

Using Patient-Centered Care After a Prenatal Diagnosis of Trisomy 18 or Trisomy 13

A Review

Shelly Haug, MD; Mitchell Goldstein, MD; Denise Cummins, DNP, WHBP-BC; Elba Fayard, MD; T. Allen Merritt, MD

← Editorial

IMPORTANCE Patient-centered care (PCC) has been advocated by the Institute of Medicine to improve health care in the United States. Four concepts of PCC align with clinical ethics principles and are associated with enhanced patient/parent satisfaction. These concepts are dignity and respect, information sharing, participation, and collaboration. The objective of this article is to use the PCC approach as a framework for an extensive literature review evaluating the current status of counseling regarding prenatal diagnosis of trisomy 18 (T18) or trisomy 13 (T13) and to advocate PCC in the care of these infants.

OBSERVATIONS Extensive availability of prenatal screening and diagnostic testing has led to increased detection of chromosomal anomalies early in pregnancy. After diagnosis of T18 or T13, counseling and care have traditionally been based on assumptions that these aneuploidies are lethal or associated with poor quality of life, a view that is now being challenged. Recent evidence suggests that there is variability in outcomes that may be improved by postnatal interventions, and that quality-of-life assumptions are subjective. Parental advocacy for their infant's best interest mimics this variability as requests for resuscitation, neonatal intensive care, and surgical intervention are becoming more frequent.

CONCLUSIONS AND RELEVANCE With new knowledge and increased parental advocacy, physicians face ethical decisions in formulating recommendations including interruption vs continuation of pregnancy, interventions to prolong life, and choices to offer medical or surgical procedures. We advocate a PCC approach, which has the potential to reduce harm when inadequate care and counseling strategies create conflicting values and uncertain outcomes between parents and caregivers in the treatment of infants with T18 and T13.

JAMA Pediatr. doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2016.4798
Published online February 13, 2017.

Author Affiliations: Division of Neonatology, Department of Pediatrics, Loma Linda University Children's Hospital, Loma Linda, California (Haug, Goldstein, Fayard, Merritt); Department of Quality and Regulatory Compliance, Mountains Community Hospital, Lake Arrowhead, California (Cummins).

Corresponding Author: Shelly Haug, MD, Division of Neonatology, Department of Pediatrics, Loma Linda University Children's Hospital, 11175 Campus St, Coleman Pavilion 11121, Loma Linda, CA 92354 (shellyhaug@icloud.com).

Patient satisfaction with health care is an increasingly significant concern. In 2001, the Institute of Medicine introduced a comprehensive strategy to improve health care in the United States. A key aim of this proposal is patient-centered care (PCC), defined as "providing care that is respectful of and responsive to individual patient preferences, needs, and values and ensuring that patient values guide all clinical decisions."^{1(p6)} Based on a comprehensive analysis of patient focus group data, 4 core concepts (dignity and respect, information sharing, participation, and collaboration) have been established to define quality in health care delivery (Table).² These concepts harmonize with the clinical ethical principles of beneficence, nonmaleficence, justice, and respect for autonomy.³

Previous reports suggest dissatisfaction among patient families and growing debate among clinicians regarding care after trisomy 18 (T18) or trisomy 13 (T13) diagnosis.^{4,5} Our objective was to use PCC concepts to develop a framework that more fully evaluates sources of dissatisfaction and debate regarding shared decision making and clinical care of infants with T18 and T13. We outline

key recommendations for a balanced approach to joint decision making regarding care that has application in other areas of challenging patient treatment.

Background

Trisomy 18 and T13 are chromosomal aneuploidies first identified in the 1960s. These syndromes have high mortality and morbidity and are characterized by growth deficiency, cognitive disability, psychomotor disability, and recognizable patterns of physical anomalies.⁶⁻⁸ Together, they affect 1 in 1800 US pregnancies; thus, approximately 2000 women will carry a fetus to term with T18 or T13 annually.^{8,9}

Trisomy 18 and T13 were historically designated as lethal or incompatible with life¹⁰ and families had traditionally been counseled from this perspective.^{6,11,12} Approximately 1:6000 to 1:8000 live births are complicated by T18 and 1:10 000 to 1:20 000 by T13.^{6,13} There is increasing evidence of variable outcomes of these infants that may be improved by postnatal interventions.^{12,14-17}

