1.2.11 Ethically Sound Innovation in Medical Practice

Innovation in medicine can span a wide range of activities. It encompasses not only improving an existing intervention, using an existing intervention in a novel way, or translating knowledge from one clinical context into another but also developing or implementing new technologies to enhance diagnosis, treatment, and health care operations. Innovation shares features with both research and patient care, but it is distinct from both.

When physicians participate in developing and disseminating innovative practices, they act in accord with professional responsibilities to advance medical knowledge, improve quality of care, and promote the well-being of individual patients and the larger community. Similarly, these responsibilities are honored when physicians enhance their own practices by expanding the range of tools, techniques, or interventions they employ in providing care.

Individually, physicians who are involved in designing, developing, disseminating, or adopting innovative modalities should:

- (a) Innovate on the basis of sound scientific evidence and appropriate clinical expertise.
- (b) Seek input from colleagues or other medical professionals in advance or as early as possible in the course of innovation.
- (c) Design innovations so as to minimize risks to individual patients and maximize the likelihood of application and benefit for populations of patients.
- (d) Be sensitive to the cost implications of innovation.
- (e) Be aware of influences that may drive the creation and adoption of innovative practices for reasons other than patient or public benefit.

When they offer existing innovative diagnostic or therapeutic services to individual patients, physicians must:

- (f) Base recommendations on patients' medical needs.
- (g) Refrain from offering such services until they have acquired appropriate knowledge and skills.
- (h) Recognize that in this context informed decision making requires the physician to disclose:
 - (i) how a recommended diagnostic or therapeutic service differs from the standard therapeutic approach if one exists;
 - (ii) why the physician is recommending the innovative modality;
 - (iii) what the known or anticipated risks, benefits, and burdens of the recommended therapy and alternatives are;
 - (iv) what experience the professional community in general and the physician individually has had to date with the innovative therapy;
 - (v) what conflicts of interest the physician may have with respect to the recommended therapy.

- (i) Discontinue any innovative therapies that are not benefiting the patient.
- (j) Be transparent and share findings from their use of innovative therapies with peers in some manner. To promote patient safety and quality, physicians should share both immediate or delayed positive and negative outcomes.

To promote responsible innovation, health care institutions and the medical profession should:

- (k) Ensure that innovative practices or technologies that are made available to physicians meet the highest standards for scientifically sound design and clinical value.
- (l) Require that physicians who adopt innovations into their practice have relevant knowledge and skills.
- (m) Provide meaningful professional oversight of innovation in patient care.
- (n) Encourage physician-innovators to collect and share information about the resources needed to implement their innovations safely, effectively, and equitably.

AMA Principles of Medical Ethics: V,VIII

Background report(s):

CEJA 2-A-14 Ethically Sound Innovation in Medical Practice

REPORT 2 OF THE COUNCIL ON ETHICAL AND JUDICIAL AFFAIRS (A-14) Ethically Sound Innovation in Medical Practice (Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws)

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The word "innovation" can refer to many things in medicine—from improving an existing intervention, to introducing an innovation into one's own clinical practice for the first time, to using an existing intervention in a novel way or translating knowledge and skill from one clinical context into a new one. Innovation shares features with both research and clinical care but is distinct from both. Physicians' obligations to advance knowledge and to enhance the quality and safety of patient care argue for a general obligation to participate in innovation. This report by the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs examines the conditions for ethical innovations and the ethical responsibilities of physicians who participate in designing, developing, disseminating, or adopting innovative and as yet unproven modalities.

Ethically sound innovation is based on good scientific evidence and principles, is developed with input from peers, minimizes risks to patients while maximizing benefits for patient populations, and is sensitive to cost implications as well as potential for conflicts of interest. When physicians offer innovative diagnostic or therapeutic interventions to individual patients, ethical practice requires that physicians be transparent about the status of the innovation in the profession and their own experience with it and their rationale for offering the innovation, in addition to informing the patient about anticipated risks and benefits, and any conflicts of interest the physician may have with respect to the innovation.

