REVIEW ARTICLE

Unconscious (Implicit) Bias and Health Disparities: Where Do We Go from Here?

Abstract

Disparities in health care are of great concern, with much attention focused on the potential for unconscious (implicit) bias to play a role in this problem. Some initial studies have been conducted, but the empirical research has lagged. This article provides a research roadmap that spans investigations of the presence of implicit bias in health care settings, identification of mechanisms through which implicit bias operates, and interventions that may prevent or ameliorate its effects. The goal of the roadmap is to expand and revitalize efforts to understand implicit bias and, ultimately, eliminate health disparities. Concrete suggestions are offered for individuals in different roles, including clinicians, researchers, policymakers, patients, and community members.

Substantial attention has been paid in recent years to the possibility that unconscious (implicit) bias among health care professionals contributes to health disparities.¹⁻³ In its 2003 report, *Unequal Treatment*,¹ the Institute of Medicine concluded that unrecognized bias against members of a social group, such as racial or ethnic minorities, may affect communication or the care offered to those individuals.

There exists a gap, however, between reasonable inferences and what is known. To what extent does implicit bias exist in health care? How does it affect different social groups? Is implicit bias more likely in some domains than in others? Does implicit bias affect clinical outcomes? Is intervention possible and if so, what strategies are most likely to be successful?

This article provides a roadmap for research in implicit bias in health care, spanning investigations of the presence of implicit bias in health care settings, identification of mechanisms through which implicit bias operates, and interventions that may prevent or ameliorate its effects. The goal of the roadmap is to expand and revitalize efforts to eliminate health disparities. Its intended audience is researchers, clinicians, and policymakers. For reasons of clarity, this analysis is limited to the potential effects of implicit bias on the patient-clinician relationship and associated care processes, leaving aside the important issue of the potential for implicit bias to affect the working environment of the health care workforce and other ways in which implicit bias might affect health.

Definitions and Measures

In the present context, bias is the negative evaluation of one group and its members relative to another. Such bias can be expressed directly (eg, "I like whites more than Latinos.") or more indirectly (eg, sitting further away from a Latino than a white individual). In addition to their different expressions, direct or explicit bias differs from implicit bias in terms of underlying process. Explicit bias requires that a person is aware of his/her evaluation of a group, believes that evaluation to be correct in some manner, and has the time and motivation to act on it in the current situation.46 Congruent with everyday experience, research suggests that explicit bias toward ethnic/racial groups has declined significantly over the past 50 years7 and is now considered unacceptable in general society. In contrast, implicit bias appears to be common and persistent.8,9

Implicit bias operates in an unintentional, even unconscious manner. This type of bias does not require the perceiver to endorse it or devote attention to its expression.⁴⁶ Instead implicit bias can be activated quickly and unknowingly by situational cues (eg, a person's skin color or accent), silently exerting its influence on perception, memory, and behavior.^{46,8-10} Because implicit bias can operate without a person's intent or awareness, controlling it is not a straightforward matter.

Implicit bias cannot be measured with standard (self-report) survey questions. Instead, sophisticated

Irene V Blair, PhD John F Steiner, MD, MPH Edward P Havranek, MD

Irene V Blair, PhD, is an Associate Professor in the Department of Psychology and Neuroscience at the University of Colorado Boulder. E-mail: irene.blair@colorado.edu. John F Steiner, MD, MPH, is Senior Director at the Institute for Health Research at Kaiser Permanente Colorado. E-mail: john.f.steiner@kp.org. Edward P Havranek, MD, is a Cardiologist at the Denver Health and Hospital Authority in Colorado. E-mail: edward.havranek@dhha.org.

instruments have been developed for this purpose, the most commonly used being the Implicit Association Test (IAT).11,12 The IAT is a computer-based measure that relies on differences in response latency to reveal implicit bias. The IAT has been used in hundreds of studies across a wide array of disciplines, including psychology, health, political science, and market research.^{8,9,12} The IAT operates on the principle that it is easier to make the same response (eg, a key press) to concepts that are more strongly associated, compared to concepts less strongly associated. Respondents are thus asked to sort words or pictures into one of four superordinate groups, representing two concept dimensions (eg, race: black vs white; and evaluation: good vs bad). The strength of association between concepts is determined by the respondents' speed in sorting the items under two different conditions, with faster responses in one condition indicating a stronger association. Most white respondents, for example, are significantly faster when the "black" and "bad" items require the same response and the "white" and "good" items require another response, compared to when "black" and "good" responses are the same and "white" and "bad" responses are the same.8,9,12 The larger the performance difference, the stronger the implicit association or bias for a particular person. Demonstrations of this test can be found at https://implicit.harvard.edu.

