

Reimagining Informed Consent in the Digital Era: Closing the Gap Between Legal Standards and Clinical Reality

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By: Harry J. Nelson, Esq.

Harry J. Nelson is a leading healthcare and life science lawyer and a partner at the Leech Tishman Law firm.



Informed consent remains one of the most foundational—and most persistently misunderstood—obligations in healthcare. While the doctrine is rooted in patient autonomy, its real-world implementation has largely devolved into a procedural exercise centered on documentation rather than understanding. This paper examines the evolution, current failures, and future of informed consent. It analyzes the structural, cognitive, and systemic barriers that prevent meaningful patient understanding, and the resulting liability and compliance risks. It then proposes a modernized, technology-enabled framework that aligns clinical practice with legal expectations while improving patient engagement and operational efficiency.

This paper examines the evolution, current failures, and future of informed consent, focusing on the structural barriers to patient understanding and the resulting liability and compliance risks, including impediments to the giving and receiving of informed consent, including health literacy, psychological and emotional factors, time pressures, and language barriers. This paper also explores how inadequate consent contributes to substantial medical liability risks and discusses how the antiquated paper-based consent process can be replaced with a more effective and patient-centered digital or interactive consent process. An improvement that will enhance patient understanding and documentation of the consent process, enable all patients to participate more fully in the consent process and be treated equally, and also streamline the consent process while dealing with the ethical and relationship issues that are inherent in the use of technology in this context. The core problem is not doctrinal uncertainty—it is operational failure. The legal standard for informed consent has evolved, but the clinical model used to implement it has not. As a result, informed consent now functions not only as a doctrine of patient rights, but as a foundational element of healthcare risk allocation and accountability.

I. The Historical Foundations of Informed Consent

The doctrine of informed consent emerged in the twentieth century as courts and ethicists increasingly recognized the importance of patient autonomy in medical decision-making. In the past, medical practice often followed a paternalistic approach where doctors made the best treatment choices with little patient input. However, over time, legal and ethical advances shifted the focus toward patient self-determination. Two early court rulings helped establish the foundation for modern informed consent doctrine.

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A. *Schloendorff v. Society of New York Hospital* (1914)

Justice Benjamin Cardozo famously articulated the principle of bodily autonomy: "Every human being of adult years and sound mind has a right to determine what shall be done with his own body."^[1] Although *Schloendorff* involved a claim of unauthorized surgery, the case helped establish the broader principle that medical treatment without patient permission could constitute battery.

B. *Canterbury v. Spence* (1972)

The modern concept of informed consent was developed in *Canterbury v. Spence*, where the U.S. Court of Appeals for the D.C. Circuit established a "reasonable patient" standard for disclosure. The Canterbury court ruled that physicians must disclose risks that a reasonable patient would find material when deciding whether to undergo treatment. The court emphasized that informed consent is based on respecting patient autonomy: "Respect for the patient's right of self-determination demands a standard set by law for physicians rather than one which physicians may or may not impose upon themselves." ^[2] This decision fundamentally shifted informed consent from a professional standard determined by physicians to a patient-centered standard focused on patient needs and expectations.

Following *Canterbury*, courts and legislatures broadened the scope of informed consent throughout various areas of medical practice. Two key cases further defined the doctrine:

C. *Cobbs v. Grant* (1972)

In *Cobbs*, the California Supreme Court adopted a patient-centered disclosure standard similar to the *Canterbury Standard*, holding that physicians must disclose material risks to patients during the decision-making process.^[3]

D. *Truman v. Thomas* (1980)

In *Truman*, the California Supreme Court held that physicians must also disclose the risks of declining recommended treatment.^[4] Together, these cases expanded the doctrine to include disclosures of treatment risks, alternatives, and the risks of declining treatment.

Today, informed consent is required for invasive diagnostic tests, high-risk medications, participation in clinical research, sensitive examinations, off-label uses of drugs or devices, and procedures done in teaching settings. For example, modern practice often requires formal consent for medications like opioids or benzodiazepines because of addiction concerns. Likewise, it is necessary for surgeries, biopsies, endoscopy, cardiac catheterization, and other invasive procedures. This expansion in the scope of healthcare requiring informed consent reflects the broader shift toward patient-centered care and shared decision-making.

Although informed consent doctrine is largely shaped by state law, it operates within a broader national regulatory framework. Federal requirements—including the Common Rule governing human subjects research—reflect a consistent emphasis on comprehension, voluntariness, and ongoing consent. In parallel, privacy frameworks such as the HIPAA Privacy Rule reinforce the importance of patient awareness and authorization in the handling of medical information. Together, these overlapping legal regimes underscore that informed consent is not merely a doctrinal obligation, but a core compliance function across the healthcare system. Notably, while these doctrines were developed in an era of far simpler medical interventions, they continue to govern a healthcare system that has grown exponentially more complex—creating increasing strain between legal expectations and clinical reality.