Table. Application of Patient-Centered Care Approach

Characteristic	Approach
Dignity and respect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Promote research and dialogue about the influence of patient values, beliefs, and culture on decisions and outcomes after a prenatal diagnosis of trisomy 18 or trisomy 13^{4,12,17} Assess and communicate patient values, beliefs, and preferences at diagnosis and throughout the continuum of care^{21,45,46} Support parents in making decisions that fit with their values^{8,15,27,67} Defer to patient wishes when the prognosis or best interest of the child is unclear^{8,20} Support the development of best practice models and guidelines for perinatal palliative care^{45,46} Create opportunities for providers to listen to the health care experiences of patients with trisomy 18 or trisomy 13 pregnancies or children^{2,12,17,41}
Information sharing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Present accurate figures for survival and outcome that take into consideration the individual clinical features of the fetus or child^{8,24} Avoid the unmodified use of <i>lethal</i>, <i>fatal</i>, or <i>incompatible with life</i> in describing potential outcomes,⁸ particularly during pregnancy when the condition and prognosis of the fetus are ambiguous Provide information about a variety of educational resources, including internet websites and support groups⁴⁵ Consider offering “a positive viewpoint” and “erring on the side of life” within the framework of the Convention of the Rights of the Child and Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities⁵¹ Advocate a willingness to do whatever it takes to fully inform and understand the perspectives of patients/parents^{8,15}
Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Avoid coercion and use good communication to resolve conflicts between patients and health care professionals about pregnancy decisions; arrange for second or third opinions, if necessary, and ethics or legal consultations; allow parents time to consider options on “their own turf” with time-limited goals³ Reduce variability in physician approaches to intervention/nonintervention to prolong fetal viability in pregnancy⁵⁹ Petition professional organizations to establish ethical, patient-centered guidelines for care of women with pregnancies complicated by “severe, not uniformly lethal anomalies”^{4,17}
Collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Create interdisciplinary teams that can assess and care for the complex needs of patients/parents throughout the continuum of care^{21,36,45,46} Arrange for ethics consultation for professionals and families with ethical concerns about newborn care to identify potential solutions to conflicts^{8,18,22,49} Establish partnerships with specialist providers and institutions that offer broader options or resources for prenatal or neonatal care, and with agencies that offer ongoing care or support for patients and families¹⁸ Promote the establishment of centers of excellence for pregnancies complicated by “severe, not uniformly lethal anomalies,” and for care of newborns and children with these conditions^{12,17}

Lantos¹⁸ recently addressed the history and evolution of management regarding infants with trisomy 21 that sheds light on the current evolving approach toward infants with T18 and T13. Recommendations to limit treatment for infants with trisomy 21 were previously commonplace; however, it is now impermissible to withhold surgery in such cases (with rare exceptions in complicated circumstances). Lantos explains that ethical decisions regarding treatment futility must include consideration of “survival, neurocognitive deficits, and the burdens of treatment.”^{18(p397)} He goes on to emphasize that trisomy 18 and 13 once belonged in the category that recommended limited treatment.

There is also increasing debate about quality-of-life (QOL) assumptions.¹⁹⁻²³ Quality of life is subjective and physicians rarely understand the criteria that family use in determining their percep-

tion or what the infant might experience. The term *quality of life* is often misused for perceived physical or neurologic impairments; however, some infants can have severe impairments and still have an excellent QOL.²⁴ Nelson and colleagues²⁵ recently described improved survival with surgery (primarily cardiac) in a cohort of 428 infants with T18 or T13 over a 21-year period. The median survival time of the 254 children with T18 was 9 days, and the median survival time of the 174 infants with T13 was 12.5 days.²⁵ Of infants with T18, 13.8% underwent surgery with a 1-year survival rate of 68.6%, and, of infants with T13, 23.6% underwent surgery with a 1-year survival of 70.7%. These results provide a rationale for reconsidering previous recommendations regarding care limitations for these infants. However, Graham²⁶ questions whether these aggressive interventions have improved survival or the quality of life while using resources at increased cost.

Discussion

Dignity and Respect

Dignity and respect in PCC hold that health care professionals should honor patient perspectives, values, and decisions when implementing care.²⁷ There is a paucity of literature addressing the influence of particular values and cultural heritage within families on decision making and outcomes after diagnosis of T18 and T13.²⁸ Physician attitudes accrue from scientific knowledge and experience, yet are influenced by ethical principles and personal beliefs. Patient perspectives are strongly influenced by societal, familial, religious, and cultural factors. The often-required immediacy of medical decision making can make inquiry into a family's values and beliefs clinically impractical. Given the strong spiritual and cultural beliefs that encompass birth and death, both of which may be imminent after diagnosis in T18 or T13, decision making may be difficult. In such situations, individuals have a heightened need for information relevant to their values.