Background: What We Know So Far

The theoretical framework for the role of implicit bias in health care is based on well-established empirical findings in social psychology and research on health



Figure 1. Conceptual model of the influence of implicit bias on hypertension control.

care processes. We refer interested readers to existing reviews of that work,13,14 confining ourselves to broad strokes for the present purposes. Figure 1 provides an illustration of the pathways through which implicit bias may affect the patient-clinician relationship and related processes. Consider a white male clinician whose implicit bias has been activated by a clinic visit with an elderly African-American patient who is receiving antihypertensive medications but whose blood pressure is uncontrolled. Without realizing that he is being unduly influenced, the clinician perceives the patient as uncooperative and unlikely to adhere to a more intensive drug regimen. The clinician may even erroneously "remember" that this patient can't afford the pharmacy copay. Consequently, although the patient's hypertension is not under control, the clinician decides not to intensify the treatment regimen. This clinician believes that he made the best decision given the situation, unaware that his perceptions were distorted by implicit bias.

Also shown in the figure is the possibility that in addition to affecting clinical decisions directly, implicit bias may also affect treatment through its effects on interpersonal communication. A number of studies have shown that people with more implicit ethnic/racial bias have poorer interpersonal interactions with minority individuals, often in very subtle ways.^{69,10} Such interactions, in turn, may contribute to a lack of trust and commitment on the part of the patient, leading to poor adherence. The figure also notes that patients bring their own implicit biases to the clinical encounter (eg, against a white physician), further complicating communication, treatment, and achievement of mutual clinical goals.

Research to Date on Implicit Bias in Health Care

Presence of implicit bias in health care. A handful of studies have measured implicit bias among clinicians¹⁵⁻²¹ (Table 1), all using the IAT. Five of these studies examined racial/ethnic bias, specifically against African Americans as compared to whites. Four of the five studies found evidence for implicit race bias among clinicians (Table 1), with the average level of bias ranging across the studies from "small" (Cohen's d = 0.41) to "large" (d = 0.90). The one study that did not find bias against African Americans¹⁷ is notable in its reliance on a small and primarily minority clinician sample.

Although the magnitude of the reported bias varies, the presence of implicit bias is generally consistent across the studies and suggests that clinicians have similar implicit biases to others in society. The presence of implicit bias among clinicians further suggests that it could play a role in health care disparities just as it plays a role in differential outcomes elsewhere in society.

At the same time, the limitations of the existing work cannot be ignored. First, there are questions about the degree to which the results can be applied to clinicians more generally. Four of the studies listed in Table 1 are of relatively young and inexperienced clinicians (residents and students), and six of the studies include either a low number of respondents from the pool of eligible clinicians (26% to 38%) or the response rate is unknown. For example, the study by Sabin et al¹⁸ is impressive with its large sample size. However, the individuals in this study decided of their own accord to visit the Web site, and there is no known denominator of eligible clinicians who could have participated. It will be incumbent on future research to include more experienced clinicians and obtain response rates that are more representative of the entire study population.

The second major limitation of existing research is the almost exclusive focus on African Americans as targets of implicit bias. The vast health disparities shown for African Americans certainly raise the priority of assessing implicit bias against this group. However, disparities have also been shown for other racial and ethnic groups^{22,23} that may be more prevalent in certain geographic regions. Disparities have also been found in many other social domains including gender, age, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status (SES).²²⁻²⁵ Implicit bias against individuals with specific clinical conditions such as disability, obesity, or mental illnesses may also be present as suggested by the two studies in Table 1 on implicit bias toward injecting drug users.

Consequences of implicit bias in health care. Of even greater need is research on the correlates and consequences of implicit bias in health care. Even if one were to accept the findings shown in Table 1 as sufficient evidence of implicit bias against African Americans among clinicians, one must still ask to what degree this bias affects health care and outcomes. There is even less evidence to answer these questions. Of the five published studies already discussed, two also investigated the degree to which the clinicians' implicit bias related to their clinical judgments in hypothetical scenarios, with one study¹⁶ showing that implicit race bias was related to treatment recommendations for an African-American patient and the other study¹⁹ showing that implicit race bias was not related to clinical judgment. One additional study¹⁷ examined implicit race bias in relation to interpersonal

The presence of implicit bias among clinicians further suggests that it could play a role in health care disparities just as it plays a role in differential outcomes elsewhere in society.

