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1 Justifying the Risks to Patients That Are Associated With Medical Education

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11  
12 In the traditional view of the patient-physician relationship, physicians are obligated to  
13 act in the best medical interests of their individual patients, and should not compromise their  
14 patients' care for the sake of third parties (persons outside this relationship). In truth, it is  
15 doubtful that doctors have ever fully upheld this uncompromising standard, and more recently  
16 some have advocated a balance between concern for the individual patient and concern for the  
17 greater good in contexts like clinical research and cost containment.<sup>1,2,3</sup> But the traditional,  
18 exclusively patient-centered ethic continues to exert a powerful hold on physicians' self-  
19 conceptions and patients' expectations, perhaps in part because the medical profession so far has  
20 failed to articulate an alternative principle to guide how physicians should weigh the claims of  
21 patients and third parties.

22 While potential conflicts between patient and public interests have been explored in the  
23 literature on clinical research and cost containment,<sup>Error: Reference source not found</sup><sup>Error: Reference</sup>  
24 <sup>source not found</sup>,<sup>Error: Reference source not found</sup>,<sup>4,5,6</sup> less attention has been paid to similar conflicts in medical  
25 education.<sup>7,8</sup> Medical students and residents, as well as fully credentialed physicians learning new  
26 techniques, attain proficiency in skills by practicing them in the course of patient care. For  
27 example, any physician who routinely performs an invasive procedure such as lumbar puncture  
28 or central venous catheterization must have, at some point, performed it on a patient for the first  
29 time. While everyone benefits from the skills cultivated by practicing on patients, few would  
30 wish to be that first patient. The *overall* care available to patients in teaching hospitals is in some

31 cases generally superior to that available in non-teaching institutions,<sup>9,10</sup> in terms of greater

32 access to cutting-edge interventions and the round-the-clock availability of housestaff.

33 Nonetheless, when a trainee performs a procedure even though a more experienced clinician is

34 also available, this decision is not guided solely by concern for the individual patient.

35 Like clinical research, medical education may expose patients to risks that are not offset

36 by the prospect of benefits to those individual patients, but instead by the prospect of benefits to

37 other individuals. Such conflicts in clinical research and cost containment reflect ethical

38 dilemmas raised by the special circumstances of high-technology, twenty-first century medicine.

39 By contrast, the conflicts that arise in medical education are not specific to any time or place, but

40 instead are intrinsic to medicine as a learned profession, and must be faced by every physician in

41 the course of his or her training.

42

#### 43 Risks and Deception

44 At present, these conflicts are largely hidden from patients. Trainees (in concert with

45 educators) may disguise their status or the nature of their involvement in patients' care<sup>11,12</sup>—in

46 part because of fear that patients will not consent to their participation, but perhaps also because

47 of private worries that practicing their still-unrefined skills on patients is not justified.

48 Gawande expresses skepticism that the compromises inherent in medical education can

49 be explicitly justified to patients.<sup>13</sup> He reports that, as a surgical resident and the father of a child

50 born with a congenital heart defect, he insisted on having his son followed in clinic by a faculty

51 member rather than by a cardiology fellow. This leads him to suggest that patients cannot be

52 relied upon to participate in medical education if presented with a choice, and that experiential

53 learning must therefore be “stolen” from patients without fully informed consent.

54       This conclusion should be avoided. It would be hopeless to try to train medical students  
55 and residents to respect informed consent if, at the same time, the quality of their clinical training  
56 depended on continually violating it. In addition to its ethical and educational pitfalls, this  
57 approach may systematically expose medical trainees and academic medical centers to potential  
58 lawsuits alleging fraud, invasion of privacy, breach of confidentiality, and battery.<sup>14,15,16</sup> While  
59 patients typically prefer to have procedures performed by the most experienced hands available,  
60 patients may feel more strongly about not being deceived by their doctors.<sup>17</sup>

61       One way to avoid the problems raised by these conflicts in medical education is simply  
62 not to acknowledge them. But this does not make them go away, nor does it offer any real  
63 guidance on how medical students and residents should think about their relationships to the  
64 patients that they care for in the course of their training. Rather it is important that the  
65 involvement of patients in medical education can be explicitly justified in terms that in principle  
66 can be addressed directly to patients.

67

#### 68 Balancing Patient and Public Interests

69       If physicians really did refuse to ever compromise the welfare of their individual patients  
70 for the sake of third parties, trainees would not perform procedures if a more experienced  
71 physician were also available. But physicians would still need to learn how to perform  
72 procedures—they would only lose the ability to do so under supervision, within the controlled  
73 setting of a formal training program. This policy would not eliminate the risks associated with  
74 procedures performed by physicians who are still learning, but would only add to these risks by

75 preventing physicians from acquiring the skills necessary for competent medical practice in a  
76 responsible way. Ultimately, if physicians adhered to the exclusively patient-centered ethic in  
77 contexts like medical education, the care of all patients would suffer.

78       Thus, no patient could reasonably want physicians to focus exclusively on the medical  
79 well-being of individual patients, without regard for third parties. After all, every person is a  
80 “third party” with respect to other people’s patient-physician relationships, and in contexts like  
81 medical education, conduct within these relationships can affect the quality of medical care  
82 across society as a whole. Of course, most individual patients might prefer that *his/her* physician  
83 is exclusively concerned with that individual’s welfare, while *other people’s* physicians keep  
84 also that individual’s interests in mind when caring for their patients. But it would be  
85 unreasonable to expect anybody else to accept such an arrangement, or to think that the  
86 principles of medical ethics should make special exceptions for one individual’s well-being but  
87 not for others.