Advances in genetic testing, especially noninvasive prenatal testing and chorionic villus sampling, have led to diagnosis as early as the first trimester of pregnancy. A study of the natural history of fetal T18 found high rates of fetal demise and stillbirth.²⁹ Pregnancy termination may be offered after T18 or T13 diagnosis; however, availability may be affected by gestational age limitations or cultural confines. The difference between the number of pregnancies affected by T18 or T13 and the live birth rate suggests that fetal demise or pregnancy termination is common. Few studies have assessed cultural differences in attitudes toward prenatal testing and pregnancy termination for broad categories of fetal anomalies,^{30,31} and there is inadequate literature addressing the needs or preferences of women who choose this option.

There has been increased acknowledgment of patient preferences in the care of women who choose to continue pregnancies affected by severe or lethal fetal anomalies. The concepts of perinatal palliative care and prenatal advanced birth care planning have been evolving since the theory of perinatal hospice was introduced.³²⁻⁴⁰ Wool and colleagues⁴¹⁻⁴³ published research in developing quality indicators in perinatal palliative care. Perinatal palliative care initiatives are now increasingly supported by clinicians, parents, and professional entities.^{21,44} Perinatal palliative care that focuses on interdisciplinary team and family involvement of-

fers a valuable framework for providing PCC after T18 or T13 diagnosis. Merritt et al⁴⁵ provide guidelines for perinatal palliative care in this context. English and Hessler,⁴⁶ Wool and Dudek,⁴⁷ and Wool⁴⁸ offer guidance in outlining steps for assessing patient perspectives and preferences, a shared decision-making process for palliative care, components of a written birth plan, roles of interdisciplinary team members, perspectives of perinatal palliative care barriers, and other valuable guides.

Typical perinatal palliative care after diagnosis of T18 or T13 has 2 important limitations. First, it generally offers limited services to women who opt for pregnancy termination, and second, the common emphasis is on comfort care (which assumes poor neonatal outcome) or providing a compassionate environment to adjust expectations and choose to limit interventions.^{45,49} This approach may be hollow if not aligned with patient preferences. van de Eijk et al⁵⁰ propose that PCC requires more than just a respectful attitude or a personalized approach to assessment and care; rather, it requires engaging patients to become active participants and decision makers.

Influential parent support groups, such as the Support Organization for Trisomy 18, 13 and Related Disorders (SOFT)¹² and the Trisomy 18 Foundation,¹⁷ have had a significant effect on the dignity and respect afforded patients and families affected by these syndromes. The parent-professional collaborations resulting from the advocacy of parent support groups have vocally advocated over the last decade owing to increased visibility via the internet and additional information in medical and ethical literature. These websites offer contextual information to promote respect for patients and families and provide testimonials of adverse medical experiences while offering videos of children who have overcome the odds of perinatal mortality. Such websites appear, however, to spark controversy among health care professionals, who claim that the sites may promote unrealistic expectations about outcomes due to selection bias toward children who have generally survived for longer than 1 year. However, a survey by Janvier et al⁵¹ of parents of children with T18 or T13 recruited from these social networks emphasizes that parent goals were "to meet their child, be discharged home, and be a family."

Information Sharing

Information sharing requires health care professionals to offer accurate, complete, and unbiased information to patients so that they may make well-informed decisions even when there is controversy regarding management strategies.^{52,53} Although patients do not universally appreciate patient-centered information sharing, the ethical principles of respect for autonomy, beneficence, and nonmaleficence support the importance of accurate information disclosure.

Parents are commonly counseled from the perspective that T18 and T13 are "incompatible with life."⁵⁴ Population-based studies indicate that mean survival time is between 3 and 14.5 days and 1-year survival is 0 to 10%.^{13,55} The length of survival time decreased after T18 and T13 were identified as discrete syndromes, possibly as a result of less aggressive treatment being offered owing to expectation of death.⁵⁶ Although recent studies show that mortality remains high, there is increasing evidence of outcome variability and mortality reduction through postnatal interventions. Rasmussen et al⁵⁴ agree that aggressive intervention, such as cardiac surgery, may be necessary to prolong the lives of some infants; however, long-term T18 survivors may not need particularly aggressive or extraor-

inary treatment. According to Niedrist et al, "if children with trisomy 18 are brought beyond the first critical phase of life when postnatal adaptation of cardiorespiratory function is still very poor, the subsequent survival chance is enhanced,"^{55(p957)} and the recent report by Nelson et al²⁵ supports this concept.