Table 1. Published studies measuring implicit biases of clinicians						
	Participants			IAT Score		
	N (% of		Focus of			
Citation	eligible)	Characteristics	Implicit Bias	Mean (SD)	Effect Size	
Green et al (2007) ¹	220 (28%)	Residents in internal medicine and emergency medicine	African Americans	0.36 (0.40)	<i>d</i> = 0.90	
Sabin et al (2008) ²	43 (26%)	Residents and faculty in pediatrics	African Americans	0.18 (0.44)	<i>d</i> = 0.41	
Sabin et al (2009) ³	2535 (NA)	Physicians self-selected to Internet site, unknown specialties	African Americans	0.39 (0.47)	<i>d</i> = 0.83	
White-Means et al (2009) ⁴	331 (38%)	Students in pharmacy, medicine, and nursing	African Americans	0.40 (NA)	NA	
Penner et al (2010) ⁵	15 (83%)	Residents in family medicine	African Americans	-0.10 (0.35 ^a)	<i>d</i> =028	
Brener et al (2007) ⁶	60 (NA)	Nurses and doctors in drug and alcohol	Injecting drug users	0.36 (0.42)	<i>d</i> = 0.86	
Von Hippel et al (2008) ⁷	44 (NA)	Nurses in drug and alcohol	Injecting drug users	0.26 (0.41)	<i>d</i> = 0.63	

d = Cohen's d with "small," "medium" and "large" effects indicated by d = 0.20, 0.50 and 0.80, respectively. NA = Not Available.

^a = obtained from personal communication with the authors.

1. Green AR, Carney DR, Pallin DJ, et al. Implicit bias among physicians and its prediction of thrombolysis decisions for black and white patients. J Gen Intern Med 2007 Sep;22(9):1231–8.

2. Sabin JA, Rivara FP, Greenwald AG. Physician implicit attitudes and stereotypes about race and quality of medical care. Med Care 2008 Jul;46(7):678–85.

3. Sabin J, Nosek BA, Greenwald A, Rivara FP. Physicians' implicit and explicit attitudes about race by MD race, ethnicity, and gender. J Health Care Poor Underserved 2009 Aug;20(3):896–913.

 White-Means S, Zhiyong Dong, Hufstader M, Brown LT. Cultural competency, race, and skin tone bias among pharmacy, nursing, and medical students: implications for addressing health disparities. Med Care Res Rev 2009 Aug;66(4):436–55.

 Penner LA, Dovidio JF, West TV, et al. Aversive racism and medical interactions with black patients: a field study. J Exp Soc Psychol 2010 Mar;46(2):436-40.
 Brener L, von Hippel W, Kippax S. Prejudice among health care workers toward injecting drug users with hepatitis C: does greater contact lead to less prejudice? Int J Drug Policy 2007 Oct;18(5):381-7.

7. Von Hippel W, Brener L, Von Hippel C. Implicit prejudice toward injecting drug users predicts intentions to change jobs among drug and alcohol nurses. Psychol Sci 2008 Jan;19(1):7–11.

behavior, showing that more biased clinicians were rated by their African-American patients as lower in warmth and friendliness. No published study yet has examined the relation between implicit bias and actual medical treatment or outcomes.

A Roadmap for Future Research on Implicit Bias in Health Care

The next generation of research on implicit bias in health care must accomplish three goals: 1) determine the degree of different implicit biases for different groups; 2) assess the associations among implicit bias and processes and outcomes of care; 3) test interventions to reduce implicit bias in health care and outcomes, if bias is found to be important in health care. In this section we expand on these three goals and highlight potential approaches to accomplish them.

Goal 1: Determine the degree of implicit bias with regard to the full range of social groups for which disparities exist

Health disparities have been shown along multiple social dimensions²²⁻²⁵ (eg, race/ethnicity, gender, age and SES) and local circumstances may bring additional dimensions to the forefront (eg, military or religious groups). Research is needed to determine whether implicit bias exists toward each of these groups. In some cases, the approach used in existing research can be easily adapted. For example, an IAT has already been developed to assess bias against elderly vs young individuals.26 In other cases, additional research is needed to determine what types of bias might be operating. This is likely to be particularly important with regard to gender. Research shows that people are more often implicitly biased in favor of women over men,27,28 so why does it appear that in some situations women are less likely to receive high-quality care? An even greater challenge will be the consideration of overlapping group biases. Patients are not simply members of a racial/ethnic group, a gender group, or an age group; they are simultaneously members of all these groups. The interaction among biases for or against these groups is relatively unexplored. In our earlier example, the care provided to an elderly African American by a clinician with biases against both social groups may be of lower quality, whereas implicit bias in favor of the elderly may offset some of the effects of implicit bias against African Americans. As millions of newly insured individuals prepare to enter the health care system under health care reform legislation during the next few years, the interaction of socioeconomic bias and other forms of bias (eg, SES by race) will require particular attention.

The extent to which implicit bias exists among different groups of health care professionals (eg, physicians, nurses, front-office staff), with regard to patients from different social groups must also be more fully understood. As shown in Table 1, the few studies of implicit bias in health care have focused primarily on physicians. In an environment in which care is increasingly provided by multidisciplinary teams, it is important to assess the biases of the entire range of health care professionals. A bad health care experience may come from poor service in the pharmacy or on a phone call with front-desk staff. Furthermore, little research has addressed the implicit biases that patients themselves bring to clinical encounters (eg, bias against a clinician of different race/ethnicity or with a foreign accent). Given evidence that racial, ethnic, or gender concordance between clinician and patient can affect communication and treatment,²⁹⁻³¹ the implicit biases of patients, particularly in combination with those of their clinicians, need further study. Finally, research on implicit bias ought to be broadened to include health care beyond the US and in different cultures.