Physicians collectively have a responsibility to promote appropriate knowledge, skills, and experience; ensure meaningful professional oversight of innovation; and promote innovation that will result in higher quality, more affordable, and more accessible care for patients.

REPORT OF THE COUNCIL ON ETHICAL AND JUDICIAL AFFAIRS

CEJA Report 2-A-14

Subject: Ethically Sound Innovation in Medical Practice

Presented by: Susan Dorr Goold, MD, Chair

Referred to: Reference Committee on Amendments to Constitution and Bylaws

(Lynn Parry, MD, Chair)

The AMA's *Code of Medical Ethics* provides extensive guidance for physicians in various contexts of clinical practice and in clinical research. In its review of the *Code*, however, the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs (CEJA) realized that the *Code* provides little if any guidance with respect to innovation in medicine. The present report identifies key issues relevant to innovation and provides guidance for ethically sound practice in this area.

CHARACTERIZING INNOVATION IN MEDICINE

The term "innovation" can refer to many things in medicine. For example, it can refer to improving an existing intervention or introducing an intervention into one's own clinical practice for the first time. Or it can refer to using an existing intervention in a novel way (e.g., off-label use of an approved drug), or to applying concepts associated with a particular condition to a different condition or bodily system.

Some have sought to define innovation by distinguishing it from research, focusing on seeming contrasts in their respective focus and goals, methods, risks, outcomes, or effects on clinical practice. For example, where research focuses on benefits for populations of patients, innovation often targets individual patients, such as patients with a particular rare disease or for whom a standard therapy is ineffective (such as "n-of-1" trials).[1,2] Where research adheres to protocols with established methods, criteria for selecting specific participant populations, and specific, clearly defined outcome measures, innovation often modifies techniques as it progresses, may select different participants over time, or may redefine goals.[3] Research is characterized as drawing conclusions that are generalizable to large populations of patients, while innovation typically draws conclusions that are confined to a single patient or small subset of patients,[3] though innovations may generalize to larger patient populations over time, and may or may not require formal research protocols to justify widespread clinical adoption.[3,4].

Others have noted similarities between research and innovation in order to distinguish innovation from clinical practice (i.e., in shared aims of learning and improving treatments,[4] or as being riskier or more burdensome than clinical treatment) [5,6].

^{*}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 be amended, except to clarify the meaning of the report and only with the concurrence of the Council.

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 2 of 11

Still others define innovation as being typically evolutionary, building incrementally on new knowledge,[7] which nonetheless over time may come to seem like a revolutionary change in practice.

Finally, some view innovation as falling on a continuum between clinical practice and clinical research.[8] For example, the Belmont Report, the foundation for research ethics in the United States, characterizes innovation as activity that departs in a "significant way from standard or accepted practice" yet does not automatically qualify as research just because it is "new, untested or different."[9]

However, as Kass and colleagues note, "a growing number of activities in health care cannot be comfortably classified as either research or therapy, the one excluding the other." [5] For example, the distinction between seeking to benefit the individual patient versus seeking generalizable knowledge to benefit populations is critiqued for being overly subjective, [6] and for underappreciating how both research and clinical practice can contribute to learning, [5]

Both research and innovation have been distinguished from clinical treatment as carrying greater risk, in part because they involve unproven interventions. However, both research and clinical practice carry risks and burdens.[2] Nor are outcomes always better for patients in clinical practice than for research participants.[10,11] In fact as many as 50 percent of interventions in clinical practice lack adequate evidence of effectiveness,[5,12] while both research and clinical practice impose burdens beyond those of interventions themselves that are not related to outcomes—for research, the requirements of the protocol, for example; for clinical practice, repeat office visits, wait time, or paperwork.[13,6] In some areas of medicine, enrolling a patient in a research protocol is considered the standard of care—for example, pediatric cancers. Likewise, although research typically involves specific and discrete protocols that dictate the course of action, under the rubric of evidence-based medicine clinical practice is also increasingly expected to conform to guidelines.[5]

ETHICS & INNOVATION

 Physicians' obligations to advance knowledge [14] and to enhance the quality and safety of health care [15–17] argue for a general obligation to participate in innovation. The fact that the boundaries among research, innovation, and clinical practice are increasingly blurred does not mean that characteristics of ethically sound innovation cannot be identified. Indeed, identifying such characteristics will help clarify expectations for physicians' professional conduct to inform physicians' judgments about their own innovative activities.

