

The Ethics of Deceased Organ Recovery without Requirements for Explicit Consent or Authorization

OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee

*Prepared by: Lee Bolton
UNOS Policy Department*

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Executive Summary

Beginning in 1993, the Ethics Committee (the Committee) developed a series of white papers that are available through the OPTN website. In 2014, the Committee began a systematic review of these white papers to evaluate if each of the white papers were accurate and relevant, and therefore valuable resources for the transplant community. The original white paper addressing presumed consent was produced in 1993, and was written in response proposed presumed consent legislation under consideration in Maryland and Pennsylvania with the following features:

- The potential donor is presumed to have wished to donate if he or she had not expressed an objection during the individual's lifetime;
- If the potential donor had not expressed a preference for organ donation, the objection of the next of kin is sufficient to preclude donation, even though the potential donor's consent is presumed;
- The recorded preference of a potential donor for organ donation overrides the objection of that individual's next of kin;
- All reasonable efforts are to be made to contact the potential donor's next of kin.

Of note, this white paper was written at a time when there was limited access to personal computers and soon after the advent of the World Wide Web (1990). The original white paper proposed using mail to object to presumed consent, and cited Gallop surveys from 1985 and research from 1976.

The Committee determined that this white paper was neither accurate nor relevant. Over the past year, the Committee completed a line-by-line review and a substantive revision of the white paper. The white paper received a new title, contains new content addressing current issues with presumed consent which is supported by citations to current research and literature.

This project was completed before the OPTN/UNOS Board determined that all types of guidance documents would require public comment (June 2016). The Committee elected to follow the new process even though the requirement was not in effect at the time work on the project was completed.

What problem will this resource solve?

The resource provides an ethical analysis of deceased organ recovery without requirements for explicit consent or authorization. This resource should be helpful reference for families or surrogates of potential donors, organ procurement organizations and donor hospitals.

Why should you support this resource?

The proposed revisions to this white paper demonstrate that the Ethics Committee continues to consider and provide guidance on important issues faced by the transplant community. This white paper will be a

resource that members could consult if considering deceased organ recovery without requirements for explicit consent or authorization especially in light of the new strategic focus to increase the number of transplants.

How was this resource developed?

Beginning in 1993, the Ethics Committee (the Committee) developed a series of white papers that are available through the OPTN website. In spring 2014, the Policy Oversight Committee and OPTN/UNOS Board approved a proposed project to review all existing white paper to determine the accuracy and relevancy of each resource. The Committee began a systematic review of 11 white papers to determine if the papers remained accurate and relevant. Some of the more recently developed white papers were accurate and relevant while other papers were determined to need minor revision or substantive revision. The white paper addressing presumed consent was determined to require substantive revision.

Over the past year, Committee members performed a line by line review of the presumed consent white paper and determined that some of the language was outdated, it did not reflect current practice, and the content was not supported by current literature. Committee members identified numerous questions or issues that should be reconsidered while revising the white paper.

In April 2016, the Committee supported sending this white paper for Board consideration.

In May 2016, Committee leadership elected to delay Board consider and supported sending this white paper for public comment.

Which populations are impacted by this resource?

This resource could be helpful to families or surrogates, OPOs or hospital considering deceased donation when there is not explicit consent of authorization.

How does this resource impact the OPTN Strategic Plan?

Increase the number of transplants: Guidance of the ethics of deceased organ donation without explicit consent or authorization could contribute to an increase the number of transplants

Improve equity in access to transplants: There is no impact to this goal.

Improve waitlisted patient, living donor, and transplant recipient outcomes: There is no impact to this goal.

Promote living donor and transplant recipient safety: There is no impact to this goal.

Promote the efficient management of the OPTN: There is no impact to this goal.

How will the OPTN implement this resource?

If this resource is supported during public comment and subsequently approved by the Executive Committee of the Board, it will be available through the OPTN website.

The resource will not require programming in UNetSM.

How will members implement this resource?

Members will be able to access this resource through the OPTN website.

Will this resource require members to submit additional data?

This resource does not require additional data collection.

How will members be evaluated for compliance with this resource?

This resource does not affect member compliance. Members could consult this resource on a voluntary basis.

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Date: June 23, 2016

Note: This report is circulated for informational purposes and to stimulate discussion. The report is a revision of a document previously prepared by the UNOS/UNOS Ethics Committee in 1993.