Goal 2: Understanding the relations between implicit bias and clinical outcomes

The second step is to test and refine the conceptual model presented earlier that describes how implicit bias might be related to the processes and outcomes of clinical care. As shown in Figure 1, the relevant processes of care necessary to achieve clinical goals also require assessment if we are to understand the mechanisms through which implicit bias affects those goals. Decisions or behaviors by either clinician or patient may suggest that implicit biases are at work. In our earlier example, both clinician-determined processes, such as the decision to prescribe an additional antihypertensive medication, and patient processes, such as the decision to adhere to that new drug, need to be assessed. The quality of communication between clinician and patient is also important to assess. If implicit bias is found to be expressed through simple aspects of communication such as speed of speech or body positioning, specific training for clinicians may be suggested. Insight may also be gained by stratifying analyses of current measures of patient satisfaction with clinicians by patient characteristics such as race and ethnicity.32 There are also sophisticated analytic systems for coding audiotaped or videotaped encounters, that consider both the content and style of communication.33,34

Assessing the relation between implicit bias and outcomes is critical. In statistical terms, one needs to go beyond the demonstration of a main effect such as a health disparity between Latinos and whites, and determine whether differences in the levels of disparity found from one clinician to another co-vary with differences in levels of the clinicians' bias.

To refine the simplistic causal model shown in Figure 1, both laboratory and clinical studies are needed. In laboratory studies, implicit bias is most likely to have an effect in situations with substantial ambiguity, room for "judgment calls," and constraints on time and attention.14,35 Translated to the clinical setting, implicit bias may be more influential when treatment algorithms are less developed than in situations that have clearly defined algorithms for treatment. Likewise, implicit bias may have more of an effect on decisions made during a one-time visit than on decisions made in the context of an ongoing clinical relationship in which one presumes more accurate patient data has accumulated. On the other hand, laboratory research has not examined implicit bias in long-term relationships, and the possibility exists that such bias may have a cumulative effect with early instances of miscommunication building into larger problems later on.

Goal 3: Interventions to reduce effects of implicit bias on processes of care and clinical outcomes

If implicit biases are found to be important in health care, the third step is to adapt and test theory-based interventions³⁶⁻³⁸ at all levels, including the individual practitioner, the care team, and the delivery system. Such interventions could attempt to reduce implicit bias directly, could bolster patients' defenses against bias, or could alter care delivery systems to mitigate the effects of bias.

The most obvious point of intervention is with the individual. If health care professionals' implicit biases are contributing to disparities, reducing those biases seems an obvious solution. Basic research on implicit bias supports the plausibility of this approach by showing that implicit bias is potentially malleable, changing in response to situational cues and norms.³⁶ Despite its intuitive appeal, a direct approach of confronting an individual with evidence of bias may actually have little effect on that bias. Although people can be rationally convinced that they ought to feel or think differently and they are motivated to do so, the operation of implicit bias is not open to easy identification and effortful control. Indeed, research shows that intentionally trying to suppress bias

may actually make it "rebound" at a later time.³⁹ Instead a less direct approach can be more effective.

If one thinks of implicit bias in psychological terms as an automatic cue-response association, then one might see that changing the cue is likely to be more effective than trying to will the response to change³⁶—at least in the short term. The challenge then, becomes identifying cues or situational variables that matter. Laboratory research suggests that implicit bias can be diminished by cues that bring to mind associations that run counter to the bias.^{4,40-42} To illustrate, one study found that white individuals who had been exposed to many admired African Americans, subsequently showed reduced implicit bias.⁴² Such methods need to be adapted and tested in clinical settings, but they nonetheless suggest the real possibility of change.

In addition to direct intervention on health care professionals' implicit bias, the conceptual model shown in Figure 1 makes it clear that there are many pathways between implicit bias and health outcomes, with the possibility of intervention at each one. Patients play a role in the quality of the clinical interaction and successful treatment is often reliant on their own efforts. Patients may respond to bias in a variety of ways, some of which can worsen the situation and some of which can help to deflect a negative outcome.