Activities across the research-innovation-clinical care continuum share a common ethical foundation in physicians' professional commitments to safeguard patient well-being and ensure that the interests of current and future patients are not compromised.

Conditions for Sound Innovation

- More than 20 years ago, Moore identified critical aspects for responsible innovation in surgery.[18,cf.19,3] First, innovation must be scientifically well grounded—there must be reasonable evidence from animal studies or other sources that a proposed innovation is feasible and
- likely to be effective. Second, innovators must have appropriate skills and knowledge. Third, innovation should focus on the interests of patients, not the interests of innovators or their

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 3 of 11

institutions. Lastly, innovation should be reviewed and discussed openly with peers. This analysis of aspects of responsible surgical innovation generalizes to medical innovation, as well. Evidence Base. Requiring that a proposed innovation have a scientific justification protects the interests of patients, helps to ensure that the innovation is medically credible and amplifies the chance that other physicians will be able to introduce the innovation successfully in their own practices. Further, while innovation often relies on intuition and incremental advances in knowledge, making it difficult to reduce innovation to specific, discrete protocols, it is desirable to structure innovation in a way that maximizes objectivity, helps enable others to replicate it, and enhances the chance to gain meaningful knowledge.[5,13] For example, a proposed innovation could identify and clarify the types of patients who might benefit most, standardize the process or procedures used, and resolve technical problems in applying the procedure.[20]

Knowledge, Skill & Experience. Requiring that innovators have—or acquire—appropriate knowledge, skill, and experience is also in the interests of patients. There is a "learning curve" associated with any innovation, whether an innovation is new to medicine or simply new to an individual physician's practice, and until physicians develop competence, outcomes may be uncertain, while morbidity and mortality may be significant.[23] Laparoscopic cholecystectomy provides an example of the importance of the learning curve and the necessity of having a mechanism to gather data about the outcome of innovation.[21] The procedure was touted as offering shorter hospital stays and lower discomfort for patients. The randomized trials that were carried out were not large enough to detect any relevant concerns. However, as the procedure became widespread it was not until a state health department established a clinical registry to track data that it became clear the surgery led to severe complications.[21] When there is unresolved controversy about an innovation or its value, physicians must make difficult choices before introducing it into their own practice, and the balance of harm and benefit may shift over the course of introducing the innovation.[22]

 Identifying strategies to limit the harms associated with the learning curve is important for protecting patients. For example, using simulations when possible can enable physicians to develop needed expertise without exposing patients to undue risk.[23,24] Physicians can collaborate with colleagues to manage the learning process through institutional credentialing mechanisms to reduce the likelihood that a physician will inappropriately use an innovative intervention with patients before he or she has acquired the skill to do so safely.[23,3,25] (The pathway of credentialing and privileging may also be appropriate where the innovation as such is not novel, but is new to the physician.)

Professional societies can play a significant role by helping to define the minimum skills and baseline competence physicians must demonstrate before introducing an innovation into their practices. [23] Professional societies can also contribute by creating "hands on" courses for new techniques, [24] and can organize and support mentorship programs where individuals with experience with a particular method or procedure teach new users. [22,24] In some cases, physicians might rely on industry representatives to demonstrate proper use of an innovative device. Industry representatives, in this capacity, play an important role in patient safety and quality of care, but physicians have an ethical responsibility to maintain patient privacy, confidentiality, and quality patient care, [26] and should exercise due diligence in adopting innovations marketed by manufacturers.