Introduction

The OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee was charged with revising a previous report submitted to the OPTN/UNOS Board of Directors in 1993 entitled, “An Evaluation of The Ethics of Presumed Consent and a Proposal Based on Required Response.” Many elements of that report remain true today, particularly the ethical arguments advocating and opposing such a system. Significant events and debates have occurred in the transplant community since the preparation of that report, thus, the OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee felt it was necessary to readdress the issue of “presumed consent,” or more accurately described as “deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or authorization,” with updated information and ethical analysis.

While considerable efforts have been made to increase public awareness of deceased organ and tissue donation, data show that the deceased and living donor rates cannot keep pace with the growing need for organs¹. Overall, deceased donation has increased since 1988 (the first year of data collection for OPTN/UNOS) with the exception of a few outlying years. However, the transplant waiting list and waiting list morbidity and mortality continue to increase. In three decades, the national waiting list has grown 8-fold, from 15,029 people in 1988 to over 124,000 people in 2015². Approximately every 10 minutes someone is added to the national transplant waiting list, while 22 people die every day waiting for a transplant³. The transplant community has implemented multiple strategies to increase the number of transplantable organs including: allowing organ donation following circulatory determination of death (DCDD), transplanting organs from Public Health Service increased risk donors, utilizing novel technology to preserve organ function following recovery, and creating the Organ Donation Collaborative, where best practices for organ recovery and preservation are shared nationally among organ procurement organizations (OPOs)^{4,5}.

The Ethics of Consent for Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery

Currently, the United States (US) uses the “donation model”, a consent model for deceased organ recovery that prioritizes the rights of the individual (or of the surrogate decision maker) over the needs of society by requiring authorization or explicit consent prior to deceased organ and tissue recovery. However, in order to evaluate additional strategies that may increase the deceased organ donor pool, the OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee was asked to evaluate different models of deceased organ and tissue recovery that do not require explicit consent or authorization from anyone, a model utilized by many other countries^{6,7,8,9,10}. This model, sometimes referred to as “presumed consent^{11,12,13,14}” or more loosely as “opt-out” in other literature^{15,16}, is more accurately described as “deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization” for various reasons discussed below. The most plausible reasoning for using this model is to increase the number of organs recovered for transplantation.

The following goals of this white paper include:

- 1) Describe models of deceased organ and tissue recovery with and without explicit consent or authorization by the individual or surrogate decision makers
- 2) Analyze the relative merits and weaknesses of each model in the context of deceased organ and tissue recovery
- 3) Explain why shifting to a model of deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization in the US is not justified

53 4) Briefly describe other approaches to increase the number of organs and tissues available for
54 transplant
55

56 **Two Models of Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery**

57

58 Countries around the world use two general models of deceased organ and tissue recovery. One model
59 assumes that society has a legitimate interest in deceased donor organs and tissues and may recover
60 them without any form of permission or authorization from the individual or surrogate. In general, this
61 model prioritizes the needs of the society over individual rights, and is referred to as “deceased organ and
62 tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization” in this white paper.
63

64 The other model presumes that organs and tissues belong to the individual and cannot be appropriated
65 without some kind of permission or authorization from that individual or surrogate. This is the current
66 model in the US, which is referred to as “the donation model.”
67

68 **Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery Without Explicit Consent or Authorization**

69

70 The model of “deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or authorization” was first proposed in
71 discussions in the US as early as 1968 by Dukeminier and Sanders and currently remains under
72 debate^{17,18,19,20}. This model has been ethically justified in some countries either because: (a) the
73 interests of the society (referred to as the “common good”) take precedence over the interests of
74 individual choice, or (b) the consent of the deceased person is “presumed”. These justifications are
75 explained below.

76 *a) Ethical Justification: The Moral Priority of Society (or the “Common Good”)*

77

78 In general, proponents of this model believe that individual needs and rights are subordinated to the
79 needs and interests of the broader society, the “common good²¹”. The state is authorized to recover
80 organs and tissues from deceased persons without explicit consent or authorization to benefit the overall
81 needs of society and to prevent additional deaths due to organ failure. A number of countries in Southern
82 Europe, Scandinavia, and Asia have laws allowing for deceased organ and tissue recovery that generally
83 stand in this tradition^{22,23,24,25,26}.
84

85 In the US, while this model is not allowed for deceased organ and tissue recovery as explained below, the
86 ethical justification is applied to other practices in public health. For example, medical examiner laws
87 authorize the autopsy of deceased persons for unexplained deaths without requiring consent or
88 permission by the deceased person’s family. The justification for this practice is that the health and safety
89 of the public overrides the interests of a deceased individual.
90