II. The Persistent Failure of the Consent Process

Despite decades of clear legal guidance, the modern consent process routinely fails to achieve its central purpose: ensuring that patients meaningfully understand the care they are receiving. What courts have articulated as a patient-centered disclosure obligation has, in practice, become a time-constrained interaction followed by execution of a standardized form. The result is a persistent and widening gap between legal expectations and operational reality—one that creates both ethical concerns and significant liability exposure. The system is designed to produce consent—but not necessarily comprehension.

This failure is not attributable to a single cause, but rather to a convergence of systemic, cognitive, and structural factors. Empirical research consistently demonstrates that the consent process falls short. A 2021 meta-analysis found that patients frequently misunderstand or forget key information provided during consent discussions, including risks, side effects, and the concepts of randomization and placebos.^[1] A 2012 study reported that 46.4% of clinical trial patients did not understand that their physicians should not pressure them into participation.^[2] Additionally, it reported that 56.6% of the patients did not understand that they wouldn't receive full compensation for any adverse effects of the trial. Furthermore, a 2017 Brown University study on Oncology clinical trials found that 80% of patients did not understand that there were additional risks associated with trial participation and that the benefits were

uncertain. Another study found that although 51.4% of clinical trial participants rated their understanding of the study they were participating in as “high,” only 14.3% demonstrated a high level of understanding when evaluated. Multiple factors contribute to the failure of consent to be truly “informed,” including limited public health literacy, cognitive and emotional factors, structural constraints, and language barriers.

A. Health Literacy Challenges

Poor health literacy in the general population makes it difficult for healthcare professionals to obtain informed consent from patients for procedures, treatments, or clinical trials. The National Assessment of Adult Literacy found that only about 12% of American adults possess proficient health literacy. Consent forms, created with legal liability and medical accuracy in mind, frequently contain healthcare-specific language written at the college reading level. Unfortunately, for patients with poor health literacy, understanding even the basic elements of complex medical interventions is often not possible. Encountering confusing phrases and concepts can feel overwhelming. This lack of proper understanding leads either to the healthcare provider having to take extra time to explain the matter or to the patient leaving the encounter with an inaccurate impression that can have legal and ethical implications in the future. Despite healthcare professionals consistently striving to explain information clearly, tailor education to the patient’s level, and use visual aids to enhance communication, the risk of non-informed consent remains. Incomplete understanding can lead patients to later regret their decision, fail to follow medical advice, or feel generally dissatisfied with their care. Historically disadvantaged populations tend to be most commonly affected by this factor, including racial minorities, those with low socio-economic status, older adults, and recent immigrants. This places them at greater risk of having their informed consent compromised, which can worsen existing health disparities.

B. Cognitive and Emotional Factors

Emotional factors that can interfere with the consent process include anxiety, pain, a state of denial, or even the general stress of injury/illness. In such a condition, it may be difficult for the patient to process information about the risks and benefits associated with various therapeutic options, alternatives, and potential outcomes. Cognitive factors compound this problem through limitations in attention, memory, reasoning, or executive function, which may stem from conditions like dementia, delirium, intellectual disabilities, medication effects, or even temporary fatigue and sleep deprivation. Significant cognitive impairment necessitates the consultation of the patient’s healthcare proxy. However, it can be unclear where to draw the line between acceptable minimal cognitive impairment and the need to obtain consent from another responsible individual. Even mild or temporary impairments make it difficult for patients to weigh options logically, understand probabilistic information such as success rates or complication probabilities, or appreciate the long-term implications of their choices. As a result, even when providers deliver clear explanations and use teach-back techniques, the consent obtained may not reflect genuine understanding or autonomous decision-making. This creates ethical challenges for clinicians who must balance the urgency of treatment with the need to ensure

capacity, sometimes requiring delays, involvement of surrogates, or repeated discussions to safeguard patient autonomy while still providing timely care.

C. Structural Constraints

Physicians face intense time pressures in modern healthcare settings. Lengthy consent discussions often compete with productivity goals, documentation demands, and other clinical responsibilities. Every minute spent answering questions is one that could be spent saving another life. The steadily increasing patient-to-physician ratio has only worsened this dynamic, forcing many practitioners into the impossible position of being required to provide full information to their patients in an understandable manner, but not having the time to ensure comprehension. These structural challenges hinder the achievement of the idealized notion of informed consent outlined in legal doctrine.