<u>Focus on Patient Benefit</u>. Requiring that efforts to innovate be directed first and foremost toward benefit for the patient(s), not benefit for the innovator, is in keeping with physicians' core fiduciary

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 4 of 11

responsibilities as professionals.[14,28] Physician-innovators may gain personal financial benefits, advance their careers, or garner prestige or create a competition edge for themselves or their institutions but that should not be the primary impetus to innovate [18,cf.6,7,29,30]. Entrepreneurship, career development, and financial gain undoubtedly can drive individual and institutional efforts to develop and market innovations, and to the extent that these increase innovation and progress in medicine, they should be supported—for example, by granting patents on devices.[29] Yet because the physician's primary responsibility is always to the patient, physicians have an obligation at minimum to disclose conflicts of interest to patients, and more broadly to resolve conflicts in favor of the patient.[31,32]

Physicians should be sensitive to the outside forces that might drive the creation and adoption of innovative practices for reasons other than patient benefit. For example, in the 1990s, physicians and payers faced political pressures from breast cancer patients, lobbyists, and patient advocate groups to provide (and pay for) high-dose chemotherapy and autologous bone marrow transplant (ABMT) to treat advanced stage cancer, despite lack of evidence for its efficacy.[33] Over 41,000 patients were exposed to expensive and very toxic treatment before ABMT was proven in formal clinical trials to be no better than existing, proven treatments.[33]

 Consultation & Oversight. Consulting with colleagues or other professionals in relevant specialties before innovating in patient care can help ensure that a proposed innovation has been objectively considered, is well grounded and minimizes risk. The value of consultation is reflected in the Declaration of Helsinki, which recommends that physicians seek expert advice before using an unproven intervention in patient care.[2] But what form of oversight or consultation, if any, is appropriate for activities that fall somewhere between research and clinical care?

At its simplest, "consultation" can mean seeking input from a colleague before modifying an accepted intervention during the course of caring for an individual patient. Or it can mean discussing a new idea for improving an accepted intervention with another physician in the local community or a colleague in a different specialty who might be able to offer insight. At its most complex, "consultation" might involve formal review by an institutional body charged with overseeing innovation in patient care, such as Stanford University's practice of convening an "innovative care committee" to review proposed innovations.[25]

Formal review has value insofar as it calls for well-thought out description of and justification for a proposed innovation, systematically brings multiple perspectives to bear, and emphasizes balancing anticipated benefits and risks to protect patients. However, Institutional Review Board (IRB) review as such has also been criticized for causing "delays, confusion, and frustrations" at the boundaries of clinical care and research and for overprotecting patients from low risk interventions that could contribute to health care safety and quality.[5] Striking a balance between supporting robust innovation and protecting the well-being of patients is key. The greater the departure from accepted treatment or the more serious the foreseeable risks for the patient, the stronger is the argument that physician-innovators should seek input from colleagues and other knowledgeable professionals before pursuing an innovation

 Institutions can contribute by creating clear strategies for pursuing innovation and policies to help guide their individual physicians as they introduce innovation into practice. For example, Stanford University's "Innovative Care Guidelines" provide guidance for physicians on the level of review appropriate for a specific innovative practice. A variety of outcomes are possible: the innovation may be judged more akin to research and require IRB review; the risk-benefit ratio may be deemed

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 5 of 11

not to support proceeding with the proposed care as research or innovation; or the proposed practice may be determined not to be truly innovative and thus can be handled through the institution's privileging process. If the proposed care is innovative and reasonable, Stanford recommends the treatment be restricted to a small number of patients (1–5), from whom the physician obtains informed consent (which includes discussing the innovative nature of the treatment, risks, and alternatives), and that implementation of the innovation be monitored. If a successful innovation is to be offered to a larger patient population, systematic study with a formal research protocol and IRB review might then be required.[25]

Colleagues, other professionals in relevant areas of practice, professional societies, and health care institutions can all play a role in providing meaningful consultation, guidance, and oversight in order to facilitate innovation while protecting patients.

