Henry Ford Health Henry Ford Health Scholarly Commons

Orthopedics Articles

Orthopedics / Bone and Joint Center

7-16-2021

Informed Consent for the Orthopaedic Surgeon

Toufic R. Jildeh Henry Ford Health, tjildeh1@hfhs.org

Muhammad J. Abbas Henry Ford Health, mabbas5@hfhs.org

Meredith H. Hengy

Hannah O'Brien

G. Sal Gani

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarlycommons.henryford.com/orthopaedics_articles

Recommended Citation

Jildeh TR, Abbas MJ, Hengy MH, O'Brien H, Gani GS, and Okoroha KR. Informed Consent for the Orthopaedic Surgeon. JBJS Rev 2021; 9(7).

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Orthopedics / Bone and Joint Center at Henry Ford Health Scholarly Commons. It has been accepted for inclusion in Orthopedics Articles by an authorized administrator of Henry Ford Health Scholarly Commons.

Authors

Toufic R. Jildeh, Muhammad J. Abbas, Meredith H. Hengy, Hannah O'Brien, G. Sal Gani, and Kelechi R. Okoroha



INFORMED CONSENT FOR THE Orthopaedic Surgeon

Toufic R. Jildeh, MD Muhammad J. Abbas, BS Meredith H. Hengy, BS Hannah O'Brien, BS G. Sal Gani, JD Kelechi R. Okoroha, MD Abstract

» In the United States, orthopaedic surgeons have a legal obligation to obtain informed consent from patients before performing surgery; it is a process that includes a signed written document.

» There are specific legal requirements that vary somewhat by state but generally include disclosure and documentation of the diagnosis, an explanation of the recommended procedure, a conversation about the risks and benefits of the procedure, and a discussion about alternative treatments.

» Inadequate disclosure of risks and alternatives is associated with increased indemnity risk.

» Studies have shown that many consent processes and forms are suboptimal.

nformed consent is a legal and ethical obligation of all health-care professionals. This process encompasses the ethical principles of autonomy, beneficence, and nonmaleficence. The concept of patient autonomy allows patients who have adequate decision-making capacity to determine what will happen to their bodies. Beneficence focuses on the promotion of the wellbeing of others, and nonmaleficence means "to do no harm" and represents the patient's right to be free from harm and discomfort, as well as his or her right for protection from exploitation¹⁻³. Physicians should educate patients on specific interventions, discuss the risks and benefits of the intervention, and assess for overall patient competency and comprehension⁴. While the informed consent process has been recognized as an important tenet in medicine for several decades, there are still many challenges to implementing an effective informed-consent process while providing high-quality care and avoiding litigation. This is particularly true in the field of orthopaedic surgery because malpractice claims that are paid to plaintiffs are higher than in most medical specialties, and failure to properly obtain informed consent is a frequent cause for these claims⁵⁻⁷. The purpose of this article is to provide a review of the current understanding of informed consent in orthopaedic surgery, with a focus on practical implementation.

Informed Consent Process

In order to respect the right of patients to make health-care decisions, it is paramount that physicians obtain informed consent prior to subjecting them to treatment and therapies. Informed consent should always be obtained prior to initiating surgical procedures, blood transfusions, anesthesia, radiation, chemotherapy, advanced medical testing (e.g., biopsies), and enrollment into clinical research. In order to make an informed decision, patients should be educated on their diagnosis, alternative treatments and therapies, the proposed benefits of treatment, and possible adverse events. It is important to note that the informed consent process and the informed consent document are 2 independent

COPYRIGHT © 2021 BY THE JOURNAL OF BONE AND JOINT SURGERY, INCORPORATED

Disclosure: The **Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest** forms are provided with the online version of the article (http://links.lww.com/JBJSREV/A726).



entities; the informed consent document is a component of the process, not the process itself. When determining what information should be provided to patients, 2 different legal approaches are widely accepted for obtaining informed consent: (1) the reasonable patient standard, and (2) the reasonable physician standard⁴. The reasonable patient standard is based on what information an average patient would need to know in order to provide informed consent. Similarly, the reasonable physician standard is based on what a reasonable physician would say about the procedure or treatment modality. In the United States, there is variability regarding which standard should be used, and it is essential for clinicians to determine which standard is followed in their jurisdiction^{4,8,9}. In order to evaluate the difference in indemnity risk between the patient and physician standards, Studdert et al. performed an analysis of 714 jury verdicts across 25 states¹⁰. They found that a verdict for the plaintiff was significantly more frequent in states that utilized the patient standard. Furthermore, plaintiff verdicts were twice as likely in states that used the patient standard (odds ratio = 2.15, 95% confidence interval = 1.32-3.50).