Recent research on stereotype threat and, importantly, the positive effects of a self-affirmation intervention hold great promise. Stereotype threat⁴³ is a stressful psychological state that occurs when a person fears being judged by others on the basis of negative stereotypes. In health care settings, stereotype threat may impair patient-clinician communication, reduce self-efficacy, and increase mistrust.44 Because stereotype threat can impair communication between patient and physician, interventions that reduce patients' perception of threat might lead to more functional behavior for both patients and physicians. Self-affirmation, a process in which people affirm their self-integrity (eg, important values) in the face of a threat, has been shown in educational settings to reduce racial differences in performance over time periods of up to two years.45-47 Self-affirmation thus represents a possible component of a theory-driven intervention to reduce the impact of implicit bias in health care. Studies to assess this are in progress.

Of course, interventions at the team, clinic, or delivery system level can also reduce health care disparities. Such interventions are primarily organizational in nature, and, despite their great potential, are beyond the scope of this discussion. If one thinks of implicit bias in psychological terms as an automatic cue-response association. then one might see that changing the cue is likely to be more effective than trying to will the response to change³⁶...

Table 2. Suggestions for action to understand and address implicit bias in health care						
Clinicians						
 Consciously affirm egalitarian goals and consider specific ways to implement them.^{1,2} Consider "gut" reactions to specific individuals or groups as <i>potential</i> indicators of implicit bias,³ and consider how these reactions might affect your work. Acknowledge and reappraise^{4,5} rather than suppress uncomfortable feelings and thoughts.⁶ 	 Consider the situation from the patient's perspective.⁷ Consider changing situations that increase negative or stereotypical responses.⁸⁻¹¹ Partner with researchers and participate in research to advance understanding of implicit bias and to develop evidence-based interventions. 					
• Identify biases that may be active in your community, especially	• Design and test theory-based interventions ¹²⁻¹⁴ in					
 Conduct studies on a broad array of potential biases with different types of health care professionals. 	identify interventions that could be translated into actual practice.					
• Assess the relations between implicit bias and actual health care	• Consider interventions at multiple levels (eg, patients,					
processes and outcomes, partnering with clinicians to define	clinicians, and health care teams), acknowledging the					
clinical interactions likely to be affected by implicit bias.	networks that are involved.					
Policymakers						
• Affirm equity of care and diversity as core organizational and institutional values. ^{1,2,15,16}	• Support clinicians' efforts to implement change to address disparities directly.					
Consider ways to improve detection of disparities, and	Invite dialogue with community leaders to better identify					
reconsider policies that may (unintentionally) worsen disparities ¹⁷	services in need of improvement and unrecognized biases in the health care system and workforce					
Support research that seeks to better understand bias and develop	Support efforts to increase workforce diversity, especially					
interventions to improve communication and lessen disparities.	in leadership positions. ¹⁸⁻²⁰					
Patients and Commu	inity Members					
 Consider implicit biases that you yourself may bring into the health care setting. What are your gut reactions and how might they affect your thoughts and behavior? Partner with researchers and participate in research to better 	 Realize that your clinicians are people too. To the degree that bias exists in health care, it is not unique to that arena and must be addressed as a community. Patience and honest communication can help solve many problems. 					
understand bias and develop interventions that are effective and responsive to the needs of the community.	• Provide feedback to help your clinicians improve services, especially in areas that appear to be inequitable.					
 Moskowitz GB. On the control over stereotype activation and stereotype inhibition. Soc Pers Psychol Compass 2010 Feb;4(2):140-58. Moskowitz GB, Ignarri C. Implicit volition and stereotype control. Eur Rev Soc Psychol 2009;20:97-145. Ranganath KA, Smith CT, Nosek BA. Distinguishing automatic and controlled components of attitudes from direct and indirect measuresment methods. J Exp Soc Psychol 2008 Mar;44(2):386-96. Monteith MJ, Ashburn-Nardo L, Voils CI, Czopp AM. Putting the brakes on prejudice: on the development and operation of cues for control. J Pers Soc Psychol 2002 Nov;83(5):1029-50. Murphy MC, Richeson JA, Molden DC. Leveraging motivational mindsets to foster positive interracial interactions. Soc Pers Psychol 1094:67:808-817 						
7. Todd AR, Bodenhausen GV, Richeson JA, Galinsky AD. Perspective taking combats automatic expressions of racial bias. J Pers Soc Psychol 2011 Mar 7. [Epub ahead of print.]						
3. Barden J, Maddux WW, Petty RE, Brewer MB. Contextual moderation of racial bias: the impact of social roles on controlled and automatically activated attitudes. J Pers Soc Psychol 2004 Jul;87(1):5-22.						
 Dasgupta N, Desteno D, Williams LA, Hunsinger M. Fanning the flames of prejudice: the influence of specific incidental emotions on implicit prejudice. Emotion 2009 Aug;9(4):585-91. 						
 DeSteno D, Dasgupta N, Bartlett MY, Cajdric A. Prejudice from thin air: The effect of emotion on automatic intergroup attitudes. Psychol Sci 2004 May;15(5):319-24. Wittenbrink B, Judd CM, Park B. Spontaneous prejudice in context: variability in automatically activated attitudes. J Pers Soc Psychol 2001 Nov;81(5):815-27. Blair IV. The malleability of automatic stereotypes and prejudice. Pers Soc Psychol Rev 2002;6(3):242-61. Burrers D, yan Bw. A Daviding L Saho S. Padvaira gravity has a prejudice and prejudice. Psychol Rev 2002;6(3):242-61. 						
13. Durgess D, vali Kyri M, Dovidio J, Sana S. Keducing racial bias among nearin care providers: lessons from social-cognitive psychology. J Gen Intern Med 2007 Jun;22(6):882–7. 14. Gavroski B. Bodenhausen GV. Associative and propositional processes in evaluation: an integrative review of implicit and evplicit attitude change. Psychol Bull						
14. Canviorism D, botterindusen GV. Associative and propositional processes in evaluation: an integrative review of implicit and explicit attitude change. Psychol Bull 2006 Sep;132(5):692-731.						
 Moskowitz GB, LLP: Egalitarian goals trigger stereotype inhibition: a proactive form of stereotype control. J Exp Soc Psychol 2011 Jan;47(1):103-16. Richeson JA, Nussbaum RJ. The impact of multiculturalism versus color-blindness on racial bias. J Exp Soc Psychol 2004 May;40(3):417-23. 						
17. Banaji MR, Bhaskar R. Implicit stereotypes and memory: The bounded rationality of social beliefs. In: Schacter DL, Scarry E, eds. Memory, brain, and belief. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 2000. p 139-75.						
 Lowery BS, Hardin CD, Sinclair S. Social influence effects on automatic racial prejudice. J Pers Soc Psychol 2001 Nov;81(5):842-55. Richeson JA, Ambady N. Effects of situational power on automatic racial prejudice. J Eva Soc Psychol 2003 Mar;39(2):177-82. 						