Recent studies on T18 and T13 outcomes acknowledge that these aneuploidies are not universally lethal. In a review of genetic screening challenges, Coughlin⁵⁷ evaluated surveys of genetic professionals in an attempt to rank the seriousness of genetic disorders. The study confirmed a consensus about which conditions were considered lethal, serious but not lethal, or not serious.⁵⁸ In a survey among members of the Society for Maternal-Fetal Medicine, Heuser et al⁵⁹ distinguished T18 and T13 as severe, commonly lethal anomalies as opposed to uniformly lethal anomalies, such as anencephaly and bilateral renal agenesis. Despite such variability, specialists routinely use the term *lethal* in counseling the parents of fetuses or infants with T18 or T13 and perpetuate QOL assumptions that promote withholding interventions.⁴⁸

In an international survey of 272 parents of children with T18 or T13 (76% within the United States), parents reported being told by a health care professional that their child's condition was incompatible with life (87%), the child would have a life of suffering (57%), or that care of the child would ruin their family (23%).⁴ Of the respondents, more than 25% had a child with T18 or T13 still living, with a median age of 4 years. Although 50% reported that care of a disabled child was more difficult than expected, 97% reported that their child was happy. These study results may be limited by selection bias because the survey did not include women who terminated the pregnancy or experienced fetal loss, or those whose infants died shortly after birth. Parents responding to the survey were identified through T18 and T13 support groups and so may have been more likely to have a living child, be happier with the current status of their child and family, or be more dissatisfied with the information that they received because it proved to be inconsistent with their child's outcomes. Follow-up studies among parents who are not members of support groups may offer a broader perspective on parental perceptions. Janvier et al⁴ theorize that increasing disparities in patient and provider perspectives may be due to the aforementioned internet support groups. These testimonials challenge the incompatible-with-life and life-of-suffering perspectives. Mercurio and coworkers⁶⁰ observed that physician arguments for withholding treatment have lost credibility owing to insufficient corroborating evidence.

Current approaches to information sharing after diagnosis of T18 and T13 may not be as accurate, complete, and unbiased as they should be.⁶⁰ One factor in these limitations may be pressure to make decisions about pregnancy termination before narrow gestational age time frames expire. McGraw and Perlman¹⁹ suggest that parents exposed to support group websites may develop expectations that interventions to prolong life are "reasonable." The context of the comment suggests that physicians may consider parental expectations of prolonging life to be unreasonable. The American Congress of Obstetricians and Gynecologists explicitly states, "it is unethical for a physician to deny patients important information in order to avoid physician-patient interactions that are difficult or uncomfortable."^{23(p1025)} Religious, family, and cultural beliefs often influence parental decisions. These decisions are not merely of weighing potential risks vs benefits; they may, in fact, represent significant spiritual or ethical dilemmas. We advocate a more bal-

anced approach to information shared in the counseling process, including use of up-to-date survival figures taking into consideration individual clinical findings of the child. This approach should include potential surgical interventions and avoidance of the terms *lethal* or *poor quality of life* without presupposition of the family's perceptions. Health care professionals have an obligation to "present prognostic information in a frank and balanced way without coercion."^{21(p402)} As proposed by Bruns,⁶¹ they also have an obligation to offer "a positive viewpoint" and "err on the side of life" within the framework of the Convention of the Rights of the Child and Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities.^{16,61,62}

Participation

This concept of PCC includes patients' ability to participate in and make decisions about their care at the level they choose.⁶³ Heuser et al⁵⁹ showed that, for women wishing to continue the pregnancy, 99% of physicians would adhere to a patient's wish not to intervene on the fetus's behalf. Five percent would discourage nonintervention, but would adhere to the patient's decision. In contrast, 82% of physicians would adhere to the patient's wish to intervene to prolong the fetus's life (eg, by cesarean section) and 66% would discourage intervention, but adhere to the patient's decision. The perspective appears to be that intervention puts the mother at risk with no clear benefit to a fetus with severe anomalies.

The variability noted in physician approaches raises the ethical principle of justice. Distributive justice assumes that patients with similar conditions are treated alike.⁶⁴ In discussions regarding inequity in treatment, the lives of both the fetus with T18 or T13 and the mother may be at stake. Injustice in prenatal management of T18 and T13 may go beyond individual variation in provider approaches to cesarean section. It also involves the broader question of how much personal risk a woman should be allowed to assume to prolong the life of her child. Individuals are often allowed or even encouraged to assume personal risk, such as living organ transplantation, to increase the length or QOL of a seriously ill family member or stranger with no guarantee of positive outcomes. Denying this opportunity for women who wish to assume a similar risk to ensure the live birth of a child with an uncertain prognosis could be considered unjust to both fetus and mother.