When obtaining informed consent from a patient, it is important for the physician to acknowledge and respect the patient's role in decision-making¹¹. Additionally, the patient should feel free to make decisions without coercion. Every step of obtaining consent should be properly documented in the patient's medical record. The 4 steps of informed consent include (1) a review of the diagnosis and the laterality of the ailment, (2) an explanation of the proposed procedure or the treatment/ intervention that will be performed, (3) a discussion of the risks and benefits of the procedure as well as the probability of success, and (4) a discussion of the alternatives, including their risks and benefits (Table I). Following the completion of these steps, it is highly recommended that the physician evaluates the patient's comprehension of steps 1 through 4. The repeat-back technique can be used when evaluating patient

TABLE I The 4 Steps of the Informed Consent Process*

- 1. Review the diagnosis with the patient.
- 2. Explain the recommended procedure.
- 3. Review the possible risks and the probability of success.
- 4. Provide information about alternative treatments and their associated risks.
- *Specific legal requirements may vary based on jurisdiction.

comprehension as it has been demonstrated to aid in patient understanding¹². Because it is possible that no intervention will be performed, the risks and benefits of no treatment should also be clearly delineated¹¹. Patients should then provide verbal or signed consent for the procedure. The person obtaining the consent should also provide a signature. It is important to recognize that the length of time that an informed consent form remains valid after being signed by a patient varies by state and healthcare system. In light of this variability, it is good practice to confirm consent with a patient on the day of surgery. If information pertaining to the physician performing the procedure changes, a different physician will perform the procedure, and/or the type of procedure changes after the consent form has been signed, a new form is required. While the level of detail in which the indicated procedure is described is institutionally dependent, details should be explained in layman's terms to aid in patient understanding and comprehension of the procedure. Lastly, all medically viable alternative procedures, as well as their benefits, risks, and probability of success, must be clearly delineated in order for the patient to make an informed decision. Physicians should also provide unbiased information to patients to allow them to make decisions without feeling pressured. This can be accomplished by providing patients with the facts surrounding the procedure or medical treatment/ intervention in simple language. An assessment of patient comprehension of the overall informed consent process and the use of simplistic language are imperative for the process to be successful. If the patient does not completely understand any part of the process, additional discussion should occur before the patient can be considered informed enough to provide consent¹¹. It is

impossible for the patient to understand the entirety of the procedure from the brief consent process; however, the patient should have a general understanding of the procedure, including all of the major risks and possible complications. Each step of the informed consent process should be delivered in a clear manner, and medical jargon should be kept to a minimum to facilitate patient comprehension¹³.

In a shared decision-making model of informed consent, surgeons disclose all of the necessary information about their patient's condition, including the associated risks and benefits, the various treatment options, and their professional insight, while patients express their goals, values, and preferences^{11,14-16}. Shared decision-making shifts the focus from being based purely on scientific evidence to also including patient and family preferences¹⁷. No one should dominate the conversation. This communication tool helps to ensure that the patient's preferences are in alignment with the surgeon's advice. In an effort to streamline the training of clinicians on the core process of shared decision-making, a 3-talk decision model has been developed and is recommended¹⁸⁻²⁰. This model, which was developed by Elwyn et al., involves (1) team talk (physicians and patients work together and discuss options and goals), (2) option talk (including a discussion of risk), and (3) decision talk (the physician elicits a patient's informed preferences)^{19,20}

Common Pitfalls

Informed consent has become integral to the health-care system; however, there are several recurring issues that arise.



Some of the most prevalent challenges include inadequate consent forms and documentation, patient gaps in health literacy, language/cultural barriers, and a lack of standards when delegating the task of obtaining informed consent.