D. Language Barriers

The US Census Bureau estimates that 8% of people in the United States have limited English proficiency (~26 million people). The Public Policy Institute of California also reports that approximately 47% of immigrants to the United States have limited or no English proficiency. Even among US citizens for whom English is their first language, many are not fully literate. Per the National Literacy Institute, 21% of American adults were illiterate, and

54% read at a level below 6th grade in 2024. It is therefore unsurprising when these individuals encounter comprehension issues with complex informed consent paperwork. As literacy rates continue to decline and the non-English-speaking population in the United States continues to increase, healthcare providers must effectively relay important information to these populations during the consent process through translation services and audio-visual methods.

III. Informed Consent and Medical Liability

Failures in informed consent frequently play a significant role in malpractice litigation. Medical liability analyses show that communication failures are often a key factor in malpractice claims. Data from the Medical Professional Liability Association highlight the scope of the problem. When inadequate informed consent was a contributing factor in surgical claims: 49% of cases resulted in indemnity payments, with an average of about \$415,000. When the failure involved an insufficient discussion of nonsurgical alternatives: 50% of claims were settled with payment, averaging \$400,000. In many cases, the consent process becomes the lens through which the entire episode of care is judged.

Importantly, informed consent claims often succeed even where the underlying clinical care meets the applicable standard of care. From a litigation perspective, these cases are uniquely challenging because they shift the focus from technical medical judgment to patient autonomy and expectations—areas where juries are more inclined to favor plaintiffs. As a result, alleged deficiencies in consent frequently serve as a parallel or fallback theory of liability in otherwise

defensible cases, increasing both settlement pressure and verdict risk. In effect, informed consent failures often transform defensible medicine into indefensible litigation.

Cases involving “expectation management” disputes—where the clinical outcome was technically acceptable but did not meet patient expectations—resulted in average payments of about \$309,000, though they were less successful overall.^[1] Many high-profile cases illustrate the potential scale of these claims:

- a \$13 million cosmetic surgery judgment involving consent obtained after sedation
- a \$60 million plastic surgery verdict involving disputes over the scope of the procedure
- a \$111 million orthopedic malpractice verdict involving postoperative complications
- a \$75 million clinical trial settlement involving inadequate informed consent

In malpractice litigation, perceived failures in communication and transparency frequently carry more weight than technical clinical performance. In addition to malpractice exposure, deficiencies in consent processes may also implicate regulatory risk. Federal and state enforcement authorities increasingly evaluate whether patients were adequately informed in contexts ranging from clinical research to telehealth and innovative care models. In this environment, the adequacy of consent is not only a question of tort liability, but also of compliance, documentation, and institutional accountability.

IV. The Structural Limitations of Traditional Consent Workflows

Despite these legal risks, most healthcare institutions still use a consent process that has changed little over the decades. The traditional consent process typically consists of three components:

- a physician-patient discussion
- standardized educational materials
- a signed consent form

However, each part has its own limitations. Consent discussions can be rushed because of limited time. Educational materials are often generic and passive, offering no opportunity for interaction or questions. Printed consent forms frequently contain dense legal language that many patients find hard to understand. As a result, the prevailing model often produces documentation of consent without demonstrable evidence of understanding—a distinction that is increasingly consequential in both litigation and regulatory contexts.

V. Lessons from Research Ethics

The field of clinical research provides a more rigorous and structured model for informed consent, driven in part by federal regulatory requirements under the Common Rule (45 CFR 46), which mandate not only disclosure, but comprehension, voluntariness, and ongoing engagement.

The Common Rule from the Department of Health and Human Services[1] requires that research consent processes include:

- understandable language
- opportunities for questions
- sufficient time for consideration
- ongoing consent throughout the study

In recent years, research institutions have increasingly adopted multimedia consent tools, including interactive videos and digital education platforms. Studies suggest that multimedia consent methods can significantly improve patient comprehension compared with traditional paper forms.^{25 26} These developments provide an important model for modernizing informed consent in clinical care. In many respects, research ethics has already operationalized what clinical care has yet to achieve: a consent process designed not merely to inform, but to ensure understanding.

VI. The Promise of Digital and Interactive Consent

Digital consent technologies offer a practical mechanism to close the gap between legal expectations and clinical execution. Interactive platforms can directly address the structural weaknesses of traditional consent processes by enabling:

- multimedia explanations of procedures and risks
- interactive question-and-answer capabilities
- multilingual access
- comprehension verification through quizzes or teach-back methods
- secure documentation of patient interactions

More advanced platforms capture granular data on patient engagement, including:

- how long patients spent reviewing educational content
- which sections were viewed
- what questions were asked
- how patients performed on comprehension assessments
- when consent was ultimately signed

These capabilities allow healthcare organizations to create auditable records moving from documenting consent to demonstrating understanding. It is important to note that digital platforms do not replace physician involvement. Instead, they allow clinicians to focus on patient-specific discussions rather than on delivering standardized educational content or answering simple, common questions.