91 *b) Ethical Justification: “Presumed Consent”*

92

93 A few countries, mainly in South America, including Argentina, Chile, Ecuador, Uruguay, Panama, and
94 Venezuela, as well as Wales in the United Kingdom have laws that explicitly refer to a “presumption of
95 consent” and allow deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or
96 authorization^{27,28,29,30,31}. “Presumed consent” implies that the deceased person would consent if asked,
97 placing the ethical justification for this model on respecting the rights of the individual while prioritizing
98 public health³².
99

100 Although recent scholarly work and the laws in some of these countries frequently use the terminology of
101 “presumed consent” to represent this model of deceased organ recovery, several members of the
102 OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee argue that this terminology is inaccurate³³. Presuming consent rests on
103 the moral premise that consent justifies an invasion of an individual to support the public’s health that
104 would otherwise be a violation of a moral right of the individual not to be touched. The ethical justification
105 for this model requires empirical evidence demonstrating that most citizens of the particular country would
106 consent if they were asked and had the ability to do so.
107

108 However, most countries with the presumed consent model have a significant minority of citizens who
109 would not consent if asked³⁴. The national rate of authorization for eligible donors in the United States is
110 approximately 75%^{35,36}. Therefore, justifying deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent
111 or authorization based on the “presumption of consent” appears to be flawed⁸. The only remaining ethical
112 justification for this approach is that the interests of society take precedence over the choice by the
113 individual or by the deceased individual’s family or representative, as discussed in the prior section on the
114 moral priority of society.

115
116 Presumed consent holds precedence in other clinical contexts in the US because some medical
117 relationships rely on a presumption of informed consent. For, example, patients brought unconscious to
118 an emergency room are treated without explicit consent by relying on the legal notion of presuming
119 consent, acknowledging that virtually all individuals would consent to life saving treatment if they could be
120 asked. The presumption is morally controversial because if the presumption is wrong, an important right
121 of the patient is violated (the right not to be touched without consent). However, only in rare cases,
122 patients brought to an emergency department would refuse treatment if only they could do so. This
123 raises the question of how confident society must be in believing that the patient would consent if he or
124 she could do so. Since a mistaken presumed consent involves violating an important right of the patient,
125 the ethical claim is that we must be very confident that the great majority of patients would consent. This
126 is not empirically demonstrated when considering consent rates to organ donation^{37,38}.

127 128 *Hard and Soft Models of Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery without Explicit Consent or Authorization:* 129 *the Opt-Out Option*

130
131 Deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization may or may not include an
132 opt-out option. The “hard” approach excludes an opt-out option, whereas the “soft” approach allows an
133 individual or individual’s surrogate, often the family, to explicitly prohibit the state from recovering the
134 individual’s organs or tissues^{39,40}. The majority of countries that have laws permitting deceased organ and
135 tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization allow the individual or surrogate to opt-out in
136 practice, even if the law does not explicitly describe the “opt-out” option^{41,42,43}.

137 138 **Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery that Requires Explicit Consent or Authorization: The Moral** 139 **Priority of the Individual**

140 Even though most countries give some weight to the interests of society, some countries, including the
141 United States, tend to give greater priority to the interests of the individual. Individualism is a key feature
142 of American culture. Many Northern European countries (e.g., Germany, The Netherlands, the United
143 Kingdom (except Wales), and Ireland) and the countries of North America balance the competing
144 interests so as to require approval from the perspective of the individual or surrogate before organs and
145 tissues are recovered from deceased persons.

146 147 **Property Rights of Individuals (The Market Model)**

148 Some view the authority of the individual when it comes to organ recovery to rest on a property right of
149 the individual in his or her organs^{44,45,46,47,48}. Accordingly, if people putatively ‘own’ their organs, then they
150 should be able to have the final say over their organs’ disposition. However, since the notion of a property
151 right to one’s body is controversial and generally not supported in American law⁴⁹, this justification for
152 organ recovery is beyond the scope of this white paper and will not be discussed further.

153 154 **Quasi-Property Rights of Individuals (The “Donation Model”): Explicit Consent and/or** 155 **Authorization**

156 Another approach that relies on the moral priority of the individual is sometimes called the “donation
157 model⁵⁰” Legally, the “donation model” is associated with the idea that individuals have a “quasi-property
158 right” to their bodies, including their organs. That gives them the right of certain kinds of control, without
159 implying an ownership right to buy or sell body parts. The “donation model” requires that society respect
160 the right of an individual to control the disposition of his or own organs and tissues. The model is one of

161 gift-giving. An individual, or in some instances, his or her authorized agent or surrogate, can make a gift
162 of the body or parts of the body even though selling is legally prohibited.