There are many key elements to obtaining informed consent from a patient that should be represented in the documentation, and for this reason, most hospital systems have consent document templates for health-care providers to use when obtaining consent. However, the current literature indicates that many consent forms are inadequate^{21,22}. A study by Bajada et al. evaluated a consecutive series of 140 patients undergoing elective trauma procedures; they found that 62% of the consent forms did not have a sufficient complications sections, 25% of the consent forms were not fully legible to patients, and no patients were offered copies of the consent form²¹. The researchers implemented procedurespecific complication labels/stickers and focused departmental teaching, which eventually resulted in 100% of the consent forms being legible and having a sufficient complications section²¹. A systematic review by Lühnen et al. examined the quality and efficacy of consent forms via 14 content analyses; they found that the forms were lacking in an explanation of the risks, alternatives, benefits, option of no treatment, and numerical frequencies²². One recommendation for overcoming the issue of inadequate consent forms is to follow a procedure-specific approach (e.g., using procedure-specific complication labels/stickers).

The health literacy of patients is also important to consider when obtaining informed consent. Health literacy is a term that is used to describe a patient's abilities to receive, understand, and apply health-care information in order to make informed decisions and comply with provided instructions for disease prevention²³. Mancuso and Rincon performed a cross-sectional study to assess the health literacy of 175 asthma patients and their desire to participate in decisions regarding their care²⁴. They found that lower health literacy, as calculated with use of the Test of Functional Health Literacy in Adults²⁵, was associated with decreased satisfaction in the quality of care they received, the overall status of their disease, and a lower likelihood of patients participating in their own health-care decisions. In a prospective observational cohort study, Kadakia et al. evaluated the level of comprehension that orthopaedic trauma patients had regarding their injuries, surgeries, and postoperative treatment plans; they found that when patients were administered a questionnaire, the average graded comprehension was 2.54 ± 1.27 of 5^{26} . Only 18.5% of patients knew how long it was expected for them to heal, and 47.9% knew what bone had been injured. Sherlock and Brownie performed a literature review regarding patient understanding and recollection of medical procedures following consent; they found that 21% to 86% of patients remembered what risks or complications had been discussed, and the degree of understanding decreased with patient age^{27} . The challenges associated with health literacy can be mitigated with effective patientphysician communication. In a systematic review, Lin et al. found that risk recall and comprehension were greater in trauma patients when they had received both written and verbal information rather than verbal information alone, and patients were more satisfied with video-based information than written or verbal information²⁸. Another study conducted by Fink et al. evaluated the predictive factors of patient comprehension during consent for surgical procedures¹². They found that the use of the repeat-back technique, where patients repeat procedure details to the physician, was significantly associated with increased patient comprehension. Of these factors, physicians can control the length of time spent with patients and perform repeat-back methods. Therefore, it is recommended that clinicians use patient-tailored multimedia approaches and repeat-back techniques and spend adequate time with patients (between 15 and 30 minutes) when obtaining consent.

Informed consent should be obtained in a language that patients can understand^{29,30}. Despite this standard, physicians often obtain informed consent from non-English-languagespeaking patients by speaking in the patient's language without fluency or using ad hoc interpreters, such as a patient's family members or untrained medical staff^{31,32}. In a cohort study, Hunt and de Voogd examined the informed consent process for 30 Latina patients who were scheduled to undergo amniocentesis³¹. When post-procedure interviews were conducted, it was found that 11 patients required a formal language interpreter but had not had one present at the time of consenting. Furthermore, only 1 of the 11 patients who lacked an interpreter met the parameters that were necessary to give informed consent. In a study by Patel et al., researchers surveyed orthopaedic surgeons and other surgical subspecialists about their language proficiency; 37.5% of physicians who reported using non-English-language skills while speaking with patients with limited Englishlanguage skills were found to be doing so without fluency³². When asked about their actions when obtaining informed consent in the ambulatory setting, 28% of these surgeons admitted that they would use their non-fluent language skills to obtain informed consent if the patient presented alone and it took >15 minutes for a medical interpreter to arrive. In addition to the underutilization of interpreters, the acquisition or documentation of informed consent for patients with limited English-language skills may not be adequate³³. Schenker et al. performed a review of electronic medical records of patients with documented emergency procedures. They found that the charts for Englishspeaking patients had a 53% chance of possessing a fully documented informed consent note, whereas the charts of non-English-speaking patients had a 28%

JB&JS

chance $(p = 0.003)^{33}$. It is imperative that surgeons utilize approved language interpreters and avoid the use of untrained interpreters or those with inadequate translation skills in order to improve patient care and lower indemnity risk. Interpreters are needed to complete informed consent notes in order to ensure an adequate informed consent process.

