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Big Data, Ethics, and Regulations:

Implications for Consent in the Learning Health System

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Big data holds great promise in enabling information collected in the clinic to be utilized for research, policy, and future care in a virtuous cycle. Many institutions are thus attempting to arrange themselves as “learning health systems” (LHS), defined by the Institute of Medicine as a healthcare system “in which knowledge generation is so embedded into the core of the practice of medicine that it is a natural outgrowth and product of the healthcare delivery process and leads to continual improvement in care.”¹ The stakes for high-functioning LHS are high: \$750 billion per year is estimated to be spent on the provision of healthcare that is “unnecessary, unproven, or wrong.”² Challenges to data use and translation are particularly

pointed in specialties such as cancer, where rapid dissemination of new approaches far
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27 outpaces the regulatory review process, and a high proportion of patients are treated on-
28 protocol or off-label.³

29

30 Current disparate structures for informed consent in clinical care and research pose
31 major challenges to LHS. Despite scholarly calls for integration of these two pillars of the
32 healthcare enterprise, recent regulatory revision and guidance on the topic has not been as
33 flexible as some LHS advocates had hoped. In addition to streamlining regulatory burden,
34 cultivating the transition of patients to participants to big data to clinical knowledge will not
35 only require thoughtful normative frameworks but empirical validity with explicit emphasis on
36 patient perspectives. There is still much work to be done to reframe and advance this debate.

37

38 Our current health system is founded in an assumption that research must be separated
39 from clinical care because researchers work in pursuit of generalizable knowledge—as opposed
40 to the best interests of the patient—and, as such, research participants require additional
41 protections. Certainly, there are many egregious cases of inappropriate conduct prior to the
42 enactment of regulatory protections in the 1980s where this caution proved warranted.⁴ But we
43 have since moved to a system where participants are protected so zealously from unnecessary
44 risk in research that it may in fact be compounding unnecessary risk in clinical care—for
45 example, in situations where researchers cannot adequately compare two standard of care
46 interventions due to regulatory burden. While there are certainly some types of trial designs
47 that warrant heightened scrutiny, there is irony in the tension between providing the best
48 clinical care and being able to study what that standard should actually be. This tension can
49 lead to both over-reliance on regulatory exceptions that are poorly understood⁵ and a lack of
50 transparency regarding learning activities.² All the while, empirical evidence suggests that many
51 patients expect some form of consent for research, and are even uncomfortable with
52 *deidentified* research in some circumstances.⁶

53

54 It is thus complex to establish best practices for the ethics and regulation of LHS. The
55 main proposed ethics framework, by Faden et al., recognizes a contribution to continuous

56 learning as a bedrock ethical obligation for researchers, clinicians, and patients alike.⁵ Under
57 this framework, practitioners and institutions would adopt a duty to “feed information into the
58 system that increases our knowledge.”⁵ Patients would also have a duty to contribute their own
59 experience and information to research relative to the burden such learning would impose.
60 Under this paradigm, contributing deidentified medical records for review or providing
61 interviews to improve the healthcare experience would likely be considered ethically obligatory
62 for patients, whereas being randomized to a clinical trial of a new drug would not.⁵ Recognizing
63 a duty to contribute to learning would also, Faden et al. argue, transform the informed consent
64 process in some cases. If a learning activity might “have a negative impact on the quality of care
65 or impose burdens above and beyond what they would otherwise experience,” informed
66 consent would be sought. But if the learning is perceived to have little effect on interests or
67 rights of patients, such as aggregate big data work, it might not.⁵

68
69 Some scholars have seconded this reconsideration of consent practices in particular for
70 low-risk, low burden, research on medical practice (an integral component of a LHS).⁶ But
71 others have critiqued this assumption of participating in an LHS without specific consent as—at
72 least as of yet—ethically unfounded.⁸ In addition, recognition of such a duty to contribute to
73 learning runs counter to past empirical research indicating that patients generally do not
74 recognize such an obligation.⁹

75
76 The transition to a functioning LHS will thus also have to come to terms with under what
77 circumstances informed consent will be required, and under what circumstances it will be
78 assumed that engagement in a LHS is adequate if there is notice that such learning will occur.
79 Some have suggested that such notice must involve explaining not only that the patient has
80 entered a LHS, but also where to access more information and how to voice concerns.¹⁰ But
81 these lines should not and will not be entirely up to the administrators, clinicians, researchers,
82 and ethicists: both patients—and the regulators who protect them from becoming unwitting
83 participants—must play a critical role.