163
164 A gift may come as a result of explicit consent such as the model for informed consent for living donors in
165 the United States—requiring: a) that the donor exhibits an adequate level of competency, b) information
166 disclosure, and c) donor understanding. In contrast, in deceased donation, the gift is given through a
167 process referred to as donor “authorization” based on gift law⁵¹. Registries, such as those at departments
168 of motor vehicles, authorize deceased organ recovery in the form of a gift, and therefore informed
169 consent is not required^{52,53}. (Uniform Law Commission, Donate Life America)

170
171 Just as in other medical consents and authorizations, within certain limits, the gift of organs can also
172 come via the authorization by certain agents of the individual, or surrogates, such as parents, guardians,
173 legal proxies for a patient, next-of-kin, and the like. Typically, such agents must first attempt to do what
174 the patient would have wanted based on substituted judgement and then attempt to make a best interest
175 determination, also known as the best interest standard. These legal agents are considered to have the
176 authority to make gifts on behalf of a deceased person whose organs are being recovered. Such agents
177 also have the authority to refuse to make such gifts, provided such refusal does not contravene the prior
178 wishes of the deceased person.

179
180 *Authorization and/or Explicit Consent in the United States: Uniform Anatomical Gift Act (UAGA) and the*
181 *Donation Model*

182
183 In deceased organ and tissue recovery in the US, organ donation behavior is regulated by the Uniform
184 Anatomical Gift Act (UAGA)⁵⁴. There are multiple purposes for the 2006 UAGA Act: 1) to establish a
185 system that honors and respects an individual’s right to donate their organs; 2) to strengthen an
186 individual’s right to refuse to be an organ, tissue, or eye donor by prohibiting others from overriding an
187 individual’s wish regarding their right not to make an anatomical gift; and 3) to allow other people to make
188 an anatomical gift on behalf of the individual who is incapacitated. Through this law, the individual
189 documents his/her wishes to be an organ donor via a donor registry, driver’s license, or living will. This
190 process is defined as “first person authorization” and is regarded as a gift. First person authorization is
191 not a form of informed consent, as authorization typically does not give each person all important
192 information about the choices presented. Through first person authorization, the individual’s wishes are
193 carried out in the event he/she is eligible to be a deceased organ and tissue donor upon death, either
194 through determination of death by neurological (DNDD) or circulatory criteria (DCDD). Determining death
195 based on circulatory criteria requires that the heart irreversibly stop beating, whereas death based on
196 neurological criteria requires the irreversible loss of all brain function, including the brain stem⁵⁵.

197
198 According to UAGA, when individuals are incapacitated and there is no documentation of their wishes
199 regarding making an anatomical gift, legally identified healthcare agents may represent the deceased
200 patient. However, if a healthcare agent has not been identified, an anatomical gift decision can be made
201 by another surrogate decision maker according to law, such as a spouse, adult child, parent, adult sibling,
202 adult grandchild, grandparent, guardian, or an adult exhibiting special care/concern for the patient. In
203 these instances, the surrogate decision maker makes the decision on the individual’s behalf upon his/her
204 death.

205 206 **Ethical Analysis of Models of Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery**

207
208 In order to increase the number of organs available for transplant in the US, some transplant community
209 members have advocated for shifting the current donation model of deceased donor organ and tissue
210 recovery to a model that permits deceased organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or
211 authorization. The following discussion highlights the pros and cons of the latter model.

212 213 **Arguments FOR Models of Deceased Organ and Tissue Recovery that Do Not Require Explicit** 214 **Consent or Authorization**

215
216 *Organ and Tissue Recovery is a Public Health Priority of United States*

217
218 In the US, many laws and regulations are implemented that restrict the rights of individuals in order to
219 protect the health and safety of the public. For example, seatbelt and helmet laws exist to protect the
220 public. Similarly, because end-stage organ disease has become an epidemic (at least for kidneys), public
221 health measures are needed to increase the number of transplantable organs to improve the well-being of
222 the public⁵⁶. Accordingly, the rights of the individual could be superseded by the need to address the
223 epidemic in a way that increases the number of organs for transplantation.