Richeson JA, Ambady N. Effects of situational power on automatic racial prejudice. J Exp Soc Psychol 2003 Mar;39(2):177-83.
 Zogmaister C, Arcuri L, Castelli L, Smith ER. The impact of loyalty and equality on implicit ingroup favoritism. Group Process Intergroup Relat 2008 Oct;11(4):493-512.

Conclusions: What can the Reader do?

Eliminating health disparities is of national importance, as highlighted in reviews, such as *Healthy People 2000*⁴⁸ and *Healthy People 2010.*⁴⁹ The National Institute of Health ranks this issue third among its top five priorities.⁵⁰ As part of this effort, health care professionals have been encouraged to consider how biases (ie, stereotypes, prejudice or discrimination) may contribute to disparities,¹ and to "dig deeper" because such effects may often be unintentional and not obvious from standard assessments.

Despite much discussion about the potential role of bias in health disparities, little research has directly investigated bias among health care professionals. The existing evidence does, however, suggest that implicit bias may affect clinical judgment and decision-making. The conceptual model in Figure 1 suggests further that implicit bias may also affect treatment outcomes by affecting clinical interactions and patients' adherence with their treatment.

This review and suggested roadmap may have already prompted readers to consider whether bias affects their own professional domains. If the readers' interest has been piqued but the next steps are still unclear, Table 2 offers a few concrete suggestions for individuals in different roles, including clinicians, researchers, policymakers, patients, and community members. These suggestions include prompts for conducting research as well as practical advice on combating implicit bias in health care. The latter is based on scientific theory and research on the factors that moderate implicit bias.³⁶⁻³⁸ However, it is important to note that specific interventions have yet to be tested in health care settings.

To some degree, readers will see in Table 2 much common sense advice, "be thoughtful, consider others" perspectives and work together to achieve common goals." This sounds simple. We think it is not simple. The many, unrelenting demands of modern life (to say nothing of a busy medical practice) leave little time for reflection and the fulfillment of even the best of intentions. It is precisely for this reason that implicit bias may go unchecked in the pressured environment of health care, and why systematic investigation is needed to better understand and address this problem. For progress to be made, these biases must be rendered less implicit and unconscious to foster real reflection, analysis and change. *****

Disclosure Statement

Funding for this work was provided by the National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute, National Institutes of Health, grants HL088198 and HL089623.