Sharing Knowledge Gained. Physicians' responsibility to share knowledge is well recognized.[14,35,2] This responsibility is fulfilled when physician-innovators publish, present, or otherwise make available knowledge they have gained during the course of innovation. This might include sharing outcomes data from short- and long-term follow-up of patients who received an innovative therapy, sharing information about relative risks and benefits (especially unanticipated risks), and disclosing both positive and negative findings.

 Intentionally withholding new knowledge, skills, or techniques for personal gain is "detrimental to the medical profession and to society and is to be condemned." [35] Conversely, innovation introduced prematurely or without significant evidence of its benefit can be both harmful to patients and costly. [36] While it might not feasible to carry out cost-effectiveness analysis in the context of innovation, especially at the earliest stages of an innovation, physicians do have a responsibility to be wise stewards of societal resources. Thus they have some measure of responsibility for collecting and sharing information that can help assess the cost implications of an innovative therapy. Gathering information about the resources needed to implement an innovation effectively over the lifecycle of its development, as well as about risks and patient outcomes, can lay the foundation for subsequent societal decisions about the relative value of an innovative therapy.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PATIENT CARE

In addition to these broad considerations, long-standing ethical obligations in the realm of patient care, as well as expectations for the responsible conduct of research, offer insight into issues that physicians must address when they recommend innovative treatment for a particular patient. Prominent considerations include obligations to minimize risk and to obtain the individual's informed consent.

Minimizing Risk

 When a physician recommends an innovative intervention to a patient, a key concern is whether, and to what extent, a departure from standard therapy poses distinctive risks for the patient [20] and the extent to which that risk can be minimized. The implication is that a decision to innovate in the clinical care of a patient must rest on a physician's well-considered judgment that it is in the best interest of the patient, given his or her clinical circumstances and the anticipated risks and benefits of the innovation, to depart from established therapy in the way the physician proposes. This is in keeping with physicians' general obligation to base treatment recommendations on patients'

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 6 of 11

medical needs.[14,28,38,13]. The physician must also have a scientifically grounded reason to believe that the proposed departure from standard care will provide benefit to the patient [18,cf.19,38], in keeping with the obligation to avoid recommending (or providing) an intervention that is unlikely to achieve identified goals for care [39]. Physicians should not engage in medical practices that have no scientific basis [40].

Depending on what specific innovation is contemplated and how much is or is not already known, it may be more or less challenging to assess whether the proposed benefits of a proposed intervention will exceed its risks. For example, the side effects of an approved drug are likely to be known (or to be reasonably predictable), while its effectiveness in an off-label use has not been demonstrated. It may be more difficult to predict the relative risks of a never-before-used surgical technique, such as different complications or longer healing time.

Transparency & Informed Consent

As for any medical intervention or enrollment in clinical research, the patient's informed consent is required before the use of an innovative therapy. The obligation to respect patient self-determination cuts across the continuum of research, innovation, and patient care. It requires both researchers and practicing clinicians to ensure that patients can have a meaningful role in making decisions about whether to participate in research or what care plans best addresses their values, preferences, and medical needs [41,42,28,43].

 Brody argues that informed consent is best achieved when physicians are transparent about why they recommend a specific course of action.[44] In the context of innovation, transparency entails, at a minimum, informing the patient that the physician proposes to use an innovative therapy and how the innovation differs from standard therapy for the patient's condition, as well as explaining why the physician believes the particular innovative therapy is appropriate in the patient's circumstances. Just as the physician should inform a patient about the anticipated risks of standard therapy, the patient should be advised of the known risks posed by an innovative therapy. However, in the context of innovation, transparency also requires that the patient be informed that the innovative therapy may pose other, as-yet-unknown risks and medical uncertainties.[45]

Transparency is also best served when physicians provide other information patients can reasonably be expected to want to make informed decisions about health care. In the context of innovation, research suggests that patients want to know how much experience a physician has with a proposed innovation. For example, in one survey of 383 surgical patients, approximately 80 percent indicated they wanted to know a surgeon's level of experience with a procedure before making decision about whether to have surgery. [46] Patients also wanted information about outcomes. [46] Physicians can enhance transparency and address patients' preferences for information by disclosing their level of experience with an innovative practice and the outcomes they have had when they introduce an innovation into their practice. For example, they can tell the patient that "To date, I have completed 4 surgeries, one of which required an extra day of hospitalization compared to the standard surgery." [47] Determining when such disclosure is no longer required because a physician has attained sufficient expertise will likely vary with the nature of the intervention and associated risks.