If it is known that nonintervention is likely to result in fetal morbidity or mortality, failure to intervene may violate the ethical principle of beneficence, particularly when the mother is requesting the intervention. Although physician approaches vary widely to maternal requests for late trimester pregnancy termination or nonaggressive intrapartum management, Spinnato et al suggest that physicians are obligated to respect maternal autonomy. Spinnato et al⁶⁵ explain, "When a patient's desire to avoid an intrapartum stillbirth is strong enough that substantial psychological harm might result from one, the physician's beneficence-based obligation to her and respect for maternal autonomy justify selectively aggressive intrapartum therapy, even if no beneficence-based obligation to the fetus exists."^{65(p89)}

Collaboration

Patient-centered care collaboration focuses on involvement of all health care constituents in the development of health care policies.⁶³ After the birth of a child with T18 or T13, the role of the mother shifts from participant to collaborator in conjunction with other family mem-

bers and health care professionals. Perceived collaboration in decision making has been described as the most important determinant of parental satisfaction with end-of-life care.⁶⁶ Too often collaboration between physicians and parents is compromised by contention. In a survey of 54 pediatricians, 44% indicated that they would be willing to make resuscitative efforts on behalf of an infant with T18 who has known congenital heart disease (present in >90% of T18 cases).¹⁹ The authors characterize the pediatricians' willingness to intervene as adoption of an "ethic of abdication" in their approach to difficult treatment/nontreatment decisions" as a result of the "strong emphasis bioethics has placed on patient autonomy."^{19(p1108)} Physicians frequently center their perception on the best interest of the child, futility of treatment, and waste of resources. Resistance of pediatric specialists to intervene is apparent in a survey of 859 physicians regarding their attitudes toward cardiac palliations in infants with T18 or T13. Neonatologists were least likely (7%) to recommend intervention on heart lesions compared with geneticists (20%) and cardiologists (32%); however, there was a 3-fold increase in willingness to intervene among all specialists if intervention is requested by parents.⁵³

Disparate perspectives between parents and clinicians on the best interest of the child, futility of treatment, and allocation of resources may create tension and set the stage for adversarial relationships. Janvier and colleagues⁶⁷ illustrate the deep divisions between parents and clinicians caring for infants with T18 or T13. In this case, the parents wanted maximal intervention for their 1-year-old child with T18, including cardiac surgery, and were unmoved by discussions about poor outcomes, risks of surgery, and futility of treatment. It may be difficult for parents to accept that nonintervention is in the best interest of the child when it is likely to hasten the child's death. Finding consensus with parents about futility of treatment may be even more problematic, as medical futility is a poorly defined, highly subjective, and conflict-ridden concept.⁶⁸ In the case cited above, the child did well after surgery, which suggests that the parents' request was reasonable and not futile. The variability in outcomes and intensity of interventions for infants with T18 and T13 suggests that it may be difficult to clearly establish the futility of treatment.

In considering allocation of resources, Janvier et al emphasize that "the principle of justice demands similar patients be treated similarly."^{67(p758)} They assert that, among other classes of patients who are expected to die or have severe neurodevelopmental compromise, such as those with brain trauma, the general standard is to defer to the wishes of the patient's family. The authors argue that it is unjust to impose restrictions specifically for children with T18 (and, by extension, T13) that are nonexistent for other patients with similarly severe limitations. Furthermore, concerns about wasting resources may be dispelled by the low incidence of live T18 or T13 births and the infrequency of parental requests for maximal intervention.⁷

Collaboration among health care professionals is a particularly important consideration in providing care after diagnosis of T18 or T13. The interdisciplinary structure of models such as perinatal palliative care can provide valuable support for the complex needs of patients and families, particularly if the scope of care is broadened to address the needs of women who choose termination of pregnancy. Such teams may be composed of neonatologists, geneticists, palliative care specialists, social workers, ethicists, and nurses—all of whom should have sufficient collective expertise to address the physical, psychosocial, practical, and spiritual needs of the child and family.²¹ An ethics consultation may be valuable in cases un-

settled by perinatal and neonatal management teams.²¹ Such consultations offer a forum for exploration of the family's values and the moral context in which decisions are being made and may result in consideration of a wider range of satisfactory options for care. Lantos suggests that "yesterday's moral gray zones disappear as more data elucidate that treatment is either clearly beneficial or ineffective."^{18(p397)} He emphasizes that decisions about aggressive treatment of infants with T18 and T13 are in a "'stable gray zone' in which treatment decisions are unlikely to become more clear"^{18(p397)} and align with a shared decision-making approach.⁶⁹

Conclusions

Patient-centered care facilitates decision making after diagnosis of T18 or T13 and other perinatal conditions in which there are conflicting values and uncertainty of outcomes based on patterns of variability of care. Patient-centered care focuses on the parent and child's best interest,⁷⁰ offers an ethically sound approach that considers the well-being of all involved, and can be applied in cases of T18, T13, or other conditions requiring complex perinatal decisions.