References

- Smedley BD, Stith AY, Nelson AR (Eds). Unequal Treatment: Confronting Racial and Ethnic Disparities in Healthcare. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 2003.
- van Ryn M, Fu SS. Paved with good intentions: do public health and human service providers contribute to racial/ ethnic disparities in health? Am J Public Health 2003 Feb;93(s):248–55.
- 3. White III, AA. Seeing patients: Unconscious bias in health care. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press; 2011.
- Blair IV, Banaji MR. Automatic and controlled processes in stereotype priming. J Pers Soc Psychol 1996;70(6):1142-63.
- Devine PG. Stereotypes and prejudice: Their automatic and controlled components. J Pers Soc Psychol 1989;56(1):5-18.
- Fazio RH, Jackson JR, Dunton BC, Williams CJ. Variability in automatic activation as an unobtrusive measure of racial attitudes: A bona fide pipeline? J Pers Soc Psychol 1995 Dec;69(6):1013-27.
- Bobo L. Racial attitudes and relations at the close of the twentieth century. In: Smelser N, Wilson WJ, Mitchell F, eds. America Becoming: Racial Trends and their Consequences. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 2001. p 262-99.
- Nosek BA, Greenwald AG, Banaji MR. The Implicit Association Test at age 7: A methodological and conceptual review. In: Bargh JA (ed). Automatic processes in social thinking and behavior. London, UK: Psychology Press; 2006. p 265-92.
- Greenwald AG , Poehlman TA, Uhlmann E, Banaji MR. Understanding and using the Implicit Association Test: III. Meta-analysis of predictive validity. J Pers Soc Psychol 2009 Jul;97(1):17–41.
- Dovidio JF, Kawakami K, Gaertner SL. Implicit and explicit prejudice and interracial interaction. J Pers Soc Psychol 2002 Jan;82(1):62-8.
- Greenwald, AG, McGhee, DE, Schwarz, JL. Measuring individual differences in implicit cognition: the implicit association test. J Pers Soc Psychol 1998 Jun;74(6):1464-80.
- Lane KA, Banaji MR, Nosek BA, Greenwald AG. Understanding and using the Implicit Association Test: IV: What we know (so far) about the method. In: Wittenbrink B, Schwarz N, eds. Implicit measures of attitudes. New York: Guilford Press; 2007. p 59-102.
- van Ryn M. Research on the provider contribution to race/ethnicity disparities in medical care. Med Care 2002 Jan;40(1 Suppl):I140–51.
- Anderson SM, Moskowitz GB, Blair IV, Nosek BA. Automatic thought. In: Higgins ET, Kruglanski AW, eds. Social psychology: Handbook of basic principles. 2nd ed. New York: Guilford Press; 2007. p 138-75.
- Brener L, von Hippel W, Kippax S. Prejudice among health care workers toward injecting drug users with hepatitis C: does greater contact lead to less prejudice? Int J Drug Policy 2007 Oct;18(5):381-7.
- Green AR, Carney DR, Pallin DJ, et al. Implicit bias among physicians and its prediction of thrombolysis decisions for black and white patients. J Gen Intern Med 2007 Sep;22(9):1231–8.
- Penner LA, Dovidio JF, West TV, et al. Aversive racism and medical interactions with black patients: a field study. J Exp Soc Psychol 2010 Mar;46(2):436-40.
- 18. Sabin J, Nosek BA, Greenwald A, Rivara FP. Physicians'

implicit and explicit attitudes about race by MD race, ethnicity, and gender. J Health Care Poor Underserved 2009 Aug;20(3):896–913.

- Sabin JA, Rivara FP, Greenwald AG. Physician implicit attitudes and stereotypes about race and quality of medical care. Med Care 2008 Jul;46(7):678–85.
- White-Means S, Zhiyong Dong, Hufstader M, Brown LT. Cultural competency, race, and skin tone bias among pharmacy, nursing, and medical students: implications for addressing health disparities. Med Care Res Rev 2009 Aug;66(4):436–55.
- Von Hippel W, Brener L, Von Hippel C. Implicit prejudice toward injecting drug users predicts intentions to change jobs among drug and alcohol nurses. Psychol Sci 2008 Jan;19(1):7–11.
- 22. Measuring healthcare quality: national healthcare quality report [home page on the Internet]. Rockville, MD: US Department of Health and Human Services: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2010 [cited 2011 Apr 12]; Available from: www.ahrq.qov/qual/measurix.htm.
- Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC). CDC health disparities and inequalities report—United States, 2011 [monograph on the Internet]. Atlanta, CA: Centers for Disease Control and Prevention: MMWR Surveill Summ 2011 Jan 14;60 Suppl [cited 2011 Apr 12]. Available from: www.cdc. gov/mmwr/pdf/other/su6001.pdf.
- Marmot M, Shipley M, Brunner E, Hemingway H. Relative contribution of early life and adult socioeconomic factors to adult morbidity in the Whitehall II study. J Epidemiol Community Health 2001 May;55(5):301-7.
- 25. Weisz VK. Social justice considerations for lesbian and bisexual women's health care. J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs 2009 Jan-Feb;38(1):81-7.
- Hummert ML, Garstka TA, O'Brien LT, Greenwald AG, Mellott DS. Using the implicit association test to measure age differences in implicit social cognitions. Psychol Aging 2002 Sep;17(3):482-95.
- Rudman LA, Greenwald AG, McGhee DE. Implicit selfconcept and evaluative implicit gender stereotypes: Self and ingroup share desirable traits. Pers Soc Psychol Bull 2001 Sep;27(9):1164-78.
- Rudman LA, Goodwin SA. Gender differences in automatic ingroup bias: why do women like women more than men like men? J Pers Soc Psychol 2004 Oct;87(4):494-509.
- Cooper LA, Roter DL, Johnson RL, Ford DE, Steinwachs DM, Powe NR. Patient-centered communication, ratings of care, and concordance of patient and physician race. Ann Intern Med 2003 Dec 2;139(11):907-15.
- LaVeist TA, Nuru-Jeter A, Jones KE. The association of doctorpatient race concordance with health services utilization. J Public Health Pol 2003;24(3-4):312-23.
- Street RL Jr, O'Malley KJ, Cooper LA, Haidet P. Understanding concordance in patient-physician relationships: personal and ethnic dimensions of shared identity. Ann Fam Med 2008 May-Jun;6(3):198-205.
- Newhouse D. Service score segmentation of diverse populations to improve patient and physician satisfaction—a multicase quality improvement study. Perm J 2009 Fall; 13(4):34-41.
- 33. Cooper-Patrick L, Gallo JJ, Gonzales JJ, et al. Race, gender, and partnership in the patient-physician relationship. JAMA 1999 Aug 11;282(6):583-9.
- 34. Johnson RL, Roter D, Powe NR, Cooper LA. Patient race/eth-