224 225 *Organ Recovery Rates are Potentially Higher in Countries that Do Not Require Explicit Consent*

226
227 Current literature demonstrates an association between higher organ recovery rates among countries that
228 allow deceased organ recovery without explicit consent when compared with countries that require
229 explicit consent or authorization^{57,58,59,60}. Analyzed data from 22 countries and found that countries that
230 do not require explicit consent had approximately 25%-30% higher deceased organ recovery rates than
231 countries with explicit consent or authorization policies⁶¹. In a systematic review of the literature,) An
232 analysis of five studies comparing deceased donation rates within a country before and after the
233 introduction of policies that do not require explicit consent, eight studies comparing countries that do and
234 do not require explicit consent, and 13 surveys of public and professional attitudes to policies that do not
235 require explicit consent⁶². In both the within-country and among-country comparisons, all of the analyzed
236 data demonstrated increased deceased organ recovery rates in countries that do not require explicit
237 consent when compared to countries that require explicit consent. In a study of kidney transplantation as
238 a proxy for organ recovery, Researchers found that the kidney transplantation rate from deceased
239 persons was higher in countries where explicit consent was not required when compared to countries that
240 required explicit consent or authorization (22.5 versus 13.9 transplants per million population)⁶³. The net
241 kidney transplantation rates of both deceased and living kidneys combined was higher in countries that
242 did not require explicit consent compared to countries with a donation model or that required explicit
243 consent. A separate publication in (2014 found similar results⁶⁴.

244
245 However, the data reported above need to be interpreted within the broader sociocultural context of the
246 transplant system as each country's government devotes different levels of resources and holds different
247 cultural expectations of its citizens toward the donation enterprise, which may explain the high donation
248 rates in such countries. Within both models of deceased organ recovery, models that do and do not
249 require explicit consent or authorization, there is significant national variability in practice. Some
250 countries that do not require explicit consent or authorization require surrogate consent or allow for opt-
251 out options while others do not^{65,66}. Furthermore, there is variability in the extent to which there is
252 monetary support and/or a regulatory requirement for each hospital to have a trained team on-site to
253 discuss the potential for organ recovery with surrogates of critically ill or deceased patients⁶⁷. For
254 example, in Spain, the government devotes extensive resources to educating the public about deceased
255 donation and to hiring and supporting organ recovery staff^{68,69,70}. (These factors likely contribute to organ
256 recovery rates which makes it difficult to differentiate the extent to which each of these factors impact
257 organ recovery rates. Thus, correlating deceased organ recovery rates with the specific type of consent
258 process for deceased organ and tissue recovery remains highly contested.

259 260 *Including an Opt-Out Option or Requiring Surrogate Input in Countries that Do Not Require Explicit* 261 *Consent*

262
263 In countries that allow for deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or authorization, some argue
264 that permitting the option of opt-out, or the "soft" model, partially respects the interests of the individual or
265 family over the interests of society. In other words, policies that allow an opt-out provision are driven by
266 the interests of society, but softened to acknowledge the concern of individuals and surrogates who have
267 strong objections to deceased organ recovery.

268 269 **Arguments AGAINST Models of Organ Recovery without Explicit Consent or Authorization in the** 270 **United States**

271

272 There are many barriers including legal, empirical, cultural, and transplant system factors that would
273 make shifting the donation model in the US to a model of deceased organ recovery without explicit
274 consent or authorization extremely challenging. Such a process would require government action as
275 expressed through federal legislation or otherwise to compel donation, leading to legal and even
276 constitutional barriers. Furthermore, from a US cultural perspective, individual rights are deeply
277 embedded in our values and beliefs. Individualism is deeply woven into US cultural fabric especially
278 within the healthcare system as highlighted by endeavors to promote patient-centered care, informed
279 consent for treatment, and decision aids that foster informed decision making. A deceased organ
280 recovery model that does not require explicit consent would not gain sufficient support in the US to merit
281 a policy change⁷¹. The risks to individuals and to US culture would not be outweighed by the potential for
282 protecting the public's health. Thus, in the US, where individual rights are highly prioritized, recovering
283 organs without explicit consent or authorization is unlikely to be embraced by society.

284
285 *The Supply of Organs Will Likely Not Increase with the Model of Deceased Organ Recovery that Does*
286 *Not Require Explicit Consent*

287
288 The empirical data regarding organ recovery rates demonstrate an *association* of higher rates of
289 deceased organ recovery with a model that lacks the requirement for explicit consent or authorization,
290 rather than actual cause and effect. Variability in the government's commitment of resources to
291 supporting organ recovery and public education, in addition to cultural views regarding organ
292 transplantation, may contribute to these associations. In a country like the US, with a high donor
293 authorization rate of about 70-75%^{72,73}, the additional organs that could be recovered through a system
294 that permits deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or authorization likely would be minimal.
295 Assuming that the deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or authorization model is well
296 publicized and that the refusal rate is already accounted for in authorization refusals, more organs are not
297 likely to be recovered. If a policy permitting deceased organ recovery without explicit consent or
298 authorization creates additional hostility in the public toward organ donation, particularly for individuals
299 who previously may have authorized donation, the additional gain in deceased organ recovery likely
300 would be quite small.