While not legally required, it is an ethical obligation for surgeons to take the time to understand both the individual and faith-based desires of their patients prior to obtaining informed consent. For example, while Jehovah's Witnesses refuse blood transfusions, some may accept certain blood products such as albumin³⁴. Additionally, some religions are flexible when it comes to their teachings about surgery, and, if inclined to do so, surgeons can enlist the help of a hospital chaplain to work with patients' respective religious advisors in order to determine their wishes regarding a certain procedure that would otherwise be refused based on religious virtue alone³⁴.

Legal Issues

As the concept and application of informed consent in a clinical setting have evolved, it has become an essential social and legal foundation that prevents patients from undergoing nonconsensual procedures³⁵. It prevents physicians from committing assault or battery, which occurs when physicians perform procedures without a patient's consent, or procedures that are different or out of scope from the one for which the patient provided consent. Despite numerous revisions to the concept of informed consent, it is still one of the most cited reasons for malpractice lawsuits^{30,35}.

Malpractice is defined as negligence or substandard care by a physician, either through omission of an appropriate act or execution of an inappropriate act that causes harm to the patient while the patient is under his or her care³⁶. Jena et al. conducted a study on malpractice claims in the United States from 1991 to 2005 that had been stored

by a physician liability insurer; they demonstrated that 7.4% of physicians insured across all specialties had claims against them annually³⁷. Additionally, several studies demonstrated that approximately 15% of orthopaedic surgeons face malpractice claims annually, which is among the highest rate when compared with other medical specialties^{5,38}. Epstein performed a retrospective review of 78 malpractice lawsuits involving cervical spine surgery; 12 of the 63 surgeons who were implicated were orthopaedic surgeons, and 44 of the 78 total cases involved lack of informed consent³⁹.

Not all aspects of the informed consent process hold equivalent indemnity risk. In a retrospective cohort study, Grauberger et al. examined malpractice claims involving spinal surgery in the United States that were stored in a legal database; 153 of 233 claims from 1980 to 2015 involved improper informed consent as either the primary or secondary allegation, and insufficient explanation of the risks and adverse effects was the most common specific allegation (30.4%), followed by failure to explain alternative treatment options $(9.9\%)^7$. Similarly, in a claims analysis, Veerman et al. researched malpractice suits and medical disciplinary board complaints in the Netherlands between 2004 and 2013; in a random sample of 245 malpractice suits involving allegations of informed consent, they found that 67% of the cases involved allegations of insufficient disclosure regarding risk or complications, and 13% of the cases involved allegations of improper disclosure of alternative treatment⁴⁰. Considering the findings of these studies, it is recommended that orthopaedic surgeons focus on the specific steps that are necessary to explain the potential risks and the alternative treatment options for a given procedure.

As stated above, failure to disclose the risks of a procedure in the informed consent process is associated with increased indemnity risk. In a closed claims analysis, Bhattacharyya et al. found 28 malpractice lawsuits against orthopaedic surgeons that cited improper informed consent as an allegation; 20 of the plaintiffs alleged that the surgical risks had not been properly disclosed⁴¹. However, this same study demonstrated that indemnity risk for informed consent lawsuits was significantly reduced when informed consent was obtained by the operating surgeon in an office setting rather than in perioperative holding areas (p < 0.004). This suggests that having the performing surgeon obtain informed consent in an office setting may prevent legal repercussions by avoiding situations where patients feel as though the risks had not properly been disclosed or may have other complaints regarding the informed consent process.

Medical malpractice lawsuits generally span many years, can be costly, and are emotionally difficult for the defending physician³⁶. Schaffer et al. conducted an analysis on paid malpractice claims that were logged in the National Practitioner Data Bank from 2009 to 2014; as of 2014, there were >10,000 orthopaedic surgeons in the United States with paid malpractice claims against them. Payouts have increased more than \$50,000 in the U.S. since 1992; the average payout was \$283,979 in the time period from 2009 to 2014^5 . In a similar study, Studdert et al. examined malpractice claims that were logged in the National Practitioner Data Bank from 2005 to 2014; they demonstrated that orthopaedic surgeons who have at least 1 paid claim against them are twice as likely to have recurrent paid claims when compared with physicians in other specialties such as internal medicine⁴². Hence, it is growing increasingly important for orthopaedic surgeons to attenuate issues related to informed consent, thereby preventing the professional, social, and monetary burden of malpractice lawsuits.