The responsibility to be transparent and candid is fundamentally no different when a physician seeks a patient's consent to try a novel intervention for the first time than at a later stage in the evolution of a particular innovative therapy. Informed consent still requires that the patient be made

aware that a previously untried approach is proposed, what it entails (to the best of the physician's ability to predict), and why the physician recommends it.

BROADER IMPLICATIONS OF INNOVATION

Innovation carries implications for the health care system, and the wider community, as well as for individual patients. Among the most important are the possible influences of innovation on health care costs and access to care. For example, how should considerations of responsible stewardship influence decisions to innovate or disseminate particular innovations?

Innovation is double edged, insofar as it can both be a path to containing costs and a driver of cost increases. "Technological innovation is believed to be responsible for the rise of the cost of health care at 2 to 3 times the rate of inflation."[3]

Nor is all innovation equally necessary—innovation for the sake of innovation alone is hard to justify. As Callahan notes, "[u]nrestrained and cost-insensitive innovation needs to be stifled. In its place must be put a prudent, priority-oriented, vision based on prevention, primary care medicine, and low-cost technologies." [48] Like Callahan, Fuchs argues that an environment of constrained resources in health care, requires a "shift to value-conscious innovation instead of fostering the 'progress at any price' attitude that has dominated biomedical innovation." [49] Rather, innovation must be reviewed for its effects on three areas: quality of care, cost and value. [49] Iserson similarly argues that before an innovation is adopted into practice, consideration should be given to whether it is safer, quicker, more effective, and cheaper or more cosmetic than standard care. [7]

Physicians' responsibility to be prudent stewards of health care resources and to support access to medical care for all people require that physicians take such considerations into account before adopting or promoting innovative and as yet unproven therapies individually in their own practices and collectively as a profession.[14,51,13,38]

RECOMMENDATION

In light of the foregoing considerations, the Council on Ethical and Judicial Affairs recommends that the following be adopted and the remainder of this report be filed:

Innovation in medicine can range from improving an existing intervention, to introducing an innovation in one's own clinical practice for the first time, to using an existing intervention in a novel way or translating knowledge from one clinical context into another. Innovation shares features with both research and patient care, but is distinct from both.

When physicians participate in developing and disseminating innovative practices, they act in accord with professional responsibilities to advance medical knowledge, improve quality of care, and promote the well-being of individual patients and the larger community. Similarly, these responsibilities are honored when physicians enhance their own practices by expanding the range of techniques and interventions they offer to patients.

Individually, physicians who are involved in designing, developing, disseminating, or adopting innovative modalities should:

(a) Innovate on the basis of sound scientific evidence and appropriate clinical expertise;

1 2 3	(b)	Seek input from colleagues or other medical professionals in advance or as early as possible in the course of innovation;
4 5	(c)	Design innovations so as to minimize risks to individual patients and maximize the likelihood of application and benefit for populations of patients; and
6 7 8	(d)	Be sensitive to the cost implications of innovation;
9	(e)	Be aware of influences that may drive the creation and adoption of innovative practices for reasons other than patient or public benefit.
1 .2 .3		hey offer existing innovative diagnostic or therapeutic services to individual patients, ans must:
.4 .5 .6	(f)	Base recommendations on patients' medical needs;
.7 .8 .9	(g)	Refrain from offering such services until they have acquired appropriate knowledge and skills;
20	(h)	Recognize that in this context informed decision making requires the physician to disclose:
21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28		 how a recommended diagnostic or therapeutic service differs from the standard therapeutic approach if one exists;
25 26 27		ii) why the physician is recommending the innovative modality;
28 29 30		iii) what the known or anticipated risks, benefits, and burdens of the recommended therapy and alternatives are;
31 32 33		iv) what experience the professional community in general and the physician individually has had to date with the innovative therapy; and
34 35		v) what conflicts of interest the physician may have with respect to the recommended therapy.
56 57 58	(i)	Discontinue any innovative therapies that are not benefiting the patient; and
39 40 41 42	(j)	Be transparent and share findings from their use of innovative therapies with peers in some manner. To promote patient safety and quality, physicians should share both immediate or delayed positive and negative outcomes.
13 14	To pro	mote responsible innovation, the medical profession should:
15 16	(k)	Require that physicians who adopt innovative treatment or diagnostic techniques into their practice have appropriate knowledge and skills;
17 18	(1)	Provide meaningful professional oversight of innovation in patient care; and