84

85 One of the most important components of the transition to LHS from a patient
86 perspective will be for such systems to engage in conscious efforts to build and maintain their
87 trust.^{6,11} But normative proposals have not yet fully dispensed with how to address the
88 increasingly blurry distinction between clinician and researcher while still maintaining the trust
89 of the patients served.¹² Empirical work has found that in addition to trust, patient “awareness,
90 knowledge, and understanding of health information technology,” as well as attitudes toward
91 health information privacy and electronic medical records, all influence this delicate balance.¹¹
92 Sociodemographic factors such as education level and age also appear important.¹¹ Survey
93 participants have expressed expectations for formal opt-in consent,¹¹ and a substantial minority
94 (35%) have reported they believe it is necessary to obtain consent each time for secondary
95 research use of data.⁶ Whether these attitudes evolve after greater understanding,
96 deliberation, or cultural transformation of the broader healthcare environment remains to be
97 seen.

98
99 From a regulatory perspective, further challenges arise due to inconsistent regulations
100 or interpretation thereof across federal agencies and offices governing research. One study of
101 IRB members found that members struggle to categorize research on medical practice as
102 needing or not needing IRB review and oversight: “They characterized the central challenge as a
103 balancing act, between, on the one hand, making information fully transparent to patients and
104 providing adequate oversight, and on the other hand, avoiding a chilling effect on the research
105 process or harming the physician-patient relationship.”¹³ Interviews of leaders of LHS have
106 confirmed similar concerns.²

107
108 An excellent case-in-point is the recent regulatory debate over revisions to the
109 “Common Rule” governing federally funded human subjects research. Over six years (2011-
110 2017) stakeholders—including regulators, researchers, institutions, and advocacy
111 organizations—vigorously debated whether to change the regulations to require informed
112 consent for research with *all human biospecimens* (collected in the clinic or research
113 protocol).¹⁴ The regulations in place since the 1980s only required consent for research with

114 *identified* specimens (as well as data), but concerns had been raised—notably during public
115 response to the popular 2010 book, *The Immortal Life of Henrietta Lacks*¹⁵—that research on
116 any type of biospecimen without consent was disrespectful of the autonomy of the person
117 from whom the sample was derived. Ultimately, regulators decided not to require informed
118 consent for deidentified research for human biospecimens, but will revisit how they define
119 these terms periodically going forward.¹⁴

120
121 However, the revisions did create new categories of exemptions from regulatory
122 consent and review requirements for the storage or maintenance and secondary research use
123 of identifiable private information and biospecimens. Previously, full IRB review and specific
124 informed consent (or a waiver) had to be obtained for all research with identifiable data or
125 specimens. But going forward, researchers will only have to obtain “limited IRB review” and
126 broad consent from donors in this situation.¹⁶ Theoretically, these exemptions will make some
127 LHS activities easier to accomplish because practitioners can secure limited review and broad
128 consent when a patient enters the system, which will then follow their data and specimens
129 through any number of secondary research protocol. Being able to keep these data and
130 specimens *identified* will also enable the continued collection of clinical correlates after initial
131 donation. Some LHS advocates had also supported an exclusion from the regulations for some
132 quality assurance and quality improvement activities—but regulators declined to offer a
133 blanket judgment on whether certain quality assurance/improvement activities met the
134 definition of research.¹⁶

135
136 Thus, while some progress has recently been made, a gap still exists between the
137 theoretical ideal and pragmatic and regulatory reality regarding informed consent for a LHS:
138 *who* must request it, *what* types of learning require it, *where* waiver is appropriate, *when* we
139 still need it, and *how* to administer such a system. To close this gap will not only require the
140 commitment of healthcare professionals but the input of patients and willingness of regulators.
141 We have yet to fully achieve the optimal level of engagement needed to translate clinical
142 intervention into big data back into knowledge for optimizing clinical intervention.

143

144 Faden et al. called for a new ethical balancing of priorities based on invasiveness of
145 research.⁵ Empiric scholars have noted that while regulators often focus on the *sensitivity* of
146 data, type of *use* is more often cited as a concern amongst providers and patients and might
147 therefore be a better metric for regulatory involvement.^{17,18} Future empirical and normative
148 work is still clearly required to transition from a healthcare system supported by separate
149 pillars of research and clinical care to one where learning from big data is foundational.

150

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154

155 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

156

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