301
302 In addition, other national characteristics that impact organ recovery rates need to be considered, and
303 include (but are not limited to) population size, gross domestic product per capita, health care
304 expenditures per capita, physician density, relative causes of mortality, transplant volume, education,
305 public access to information, religion, and political values/affiliations of citizens and leader. Public
306 education on the importance of donation, government support for programs to increase transplant
307 awareness, support for families when deciding whether or not to donate, and the development of
308 transparent and just policies for organ allocation that are supported by the public may also impact
309 deceased organ recovery rates^{74,75}.

310
311 Incorporating an opt-out option into a model of deceased organ recovery that does not require explicit
312 consent or authorization may overcome legal obstacles. However, informing the public about the change
313 in policy in order to increase the organ supply may be difficult. Unlike other countries that do not require
314 explicit consent, the US does not have the same extensive federal investment in the deceased organ
315 recovery system needed to support an expected increase in organ recovery. Currently, the infrastructure
316 of organ procurement specialists has a high turnover rate⁷⁶. Thus, a shift in policy would increase the
317 number of potential eligible deceased donors and demand for organ procurement specialists,
318 fundamentally requiring a greater investment and re-organization of the organ recovery system to ensure
319 successful increase in organ recovery rates.

320
321 *Opt-Out System Is Not Adequate to Ensure Individual Rights to Refuse or to Presume Consent*

322
323 Adding an "opt-out" provision so that those who oppose deceased organ recovery can express their
324 preferences may reduce the risk of erroneously presuming consent or authorization for deceased organ
325 recovery. Providing adequate information about the process for opting out is necessary to increase public
326 awareness and to minimize negative impact on marginalized populations in the community. Any opt-out
327 system that does not adequately inform US citizens of their right to opt out would be subject to legal

328 challenge. Furthermore, the “opt-out” provision probably is not sufficient to justify the presumption of
329 consent, or in other words, to presume that those who did not opt out would have consented to deceased
330 organ recovery if only they had been asked. We would thus be left violating the rights of citizens at a rate
331 considered unacceptable.

332
333 *Model of Deceased Organ Recovery without Explicit Consent may Increase Distrust and Decrease Organ*
334 *Recovery Rates, Especially among Underserved or Marginalized Populations*

335
336 It is well documented that minority ethnic and underserved or marginalized socioeconomic groups have
337 disproportionately lower rates of transplantation for all types of organs⁷⁷. At the same time, many of those
338 groups have higher rates of risk factors that generate the need for organ transplantation. For instance,
339 African American, Hispanic, Native American, and other populations have higher rates of diabetes and
340 consequently of end-stage renal disease. These populations have a higher need for kidney
341 transplantation than do European American populations, yet they have lower rates of organ
342 transplantation.

343
344 Various factors contribute to the lower transplantation rates among many minority ethnic and underserved
345 or marginalized socioeconomic groups. The causes can be divided into three broad groups: biological,
346 such as higher prevalence of obesity or of immunologic factors common to them but less common in the
347 majority population⁷⁸; issues of the health care system, such as delayed average time before assessment
348 for kidney transplantation for some minority patients or disparate rates of living kidney donation^{79,80}; and
349 issues related to lack of knowledge, and cultural values and behaviors of the groups themselves, such as
350 a lower willingness to do living or deceased organ donation^{81,82,83,84,85,86,87}.

351
352 Much research has investigated willingness to donate among minority ethnic and/or underserved or
353 disadvantaged socioeconomic groups⁸⁸. Many studies of deceased donation have identified common
354 attitudes: higher levels of distrust of the health care system in general and distrust specifically related to
355 organ donation⁸⁹. In qualitative research, interview respondents commonly express concerns that
356 “doctors will do not do all they can to save me” and that “doctors will not use donated organs to benefit us
357 [i.e., people in the same minority group] but to benefit others^{90,91,92}”. Even though transplant
358 professionals know such statements to be incorrect, such attitudes and beliefs are based on long
359 histories of discrimination in health care in general. Although such attitudes and beliefs are changeable
360 by special programs and intense educational efforts for a specific group^{93,94}, they appear to be not easily
361 changed by the general public educational efforts.