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 9 of 11

1	(m) Encourage physician-innovators to collect and share information about the resources
2	needed to implement their innovative therapies effectively.
3	
4	(New HOD/CEJA Policy)

Fiscal Note: Less than \$500.

REFERENCES

- 1. Larson EB. N-of-1 trials: a new future? J Gen Intern Med. 2010;25(9):891–892.
- 2. World Medical Association. Declaration of Helsinki.—Ethical Principles for Medical Research Involving Human Subjects. Ferney-Voltaire, France: WMA;2008. Available at http://www.wma.net/en/30publications/10policies/b3/17c.pdf. Accessed August 5, 2013.
- 3. McNeally MF. The ethics of innovation: Columbus and others try something new. J Thoracic Cardiovasc Surg. 2011;141:863–866.
- 4. American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecology, Committee on Ethics. Innovative practice: ethical guidelines. December 2006; reaffirmed December 2012. Available at http://www.acog.org/Resources_And_Publications/Committee_Opinions/Committee_on_Ethics/Innovative_Practice_-_Ethical_Guidelines. Accessed September 16, 2013.
- 5. Kass NE, Faden R, Goodman SN, et al. The research-treatment distinction: a problematic approach for determining which activities should have ethical oversight. Hastings Cent Report. 2013;43(1):S4–S15.
- 6. Fost N. Ethical dilemmas in medical innovation and research: distinguishing experimentation from practice. Seminars in Perinatology. 1998;22(3):223–232.
- 7. Iserson KV, Chiasson PM. The ethics of applying new medical technologies. Surg Innov. 2002;9:222–229.
- 8. Singer PA, Siegler M, Lantos JD, et al. The ethical assessment of innovative therapies: liver transplantation using living donors. Theor Med. 1990;11:87–94.
- 9. National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. Ethical Principles & Guidelines for Research Involving Human Subjects. Washington, DC: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; 1979. Available at http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/humansubjects/guidance/belmont.html. Accessed August 5, 2013.
- 10. Vist GE, Hagen KB, Devereaux PJ, et al. Systematic review to determine whether participation in a trial influences outcome. BMJ. 2005;330:1–7.
- 11. Braunholtz DA, Edwards SJL, Lilford ER. Are randomized clinical trials good for us (in the short term)? Evidence for a "trial effect." J Clin Epid. 2001; 54(3): 217–24.
- 12. Committee on Comparative Effectiveness Research Prioritization, Institute of Medicine. Initial National Priorities for Comparative Effectiveness Research. Washington, DC: National Academies Press; 2009. Available at http://www.nap.edu/catalog.php?record_id=12648.
- 13. Faden R, Kass NE, Goodman SN, et al. An ethics framework for a learning health care system: a departure from traditional research ethics and clinical ethics. Hastings Cent Report. 2013;43(1):S16–S27.
- 14. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Principle V. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/principles-medical-ethics.page?
- 15. E-9.14 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-9.14. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion914.page. Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 16. E-8.121 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.121. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion8121.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 17. E-9.032 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-9.032. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion9032.page. Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 18. Moore FD. Three ethical revolutions: ancient assumptions remodeled under pressure of transplantation. Trans. Proceedigns. 1988;xx(1)(Suppl 1):1061–1067.