88       These considerations suggest that, in seeking an alternative principle, an important  
89 consideration is whether and how it would be reasonable for all individual patients to want their  
90 physicians to weigh the interests of patients and third parties, taking into account that all are  
91 patients (from the perspective of the individual patient-physician relationships) *and* third parties  
92 (from the perspective of other such relationships). This perspective is an application of the  
93 Kantian ideal of living according to principles that the individual could also will that other  
94 people should live by.<sup>18,19</sup> But this ethical thinking has intuitive appeal even prior to  
95 philosophical argument. When parents teach morality to children and adolescents, for instance, it  
96 is natural to invite children to imagine what the world would be like if everyone behaved (or

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97 misbehaved) in some way.

98       There are good reasons for wanting physicians to be especially concerned with their  
99 patients' welfare, in ways that go beyond the humane concern they have for everyone else.  
100 Patients follow physicians' advice because of the belief that such advice is given for that  
101 individual patient's benefit rather than for the benefit of strangers. Patients confide in physicians  
102 because individual patients expect physicians to keep information confidential even when (or  
103 especially when) others might profit from learning them. This trust has great therapeutic value,  
104 and would not be possible if physicians did not give high priority to the interests of their patients.  
105 But while physicians should give high priority to their patients' welfare, they should not give  
106 *absolute* priority. In some cases, physicians should be willing to accept compromises in the care  
107 of their patients for the sake of third parties—in particular, as in clinical research and in medical  
108 education, when such compromises are necessary to sustain competent medical practice as a  
109 whole.  
110

#### 111 What Can Reasonably Be Asked of Patients?

112       If all patients were to refuse to participate in medical education out of concern for their  
113 own health, the health of all patients would be much worse-served. Therefore, there is a shared  
114 interest and responsibility in maintaining the quality of medical care, which depends on the  
115 involvement of patients in medical education.

116       Some evidence suggests that medical educators and trainees have, to this point, done a  
117 poor job of honestly presenting these tradeoffs and their necessity to patients.  
118 source not found<sup>Error: Reference source not found,20,21,22</sup> Much as with clinical research, empirical studies of

119 patients' reasons for participating in medical education reveal a mixture of self-interested and  
120 altruistic motives,Error: Reference source not found<sup>Error: Reference source not found,23</sup> and trainees appear to  
121 underestimate the extent to which patients are altruistically motivated.Error: Reference source  
122 not found One study suggests that a patient is more willing to consent to a student performing  
123 procedures on him or her when that patient has already established a relationship and rapport  
124 with the specific student.<sup>24</sup> Patients might be more motivated by the thought of contributing to a  
125 particular trainee's education than by the thought of contributing to medical education in the  
126 abstract.

127       Alternatively, one concern is that proclaiming a duty to participate in medical education  
128 might imply that patients do not have the right to withhold consent from procedures by trainees,  
129 thereby compromising patients' rights to bodily integrity.<sup>25</sup> On the contrary, patients' duties to  
130 participate in medical education might be compared to duties of charity, which allow for  
131 considerable individual discretion about how and when those duties are discharged. There are  
132 many patient and clinician characteristics that could prompt a patient's legitimate refusal to  
133 participate in a specific circumstance. Some patients (for instance, those with histories of sexual  
134 abuse) might refuse intimate examinations by students while being willing to undergo medical  
135 procedures. A particular trainee's or attending physician's self-assured manner might put off one  
136 patient, while putting a different patient entirely at ease. Some parents might allow residents and  
137 fellows to perform inpatient procedures on their child, while still insisting that the child is cared  
138 for by an attending physician in clinic. While patients should bear a reasonable share of the  
139 burdens of medical education, this does not require them to accede to each and every such  
140 request.

142 Proposals

143           Some practical measures to address these problems include general issues of *mitigating*  
144 *risk* and *improving communication*. The risks associated with medical education can be mitigated  
145 beforehand by better preparing trainees before real-life procedures with rubber models, trained  
146 patients, cadavers, and computer simulations. Such risks can also be mitigated during  
147 performance of certain interventions with appropriate supervision, and also by ensuring the  
148 availability of equipment to reduce complications—such as standardized procedure kits and  
149 ultrasound devices for line placement.

150           Improving communication is crucial for ensuring meaningful informed consent; it also  
151 enhances patients' satisfaction and their sense of participation in the educational process.  
152 Reference source not found Patients and trainees must share the attitude that trainees are full-  
153 fledged members of the medical team, who share responsibility for patient care as well as their  
154 own learning. In outpatient clinics, attending physicians should take the opportunity to discuss  
155 the place of trainees with patients and to request permission for the trainee's participation at the  
156 beginning of the encounter. Such discussions are not always possible on inpatient services,  
157 especially when patients are admitted overnight or when multiple patients are admitted at the  
158 same time. In these circumstances, attending physicians should make efforts near the time of  
159 admission to explain to patients their role in the medical team and their ultimate personal  
160 responsibility for the care that patients receive under their supervision.

161           Such preliminary conversations can facilitate (but do substitute for Error: Reference  
162 source not found<sup>Error: Reference source not found</sup>) more specific informed consent when procedures are

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163 medically indicated. Teaching hospitals should also consider systems-level changes to facilitate

164 informed consent—for instance, adding text to pre-printed consent forms when trainees are

165 involved in procedures, which may serve as an the beginning of more detailed conversations.

166 While such efforts cannot eliminate the risks involved in medical education, they can foster more

167 open and, ultimately, more satisfying relationships between patients and trainees.

168

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