nicity and quality of patient-physician communication during medical visits. Am J Public Health 2004 Dec;94(12):2084-90.

- 35. Burgess DJ. Are providers more likely to contribute to healthcare disparities under high levels of cognitive load? How features of the healthcare setting may lead to biases in medical decision making. Med Decis Making 2010 May-Apr;30(2):246-57.
- Blair IV. The malleability of automatic stereotypes and prejudice. Pers Soc Psychol Rev 2002;6(3):242-61.
- Burgess D, van Ryn M, Dovidio J, Saha S. Reducing racial bias among health care providers: lessons from social-cognitive psychology. J Gen Intern Med 2007 Jun;22(6):882–7.
- Gawronski B, Bodenhausen GV. Associative and propositional processes in evaluation: an integrative review of implicit and explicit attitude change. Psychol Bull 2006 Sep;132(5):692-731.
- Macrae CN, Bodenhausen GV, Milne AB, Jetten J. Out of mind but back in sight: Stereotypes on the rebound. J Pers Soc Psychol 1994;67:808-17.
- Blair IV, Ma JE, Lenton AP. Imagining stereotypes away: the moderation of implicit stereotypes through mental imagery. J Pers Soc Psychol 2001 Nov;81(5):828-41.
- Dasgupta N, Asgari S. Seeing is believing: Exposure to counterstereotypic women leaders and its effect on automatic gender stereotyping. J Exp Soc Psychol 2004 Sep;40(5):642–58.
- Dasgupta N, Greenwald AG. On the malleability of automatic attitudes: combating automatic prejudice with images of admired and disliked individuals. J Pers Soc Psychol 2001 Nov;81(5):800-14.
- 43. Steele C, Spencer S, Aronson J. Contending with group image: The psychology of stereotype and social identity threat. In: Zanna M, editor. Advances in experimental social psychology. New York: Academic Press; 2002. p 379-40.
- 44. Burgess DJ, Warren J, Phelan S, Dovidio J, van Ryn M. Stereotype threat and health disparities: what medical educators and future physicians need to know. J Gen Intern Med 2010 May;25 Suppl 2:S169-77.
- Cohen GL, Garcia J, Apfel N, Master A. Reducing the racial achievement gap: a social-psychological intervention. Science 2006 Sep 1;313(5791):1307-10.
- Cohen G, Garcia J, Purdie-Vaughns V, Apfel N, Brzustoski P. Recursive processes in self-affirmation: intervening to close the minority achievement gap. Science 2009 Apr 17;324(5925):400-3.
- Miyake A, Kost-Smith LE, Finkelstein ND, Pollock SJ, Cohen GL, Ito TA. Reducing the gender achievement gap in college science: a classroom study of values affirmation. Science 2010 Nov 26;330(6008):1234-7.
- Healthy People 2000: National health promotion and disease prevention objectives. Washington, DC: US Dept of Health and Human Services; 1990.
- Healthy People 2010: Understanding and improving health. 2nd ed. Washington, DC: US Dept of Health and Human Services; 2000.
- 50. Committee on the Review and Assessment of the National Institute of Health's Strategic Research Plan and Budget to Reduce and Ultimately Eliminate Health Disparities. Examining the health disparities research plan of the National Institutes of Health: Unfinished Business. Washington, DC: National Academy Press; 2006.