CEJA Rep.2-A-14 -- page 11 of 11

- 19. Pretz JL, Magnus D, Spain DA. Emergency innovation: implications for the trauma surgeon. J Trauma, Injury, Infection, and Critical Care. 2009;67(6):1443–1447.
- 20. Agich GJ. Ethics and innovation in medicine. J Med Ethics. 2001;27:295–296.
- 21. Marron JM, Siegler M. Ethical issues in innovative colorectal surgery. Dis Colon Rectum. 2005;48:1109–1113.
- 22. Lawton MT. Dealing with the learning curve. ANNS Neurosurgeon. 2013;22(2). Available at http://www.aansneurosurgeon.org/210613/6/3008. Accessed July 8, 2013.
- 23. Morgenstern L. Warning! Dangerous curve ahead: the learning curve. Surg Innov. 2005;12:101–105.
- 24. Rekate H. Counterpoint: learning curve ethics—how much must you disclose? ANNS Neurosurgeon. 2013;22(2). Available at http://www.aansneurosurgeon.org/210613/6/3008. Accessed July 8, 2013.
- 25. Stanford University Medical Center, Innovative Care Committee. Innovative Care Guidelines. 2011. Available at http://med.stanford.edu/shs/update/archives/JULY2011/Innovative%20Care%20Guidelines.pdf . Accessed September 16, 2013.
- 26. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.047. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion8047.page?
- 27. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Principle VII. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/principles-medical-ethics.page?
- 28. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-10.015. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion10015.page?
- 29. E-9.09 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-9.09. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion909.page. Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 30. E-9.095 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-9.095. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion9095.page. Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 31. E-8.03 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.03. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion803.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 32. E-8.031 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.031. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion8031.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 33. Mello MM, Brennan TA. The controversy over high-dose chemotherapy with autologous bone marrow transplant for breast cancer. Health Affairs. 2001;20(5):101–117.
- 34. Office of Human Research Protections. IRB Guidebook. Available at http://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/archive/irb/irb guidebook.htm. Accessed August 5, 2013.
- 35. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics. Opinion E-9.08. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion908.page. Accessed September 16, 2013.
- 36. Prasad V, Cifu A, Ioannidis JPA. Reversals of established medical practices: evidence to abandon ship. JAMA 2012;307(1):37–38.
- 37. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Principle VIII. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/principles-medical-ethics.page?

- 38. E-9.0652 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-9.0652. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion90652.page. Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 39. E-8.02 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.02. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion802.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 40. E-3.01 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-3.01. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion301.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 41. E-2.07 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-2.07. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion207.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 42. E-2.071 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-2.071. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion2071.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 42. E-8.08 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-8.08. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion808.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 44. Brody H. Transparency: informed consent in primary care. Hastings Cent Report.1989;19(5):5–9.
- 45. E-2.40 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-2.40. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion240.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.
- 46. Char SJL, Hills NK, Lo B, et al. Informed consent for innovative surgery: a survey of patients and surgeons. Surgery. 2013;153:473–480.
- 47. Nakaji P, Nakaji N. Point: a physician has an obligation to disclose. AANS Neurosurgeon. 2013;22(2). Available at http://www.aansneurosurgeon.org/210613/6/3008. Accessed July 8, 2013
- 48. Callahan D. Taming the Beloved Beast: How Medical Technology Costs are Destroying Our Health Care System. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press; 2009:218.
- 49. Fuchs VR. New priorities for future biomedical innovations. NEJM. 2010;363(8):704-706.
- 50. American Medical Association. Code of Medical Ethics, Principle IX. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/principles-medical-ethics.page?
- 51. E-2.095 Code of Medical Ethics, Opinion E-2.095. Available at http://www.ama-assn.org/ama/pub/physician-resources/medical-ethics/code-medical-ethics/opinion2095.page? Accessed August 6, 2013.