362
363 Adopting a policy that permits organ and tissue recovery without explicit consent or authorization
364 potentially will directly feed into attitudes and beliefs of high distrust. Such a policy may contribute to the
365 false perception of prioritizing deceased organ recovery without prior consent over exerting maximal
366 efforts to save severely injured patients of ethnic minority or disadvantaged socioeconomic groups.
367 Furthermore, such a policy may aggravate and worsen the already existing disparities for people in these
368 groups, and further decrease deceased organ recovery rates. Ethical concerns for equity relative to
369 documented need, numbers and rates of organs transplanted, and quality of life all suggest that any
370 policy regarding consent processes for deceased organ recovery should not aggravate or worsen existing
371 disparities in organ transplantation among minority ethnic and disadvantaged socioeconomic groups⁹⁵.

372
373 **Alternative Opportunities to Increase Deceased Organ and Tissue Supply**

374
375 Although increasing the total number of organ transplants remains a priority, changing the current US
376 “donation model” for deceased organ recovery to a model that does not require explicit consent or
377 authorization will not necessarily improve deceased organ recovery and transplantation rates. Rather,
378 implementing comprehensive strategies to improve the systematic approach to organ recovery and
379 transplantation, ranging from increasing public awareness and education, expanding federal support, and
380 advancing technology and scientific knowledge in organ recovery, preservation, and transplantation, may
381 increase the actual number of organs recovered and successfully transplanted. The following section
382 highlights several examples of strategies that may improve deceased organ recovery rates.

383

384 **Increasing organ donation after circulatory determination of death (DCDD) following trauma**

385 Although the number of deceased donors after circulatory death continues to grow, only a tenth (9.6%) of
386 deceased donors after circulatory determination of death (DCDD) are trauma victims. Potentially, there
387 are missed opportunities for DCDD donation in this patient population. Increasing donation rates may be
388 achieved by extensive education and collaboration among involved stakeholders, including OPOs and
389 members of the medical community, to streamline organ donation process via DCDD⁹⁶.

390

391 **Improving the organizational aspects of donation and healthcare systems**

392 Several major reasons for refusal to consent to donate organs are based on a lack of understanding, lack
393 of trust, and misgiving of families. The current consent rate in the US is 26 donors/million. Educational
394 efforts targeted at specific populations, such as people in minority and lower socio-economic status, show
395 mixed results in increasing donation. While studies have shown the donation rate is not related to socio-
396 economic indicators, donation rates correlate with organizational improvements using culturally congruent
397 in-hospital coordinators⁹⁷. Statutory in-patient coordinators and integrated healthcare systems are
398 essential to improve consent and donation rates⁹⁸.

399

400 **Improvement of organ preservation and resuscitation techniques**

401 Organ preservation and resuscitation techniques need to be employed more frequently to increase organ
402 survival from expanded criteria donors. Expanded donor criteria correlate with delayed graft function.
403 While the risk for delayed graft function is multi-factorial, machine perfusion can reduce delayed graft
404 function from 38% to 23%. Composite risk scoring systems need to be developed and indications for
405 machine perfusion should be identified. Advances in this technology may lead to increase in acceptance
406 of DCDD donors and expanded criteria donors^{99,100}.

407

408 **Implementation of ethically and socially acceptable features of the Spanish model**

409 Spain has the highest rate of deceased organ donation in the world (33-35 donors per million
410 population)^{101,102}. The US should consider adopting some of the organizational factors used in Spain,
411 which may lead to increased organ donation rates. Organizational factors include increasing political and
412 legal support of transplant and organ procurement professionals, implementing a comprehensive program
413 of education, encouraging collaborative communication, improving public relations, and developing
414 hospital reimbursement^{103,104,105}.

415

416 Reimbursement for medical resources is imperative. In Spain, all hospitals are public and have no vested
417 interest based on finances. Although cities in the United States have more ICU beds than they can fill,
418 smaller community hospitals may not have enough resources to accommodate acutely injured patients
419 who are potential donors. Identification of and appropriate medical management of potential donors is
420 very important, which requires education in medical management and regarding ethical concerns or
421 challenges surrounding donation.