ARTICLE INFORMATION

Accepted for Publication: December 1, 2016.

Published Online: February 13, 2017.

doi:10.1001/jamapediatrics.2016.4798

Author Contributions: Drs Haug and Merritt had full access to all the data in the study and take responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Study concept and design: All authors.

Acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of data: Goldstein.

Drafting of the manuscript: Haug, Goldstein, Cummins, Merritt.

Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content: Haug, Goldstein, Fayard, Merritt.

Administrative, technical, or material support: Goldstein, Fayard, Merritt.

Study supervision: Goldstein, Fayard, Merritt.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures: None reported.

REFERENCES

- Institute of Medicine (US) Committee on Quality of Health Care in America. *Crossing the Quality Chasm: A New Health System for the 21st Century*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press; 2001. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/books/NBK222274/>. Accessed September 18, 2016.
- Barry MJ, Edgman-Levitan S. Shared decision making—pinnacle of patient-centered care. *N Engl J Med*. 2012;366(9):780-781.
- Jonsen AR, Siegler M, Winslade WJ. *Clinical Ethics: A Practical Approach to Ethical Decisions in Clinical Medicine; Monograph Collection*. New York, New York: McGraw-Hill; 1982.
- Janvier A, Farlow B, Wilfond BS. The experience of families with children with trisomy 13 and 18 in social networks. *Pediatrics*. 2012;130(2):293-298.
- Walker LV, Miller VJ, Dalton VK. The health-care experiences of families given the prenatal diagnosis of trisomy 18. *J Perinatol*. 2008;28(1):12-19.
- Cereda A, Carey JC. The trisomy 18 syndrome. *Orphanet J Rare Dis*. 2012;7:81.
- Goc B, Walencka Z, Włoch A, et al. Trisomy 18 in neonates: prenatal diagnosis, clinical features, therapeutic dilemmas and outcome. *J Appl Genet*. 2006;47(2):165-170.
- Carey JC. Perspectives on the care and management of infants with trisomy 18 and trisomy 13: striving for balance. *Curr Opin Pediatr*. 2012;24(6):672-678.
- Petry P, Polli JB, Mattos VF, et al. Clinical features and prognosis of a sample of patients with trisomy 13 (Patau syndrome) from Brazil. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2013;161A(6):1278-1283.
- Bruns DA. Neonatal experiences of newborns with full trisomy 18. *Adv Neonatal Care*. 2010;10(1):25-31.
- Griffith CB, Vance GH, Weaver DD. Phenotypic variability in trisomy 13 mosaicism: two new patients and literature review. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2009;149A(6):1346-1358.
- Support Organization for Trisomy 18, Trisomy 13 and Related Disorders (SOFT). <http://trisomy.org/>. Accessed September 18, 2016.
- Lakovschek IC, Streubel B, Ulm B. Natural outcome of trisomy 13, trisomy 18, and triploidy after prenatal diagnosis. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2011;155A(11):2626-2633.
- Tsukada K, Imataka G, Suzumura H, Arisaka O. Better prognosis in newborns with trisomy 13 who received intensive treatments: a retrospective study of 16 patients. *Cell Biochem Biophys*. 2012;63(3):191-198.
- Fenton LJ. Trisomy 13 and 18 and quality of life: treading "softly." *Am J Med Genet A*. 2011;155A(7):1527-1528.
- Kosho T, Nakamura T, Kawame H, Baba A, Tamura M, Fukushima Y. Neonatal management of trisomy 18: clinical details of 24 patients receiving intensive treatment. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2006;140(9):937-944.