Special Considerations

When dealing with a diverse patient population, several exceptions can be



made to the requirements of the informed consent process. These exceptions include instances when the patient is a minor, when the patient is incapacitated and is unable to consent, and when the patient lacks competency to make medical decisions.

The medical decision-making process for underage children belongs to parents or legal guardians²⁹. Even for examinations that do not include procedures, providers should obtain consent from legal guardians either through direct conversation, written documentation, or telephone communication. There are several exceptions to this rule that enable minors to obtain informed consent for their own care^{29,43}. One exception is when the underage person has been emancipated through a court order or through a situational circumstance (e.g., when said person is married, has children, or is in the military, or when a parent is not available to make time-sensitive medical decisions)43.

There are instances when informed consent need not be obtained from the patient, an appointed surrogate, or a default surrogate in order for the surgeon to proceed with treatment^{29,35}. In emergency situations when immediate treatment is necessary to save the life of a patient or the life functions of an incapacitated patient, surgeons are obligated to forgo the process of establishing informed consent in order to provide treatment in a timely manner^{29,35}. If a surgeon fails to provide lifesaving treatment in these situations, he or she could be considered negligent³⁵. The exception to this rule is when lifesaving treatment has been formally refused by the patient prior to the incident requiring intervention²⁹.

Patients with mental disorders require special consideration regarding informed consent⁴⁴. Throughout the informed consent process, psychiatric patients may face issues with external pressure as well as problems with understanding, making decisions, and taking actions. However, these individuals should not be assumed to be incompetent to give consent to treatment, and their decisional capacity should be evaluated⁴⁴. When an individual is deemed incompetent to make his or her own decisions by a court of law, his or her ability to consent to treatment will then be delegated to a surrogate, which is often a family member but may also be a guardian who is assigned by the court⁴⁵.

Overview

Informed consent is not a static concept. It has evolved tremendously over the past several decades and is subject to change. Although there are many challenges, legal limitations, and special considerations that are associated with the process of informed consent, there are also several proposed guidelines for each step that are important for all physicians, including orthopaedic surgeons, to acknowledge in order to provide high-quality patient care and avoid legal implications.

Source of Funding

No funding was received for this study.

Toufic R. Jildeh, MD¹, Muhammad J. Abbas, BS¹, Meredith H. Hengy, BS², Hannah O'Brien, BS³, G. Sal Gani, JD⁴, Kelechi R. Okoroha, MD⁵

¹Henry Ford Hospital, Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, Detroit, Michigan

²Wayne State University School of Medicine, Detroit, Michigan

³Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan

⁴Law Office of G. Sal Gani, P.C., Lansing, Michigan

⁵Department of Orthopedic Surgery, Mayo Clinic, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Email for corresponding author: TouficJildeh@gmail.com

References

1. Capozzi JD, Rhodes R. Ethical challenges in orthopedic surgery. Curr Rev Musculoskelet Med. 2015 Jun;8(2):139-44.

2. Johansen MV, Aagaard-Hansen J, Riis P. Benefit—a neglected aspect of health research ethics. Dan Med Bull. 2008 Nov;55(4):216-8. **3.** Barrow JM, Brannan GD, Khandhar PB. Research Ethics. Treasure Island: StatPearls; 2020.

4. Hall DE, Prochazka AV, Fink AS. Informed consent for clinical treatment. CMAJ. 2012 Mar 20;184(5):533-40. Epub 2012 Mar 5.

5. Schaffer AC, Jena AB, Seabury SA, Singh H, Chalasani V, Kachalia A. Rates and Characteristics of Paid Malpractice Claims Among US Physicians by Specialty, 1992-2014. JAMA Intern Med. 2017 May 1;177(5):710-8.

6. Tarantino U, Giai Via A, Macrì E, Eramo A, Marino V, Marsella LT. Professional liability in orthopaedics and traumatology in Italy. Clin Orthop Relat Res. 2013 Oct;471(10):3349-57. Epub 2013 Jul 16.