422

423 Universal access to healthcare, including organ transplantation, leads to solidarity, trust, and positive
424 attitude towards the transplant profession. The Organ Donation Breakthrough Collaborative work in the
425 US improved the organ recovery rates significantly through better coordination between hospitals and
426 Organ Procurement Organizations (OPOs)^{106,107}. Additional improvement may occur through education of
427 all healthcare professionals in the system, similar to Spanish model. In Spain, all healthcare
428 professionals who are in acute care settings are offered training in³³

429

- 430 • Maximization of donation by donor detection
- 431 • Determination of death by neurological criteria
- 432 • Donor management
- 433 • Family-centered approach
- 434 • Communication of bad news and grief
- 435 • Cultural issues and management of refusals
- 436 • Approach to media and legal issues

436

437 In the Spanish model, critical care providers are key players in donation. In some circumstances, they
438 are paid incentives, however ethical and conflict of interest issues may arise. Full disclosure may help

439 manage conflicts of interest, however, a distinct separation between critical care, end-of-life care, and
440 organ donation must be transparent. In order to achieve an increase in organ donation rates, the
441 boundaries of ethical behavior must be well defined in order to maintain societal trust².

442
443 Additional administrative improvements in Spain involve¹⁰⁸:

- 444 • Quality assessment program
- 445 • External retrospective audits
- 446 • Identification of missed opportunities
- 447 • Detailed protocols to identify causes of refusal and methods to reverse them

448
449 Other countries that have employed models incorporating these processes have found initial
450 success^{109,110,111}.

451 **Reduction of the need for organ transplantation**

452 The transplant community should also invest in public education related to prevention of progressive
453 chronic disease and reduction of end-stage organ disease. This process may be similar to how the
454 tobacco and gambling industry organize campaigns against addiction and its harms¹¹².

455 **Social media and networking**

456 Social media can be used to create a donor registry and increase communication with friends and
457 families. In order to be successful, the efforts need to be persistent and should be complimentary to other
458 promotional activities. In addition, allowing open dialogue over time is required for social media to
459 effectively engage and influence rates of donation and health issues affecting the society.

460
461 Legally sound avenues for conversations about organ donation need to be kept open. Facebook has
462 shown to accomplish this goal in the short term, but like any other campaign, persistence is important for
463 changing attitudes and increasing trust. As stated by Cameron, this “chronic virality” may give social
464 media organ donor initiatives a chance of sustained impact that other traditional mass media campaigns
465 have lacked. Future research should direct focus on improving the durability of using social
466 media^{113,114,115}.

467 **Financial and non-financial incentives**

468 In the US, some have argued that financial and non-financial incentives for deceased organ donation may
469 increase the rates of deceased organ recovery. However, this process remains ethically controversial
470 and requires extensive discussion. Therefore, this subject will not be addressed further in this
471 paper^{116,117,118,119,120,121,122,123,124,125}.

472 **Conclusions and Recommendations**

473 There is a tremendous gap between the organ supply and current demand. In the US, systematic
474 changes in the current organ recovery and transplantation system are needed to increase the organ
475 supply. Some argue that increasing the organ supply may be achieved by shifting to a model of
476 deceased organ and tissue recovery that does not require explicit consent or authorization.

477
478 However, this argument is extensively debated. The OPTN/UNOS Ethics Committee contends that
479 shifting to a model of deceased organ recovery without explicit consent in the United States is not
480 ethically justified for the following reasons:

- 481 1) The “donation model” in the US is current public policy, embedded in a culture of individualism.
482 Shifting this model would require extensive legal and potentially constitutional changes that would
483 challenge fundamental, deep-seated American cultural values.
- 484 2) Changing the model to deceased organ recovery without explicit consent likely would adversely affect
485 the public’s trust in the healthcare system, particularly by marginalized populations, potentially
486 resulting in lower organ recovery rates.
- 487 3) Authorization rates for deceased organ recovery in the United States are already high at 75%.
488 Practically speaking, particularly if an opt-out option is included, shifting the model to deceased organ
489
490
491
492
493
494

495 recovery without explicit consent or authorization would not necessarily increase deceased organ
496 recovery rates.

497 4) Although empirical data suggest an association between deceased organ recovery rates and models
498 that do not require explicit consent or authorization, additional factors such as public education,
499 federal support, and efficiencies in the organ recovery and transplantation system, likely play a
500 substantial role in increased organ recovery rates.

501
502 Alternative options to improve deceased organ and tissue recovery rates exist. These options do not
503 violate individual rights or public policy. Some examples include:

- 504
505 1) Improve organizational aspects, efficiency, and efficacy of organ recovery and transplantation
506 systems
507 2) Increase public awareness of organ and tissue donation through mass media campaigns, social
508 media and national donor registries
509 Promote scientific advancement in organ resuscitation, recovery, preservation, and transplantation
510 techniques
511

¹ OPTN/UNOS <http://optn.transplant.hrsa.gov/> (accessed 11/20/2015)

² OPTN/UNOS <http://optn.transplant.hrsa.gov/> (accessed 11/20/2015)

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