From a legal and evidentiary standpoint, digital consent platforms offer a significant advantage over traditional workflows. By capturing detailed data on patient engagement—including time spent reviewing materials, responses to comprehension checks, and interaction with educational

content—these systems create an auditable record of the consent process. In an environment where liability often turns on what was communicated and understood, this level of documentation may materially strengthen the defensibility of clinical decision-making. This shift has the potential to fundamentally change how consent is evaluated in litigation, replacing retrospective testimony with contemporaneous evidence of patient engagement and comprehension.

VII. Systemic Implications

The modernization of informed consent is not merely a technological evolution—it represents a structural shift in how healthcare organizations operationalize patient autonomy, regulatory compliance, and risk management.

Through increasing patients' understanding of their medical options, individual autonomy is reinforced. The use of audio-visual materials instead of just written handouts will assist the millions of patients who struggle with literacy. Multilingual options will further increase health equity by ensuring informed consent transcends language barriers and frees translators from having to go through forms with patients. The digital documentation of patient education may help healthcare organizations demonstrate compliance with regulatory requirements and accreditation standards. Healthcare providers will also benefit from the reduced liability exposure afforded by clearer documentation of the consent process and the increased productivity from the time saved by this digitalization. Finally, this modernization can improve patient outcomes and satisfaction by increasing adherence to treatment plans and providing patients with the confidence that they are fully aware of what is happening to their bodies.

VIII. Ethical Considerations

Beyond the significant benefits of digitalizing the informed consent process, it would be remiss not to consider certain ethical concerns. One of the largest concerns is about privacy, confidentiality, and data security. Electronic consent systems generate digital records that must be stored, transmitted, and audited securely. Key risks include data breaches, unauthorized access, or secondary uses of consent data without explicit permission. Patients must understand that they are consenting not only to the medical procedure but also to data handling, sharing, and retention. Any use of electronic signatures must also meet jurisdictional standards for validity, identity verification, and secure audit trails. Additionally, technical failures, version-control issues, or disputes over who completed the forms and “signed” can undermine legal and ethical integrity. A failure to address these concerns can lead patients to lose trust in their healthcare providers and institutions, driving a wedge into the patient-provider relationship instead of strengthening it.

These risks are not merely ethical—they carry legal implications. Electronic consent systems must comply with applicable federal and state privacy laws, including HIPAA, as well as legal standards governing electronic signatures, record integrity, and auditability. Failures in system design, data

security, or documentation integrity can undermine both the validity of consent and the organization's broader compliance posture. As digital consent becomes more prevalent, the legal standard may evolve to reflect these capabilities—raising the question of whether traditional, paper-based consent processes will continue to satisfy emerging expectations of patient understanding. Ultimately reliance on purely paper-based or minimally interactive consent processes may become difficult to defend.

It is also important to remember that technology should enhance, not replace, the physician-patient relationship. Clinicians must remain responsible for the final consent process and ensure patients have opportunities to ask questions and receive personalized guidance. Technology should be appreciated for its many benefits, but everyone involved in the healthcare delivery process must be mindful to protect the human element in all clinical encounters.

Conclusion

Informed consent has evolved from a doctrine rooted in bodily autonomy into a central component of modern healthcare compliance and risk management. Yet despite decades of legal development, the operational model used in most clinical settings remains fundamentally misaligned with the doctrine's core purpose. This disconnect—between legal standard and clinical reality—has become a primary driver of both patient dissatisfaction and liability exposure.

The persistence of outdated consent workflows in a modern healthcare environment is not simply inefficient—it is increasingly untenable. As patient expectations, regulatory scrutiny, and litigation risks continue to evolve, healthcare organizations must adopt models that align with both the legal standard and the realities of contemporary care delivery. The use of an interactive digital tool in the clinical workflow is solution to address the patient education needs using multimedia and multilingual resources, measuring patient understanding of the information provided, documenting patient education in an auditable fashion, and reducing patient confusion, health care disparities, and clinical inefficiencies, as well as liability. The future of informed consent will not be defined by better forms, but by better systems—ones that are capable of demonstrating not only that consent was obtained, but that it was truly understood. Healthcare organizations that proactively modernize their consent processes will be better positioned to improve patient experience, demonstrate compliance, and mitigate risk. Those that do not will increasingly find themselves defending processes that no longer reflect either legal expectations or patient needs.

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