7. Grauberger J, Kerezoudis P, Choudhry AJ, Alvi MA, Nassr A, Currier B, Bydon M. Allegations of Failure to Obtain Informed Consent in Spinal Surgery Medical Malpractice Claims. JAMA Surg. 2017 Jun 21;152(6):e170544. Epub 2017 Jun 21.

8. Xu J, Prince AER. Shared decision-making in vascular surgery. J Vasc Surg. 2019 Nov;70(5): 1711-5. Epub 2019 May 5.

9. Krüger M. [On the judgment by the Federal Court of Justice on living organ donors]. Chirurg. 2019 Jun;90(6):496-500. German.

10. Studdert DM, Mello MM, Levy MK, Gruen RL, Dunn EJ, Orav EJ, Brennan TA. Geographic Variation in Informed Consent Law: Two Standards for Disclosure of Treatment Risks. J Empir Leg Stud. 2007;4(1):103-24.

11. Slim K, Bazin JE. From informed consent to shared decision-making in surgery. J Visc Surg. 2019 Jun;156(3):181-4. Epub 2019 May 14.

12. Fink AS, Prochazka AV, Henderson WG, Bartenfeld D, Nyirenda C, Webb A, Berger DH, Itani K, Whitehill T, Edwards J, Wilson M, Karsonovich C, Parmelee P. Enhancement of surgical informed consent by addition of repeat back: a multicenter, randomized controlled clinical trial. Ann Surg. 2010 Jul;252(1):27-36.

13. Lorenzen B, Melby CE, Earles B. Using principles of health literacy to enhance the informed consent process. AORN J. 2008 Jul; 88(1):23-9.

14. de Mik SML, Stubenrouch FE, Balm R, Ubbink DT. Systematic review of shared decision-making in surgery. Br J Surg. 2018 Dec; 105(13):1721-30. Epub 2018 Oct 25.

15. Ubbink DT, Hageman MG, Legemate DA. Shared Decision-Making in Surgery. Surg Technol Int. 2015 May;26:31-6.

16. Stiggelbout AM, Pieterse AH, De Haes JC. Shared decision making: Concepts, evidence, and practice. Patient Educ Couns. 2015 Oct; 98(10):1172-9. Epub 2015 Jul 15.

17. Spatz ES, Krumholz HM, Moulton BW. Prime Time for Shared Decision Making. JAMA. 2017 Apr 4;317(13):1309-10.

18. Joseph-Williams N, Lloyd A, Edwards A, Stobbart L, Tomson D, Macphail S, Dodd C, Brain K, Elwyn G, Thomson R. Implementing shared decision making in the NHS: lessons from the MAGIC programme. BMJ. 2017 Apr 18;357;j1744.

19. Elwyn G, Durand MA, Song J, Aarts J, Barr PJ, Berger Z, Cochran N, Frosch D, Galasiński D, Gulbrandsen P, Han PKJ, Härter M, Kinnersley P, Lloyd A, Mishra M, Perestelo-Perez L, Scholl I, Tomori K, Trevena L, Witteman HO, Van der Weijden T. A three-talk model for shared decision making: multistage consultation process. BMJ. 2017 Nov 6;359:j4891.



20. Elwyn G, Frosch D, Thomson R, Joseph-Williams N, Lloyd A, Kinnersley P, Cording E, Tomson D, Dodd C, Rollnick S, Edwards A, Barry M. Shared decision making: a model for clinical practice. J Gen Intern Med. 2012 Oct;27(10): 1361-7. Epub 2012 May 23.

21. Bajada S, Dwamena S, Abdul Z, Williams R, Ennis O. Improving consent form documentation and introduction of procedure-specific labels in a district general hospital. BMJ Qual Improv Rep. 2017 Feb 8;6(1):u211571.w4730.

22. Lühnen J, Mühlhauser I, Steckelberg A. The Quality of Informed Consent Forms-a Systematic Review and Critical Analysis. Dtsch Arztebl Int. 2018 Jun 1;115(22):377-83.

23. Sørensen K, Van den Broucke S, Fullam J, Doyle G, Pelikan J, Slonska Z, Brand H. (HLS-EU) Consortium Health Literacy Project European. Health literacy and public health: a systematic review and integration of definitions and models. BMC Public Health. 2012 Jan 25;12:80.

24. Mancuso CA, Rincon M. Asthma patients' assessments of health care and medical decision making: the role of health literacy. J Asthma. 2006 Jan-Feb;43(1):41-4.