- Trisomy 18 Foundation. <http://www.trisomy18.org>. Accessed August 26, 2016.
- Lantos JD. Trisomy 13 and 18: treatment decisions in a stable gray zone. *JAMA*. 2016;316(4):396-398.
- McGraw MP, Perlman JM. Attitudes of neonatologists toward delivery room management of confirmed trisomy 18: potential factors influencing a changing dynamic. *Pediatrics*. 2008;121(6):1106-1110.
- Mercurio MR. The ethics of newborn resuscitation. *Semin Perinatol*. 2009;33(6):354-363.
- Bell EF; American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Fetus and Newborn. Noninitiation or withdrawal of intensive care for high-risk newborns. *Pediatrics*. 2007;119(2):401-403.
- Adams DM, Winslade WJ. Consensus, clinical decision making, and unsettled cases. *J Clin Ethics*. 2011;22(4):310-327.
- Committee on Ethics. ACOG committee opinion number 403 April 2008: end-of-life decision making. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2008;111(4):1021-1027.
- Payot A, Barrington KJ. The quality of life of young children and infants with chronic medical problems: review of the literature. *Curr Probl Pediatr Adolesc Health Care*. 2011;41(4):91-101.
- Nelson KE, Rosella LC, Mahant S, Guttman A. Survival and surgical interventions for children with trisomy 13 and 18. *JAMA*. 2016;316(4):420-428.
- Graham EM. Infants with trisomy 18 and complex congenital heart defects should not undergo open heart surgery. *J Law Med Ethics*. 2016;44(2):286-291.
- Haward MF, John LK, Lorenz JM, Fischhoff B. Effects of description of options on parental perinatal decision-making. *Pediatrics*. 2012;129(5):891-902.
- Thiele P, Berg SF, Farlow B. More than a diagnosis. *Acta Paediatr*. 2013;102(12):1127-1129.
- Burke AL, Field K, Morrison JJ. Natural history of fetal trisomy 18 after prenatal diagnosis. *Arch Dis Child Fetal Neonatal Ed*. 2013;98(2):F152-F154.
- Hewison J, Green JM, Ahmed S, et al. Attitudes to prenatal testing and termination of pregnancy for fetal abnormality: a comparison of white and Pakistani women in the UK. *Prenat Diagn*. 2007;27(5):419-430.
- Shaffer BL, Caughey AB, Norton ME. Variation in the decision to terminate pregnancy in the setting of fetal aneuploidy. *Prenat Diagn*. 2006;26(8):667-671.
- Calhoun BC, Hoeldtke NJ, Hinson RM, Judge KM. Perinatal hospice: should all centers have this service? *Neonatal Netw*. 1997;16(6):101-102.
- Denney-Koelsch E, Black BP, Côté-Arsenault D, Wool C, Kim S, Kavanaugh K. A survey of perinatal palliative care programs in the United States: structure, processes, and outcomes. *J Palliat Med*. 2016;19(10):1080-1086.
- Limbo R, Wool C. Perinatal palliative care. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2016;45(5):611-613.
- Wool C, Repke JT, Woods AB. Parent reported outcomes of quality care and satisfaction in the context of a life-limiting fetal diagnosis. *J Matern Fetal Neonatal Med*. 2016;1-6.
- Wool C, Côté-Arsenault D, Perry Black B, Denney-Koelsch E, Kim S, Kavanaugh K. Provision of services in perinatal palliative care: a multicenter survey in the United States. *J Palliat Med*. 2016;19(3):279-285.
- Mixer SJ, Lindley L, Wallace H, Fornehd ML, Wool C. The relationship between the nursing environment and delivering culturally sensitive perinatal hospice care. *Int J Palliat Nurs*. 2015;21(9):423-429.
- Catlin A, Brandon D, Wool C, Mendes J. Palliative and end-of-life care for newborns and infants: from the National Association of Neonatal Nurses. *Adv Neonatal Care*. 2015;15(4):239-240.

