
17
18 Reflective practice, that is, the habit of using critical reflection to learn from experience, is
19 essential to developing and maintaining competence across a physician's practice lifetime [38]. It
20 enables physicians to "integrate personal beliefs, attitudes, and values in the context of professional
21 culture," and to bridge new and existing knowledge. Studies suggest that reflective thinking can be
22 assessed, and that it can be developed, but also that the habit can be lost over time with increasing
23 years in practice [38].
24
25 "Mindful practice"—being fully present in everyday experience and aware of one's own mental
26 processes (including those that cloud decision making) [39]—sustains the attitudes and skills that
27 are central to self-awareness. Medical training, with its fatigue, dogmatism, and emphasis on
28 behavior over consciousness, erects barriers to mindful practice, while an individual's unexamined
29 negative emotions, failure of imagination, and literal-mindedness can do likewise. Physicians can
30 cultivate mindfulness in myriad ways; e.g., through meditation, keeping a journal, reviewing videos
31 of encounters with patients, or seeking insight from critical incident reports [39].
32
33 "Exemplary physicians," one scholar notes, "seem to have a capacity for self-critical reflection that
34 pervades all aspects of practice, including being present with the patient, solving problems,
35 eliciting and transmitting information, making evidence-based decisions, performing technical
36 skills, and defining their own values" [39].
37
38 RECOMMENDATION
39
40 Based on the foregoing analysis, the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs recommends that the
41 following be adopted and the remainder of this report be filed:
42
43   The expectation that physicians will provide competent care is central to medicine. It
44   undergirds professional autonomy and the privilege of self-regulation granted by society. To
45   this end, medical schools, residency and fellowship programs, specialty boards, and other
46   health care organizations regularly assess physicians' technical knowledge and skills.
47
48   However, as an ethical responsibility competence encompasses more than medical knowledge
49   and skill. It requires physicians to understand that as a practical matter in the care of actual
50   patients, competence is fluid and dependent on context. Each phase of a medical career, from
51   medical school through retirement, carries its own implications for what a physician should

know and be able to do to practice safely and to maintain effective relationships with patients and with colleagues. Physicians at all stages of their professional lives need to be able to recognize when they are and when they are not able to provide appropriate care for the patient in front of them or the patients in their practice as a whole.

To fulfill the ethical responsibility of competence, individual physicians and physicians in training should strive to:

(a) Cultivate continuous self-awareness and self-observation.

(b) Recognize that different points of transition in professional life can make different demands on competence.

(c) Take advantage of well-designed tools for self-assessment appropriate to their practice settings and patient populations.

(d) Seek feedback from peers and others.

(e) Be attentive to environmental and other factors that may compromise their ability to bring appropriate skills to the care of individual patients and act in the patient's best interest.

(f) Maintain their own health, in collaboration with a personal physician, in keeping with ethics guidance on physician health and wellness.

(g) Intervene in a timely, appropriate, and compassionate manner when a colleague's ability to practice safely is compromised by impairment, in keeping with ethics guidance on physician responsibilities to impaired colleagues.

Medicine as a profession should continue to refine mechanisms for assessing knowledge and skill and should develop meaningful opportunities for physicians and physicians in training to hone their ability to be self-reflective and attentive in the moment.

(New HOD/CEJA Policy)

Fiscal Note: Less than $500.

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