25. Parker RM, Baker DW, Williams MV, Nurss JR. The test of functional health literacy in adults: a new instrument for measuring patients' literacy skills. J Gen Intern Med. 1995 Oct;10(10):537-41.

26. Kadakia RJ, Tsahakis JM, Issar NM, Archer KR, Jahangir AA, Sethi MK, Obremskey WT, Mir HR. Health literacy in an orthopedic trauma patient population: a cross-sectional survey of patient comprehension. J Orthop Trauma. 2013 Aug; 27(8):467-71.

27. Sherlock A, Brownie S. Patients' recollection and understanding of informed consent: a

literature review. ANZ J Surg. 2014 Apr;84(4): 207-10.

28. Lin YK, Liu KT, Chen CW, Lee WC, Lin CJ, Shi L, Tien YC. How to effectively obtain informed consent in trauma patients: a systematic review. BMC Med Ethics. 2019 Jan 23;20(1):8.

29. Raab EL. The parameters of informed consent. Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc. 2004;102: 225-30, discussion :230-2.

30. Paterick TJ, Carson GV, Allen MC, Paterick TE. Medical informed consent: general considerations for physicians. Mayo Clin Proc. 2008 Mar;83(3):313-9.

31. Hunt LM, de Voogd KB. Are good intentions good enough? Informed consent without trained interpreters. J Gen Intern Med. 2007 May;22(5):598-605. Epub 2007 Mar 2.

32. Patel DN, Wakeam E, Genoff M, Mujawar I, Ashley SW, Diamond LC. Preoperative consent for patients with limited English proficiency. J Surg Res. 2016 Feb;200(2):514-22. Epub 2015 Oct 3.

33. Schenker Y, Wang F, Selig SJ, Ng R, Fernandez A. The impact of language barriers on documentation of informed consent at a hospital with on-site interpreter services. J Gen Intern Med. 2007 Nov;22(Suppl 2): 294-9.

34. McCullough LB, Jones JW, Brody BA, Brody BA. Surgical Ethics. Oxford University Press; 1998.

35. Rathor MY, Rani MF, Shah AM, Akter SF. Informed consent: a socio-legal study. Med J Malaysia. 2011 Dec;66(5):423-8.

36. Bal BS. An introduction to medical malpractice in the United States. Clin Orthop Relat Res. 2009 Feb;467(2):339-47. Epub 2008 Nov 26. **37.** Jena AB, Seabury S, Lakdawalla D, Chandra A. Malpractice risk according to physician specialty. N Engl J Med. 2011 Aug 18;365(7): 629-36.

38. Rynecki ND, Coban D, Gantz O, Gupta R, Ayyaswami V, Prabhu AV, Ruskin J, Lin SS, Beebe KS. Medical Malpractice in Orthopedic Surgery: A Westlaw-Based Demographic Analysis. Orthopedics. 2018 Sep 1;41(5):e615-20. Epub 2018 Jun 26.

39. Epstein NE. A review of medicolegal malpractice suits involving cervical spine: what can we learn or change? J Spinal Disord Tech. 2011 Feb;24(1):15-9.

40. Veerman MM, van der Woude LA, Tellier MA, Legemaate J, Scheltinga MR, Stassen LPS, Leclercq WKG. A decade of litigation regarding surgical informed consent in the Netherlands. Patient Educ Couns. 2019 Feb;102(2):340-5. Epub 2018 Aug 29.

41. Bhattacharyya T, Yeon H, Harris MB. The medical-legal aspects of informed consent in orthopaedic surgery. J Bone Joint Surg Am. 2005 Nov;87(11):2395-400.

42. Studdert DM, Bismark MM, Mello MM, Singh H, Spittal MJ. Prevalence and Characteristics of Physicians Prone to Malpractice Claims. N Engl J Med. 2016 Jan 28;374(4):354-62.

43. McNary A. Consent to treatment of minors. Innov Clin Neurosci. 2014 Mar;11(3-4):43-5.

44. Amer AB. Informed consent in adult psychiatry. Oman Med J. 2013 Jul;28(4):228-31.

45. Leo RJ. Competency and the Capacity to Make Treatment Decisions: A Primer for Primary Care Physicians. Prim Care Companion J Clin Psychiatry. 1999 Oct;1(5):131-41.