39. Wool C. State of the science on perinatal palliative care. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2013;42(3):372-382.
40. Wool C. Clinician confidence and comfort in providing perinatal palliative care. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2013;42(1):48-58.
41. Wool C, Black BP, Woods ABN. Quality indicators and parental satisfaction with perinatal palliative care in the intrapartum setting after diagnosis of a life-limiting fetal condition. *ANS Adv Nurs Sci*. 2016;39(4):346-357.
42. Wool C, Northam S. The Perinatal Palliative Care Perceptions and Barriers Scale Instrument: development and validation. *Adv Neonatal Care*. 2011;11(6):397-403.
43. Wool C. Instrument psychometrics: parental satisfaction and quality indicators of perinatal palliative care. *J Palliat Med*. 2015;18(10):872-877.
44. Wool C. Systematic review of the literature: parental outcomes after diagnosis of fetal anomaly. *Adv Neonatal Care*. 2011;11(3):182-192.
45. Merritt TA, Catlin A, Wool C, Peverini R, Goldstein M, Oshiro B. Trisomy 18 and trisomy 13. *NeoReviews*. 2012;13(1):e40-e48.
46. English NK, Hessler KL. Prenatal birth planning for families of the imperiled newborn. *J Obstet Gynecol Neonatal Nurs*. 2013;42(3):390-399.
47. Wool C, Dudek M. Exploring the perceptions and the role of genetic counselors in the emerging field of perinatal palliative care. *J Genet Couns*. 2013;22(4):533-543.
48. Wool C. Clinician perspectives of barriers in perinatal palliative care. *MCN Am J Matern Child Nurs*. 2015;40(1):44-50.
49. Derrington SF, Dworetz AR. Confronting ambiguity: identifying options for infants with trisomy 18. *J Clin Ethics*. 2011;22(4):338-344.
50. van der Eijk M, Nijhuis FAP, Faber MJ, Bloem BR. Moving from physician-centered care towards patient-centered care for Parkinson's disease patients. *Parkinsonism Relat Disord*. 2013;19(11):923-927.
51. Janvier A, Farlow B, Barrington KJ. Parental hopes, interventions, and survival of neonates with trisomy 13 and trisomy 18. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet*. 2016;172(3):279-287.
52. Black BP. Truth telling and severe fetal diagnosis: a virtue ethics perspective. *J Perinat Neonatal Nurs*. 2011;25(1):13-20.
53. Yates AR, Hoffman TM, Shepherd E, Boettner B, McBride KL. Pediatric sub-specialist controversies in the treatment of congenital heart disease in trisomy 13 or 18. *J Genet Couns*. 2011;20(5):495-509.
54. Rasmussen SA, Wong L-YC, Yang Q, May KM, Friedman JM. Population-based analyses of mortality in trisomy 13 and trisomy 18. *Pediatrics*. 2003;111(4, pt 1):777-784.
55. Niedrist D, Riegel M, Achermann J, Schinzel A. Survival with trisomy 18—data from Switzerland. *Am J Med Genet A*. 2006;140(9):952-959.
56. Toker A, Salzer L. Trisomy 18: how far should we go. *Isr Med Assoc J*. 2012;14(8):515-517.
57. Coughlin C. Prenatal choices: genetic counseling for genetic conditions. In: Ravitsky V, Fiester A, Caplan AL, eds. *The Penn Center Guide to Bioethics*. Springer Publishing. <http://www.springerpub.com/the-penn-center-guide-to-bioethics.html/>. Published April 16, 2009. Accessed September 18, 2016.
58. Wertz DC, Knoppers BM. Serious genetic disorders: can or should they be defined? *Am J Med Genet*. 2002;108(1):29-35.
59. Heuser CC, Eller AG, Byrne JL. Survey of physicians' approach to severe fetal anomalies. *J Med Ethics*. 2012;38(7):391-395.
60. Mercurio MR, Murray PD, Gross I. Unilateral pediatric "do not attempt resuscitation" orders: the pros, the cons, and a proposed approach. *Pediatrics*. 2014;133(suppl 1):S37-S43.
61. Bruns D. Erring on the side of life: children with rare trisomy conditions, medical interventions and quality of life. Southern Illinois University: Open SIUC. http://opensiuc.lib.siu.edu/epse_pubs/36. Published January 2013. Accessed September 1, 2016.
62. Batees H, Altirkawi KA. Trisomy 18 syndrome: towards a balanced approach. *Sudan J Paediatr*. 2014;14(2):76-84.
63. Frampton S, Guastello S, Brady C, et al. *Patient-Centered Care Improvement Guide*. Derby, Connecticut: Planetree Inc & Picker Institute; 2008.
64. Scheunemann LP, White DB. The ethics and reality of rationing in medicine. *Chest*. 2011;140(6):1625-1632.
65. Spinnato JA, Cook VD, Cook CR, Voss DH. Aggressive intrapartum management of lethal fetal anomalies: beyond fetal beneficence. *Obstet Gynecol*. 1995;85(1):89-92.
66. Brosig CL, Pierucci RL, Kupst MJ, Leuthner SR. Infant end-of-life care: the parents' perspective. *J Perinatol*. 2007;27(8):510-516.
67. Janvier A, Okah F, Farlow B, Lantos JD. An infant with trisomy 18 and a ventricular septal defect. *Pediatrics*. 2011;127(4):754-759.
68. Burns JP, Truog RD. Futility: a concept in evolution. *Chest*. 2007;132(6):1987-1993.
69. Carbone J. Legal applications of the "best interest of the child" standard: judicial rationalization or a measure of institutional competence? *Pediatrics*. 2014;134(suppl 2):S111-S120.
70. Andrews SE, Downey AG, Showalter DS, et al. Shared decision making and the pathways approach in the prenatal and postnatal management of the trisomy 13 and trisomy 18 syndromes. *Am J Med Genet C Semin Med Genet*. 2016;172(3):257-263.