

1 **Review**

2 **Discharge Against Medical Advice: The causes, consequences and possible corrective measures.**

3 Abstract

4 Patients who discharge themselves against medical advice (DAMA) comprise 1-2% of hospital  
5 admissions. DAMA is defined as when a hospitalised patient chooses to leave the hospital before the  
6 treating medical team recommends discharge. The act of DAMA impacts on both the patient, the staff  
7 and their ongoing care. Specifically, this means that the patient's medical problems maybe  
8 inadequately assessed or treated. Patients who decide to DAMA tend to be young males, from a lower  
9 socioeconomic background and with a history of mental health or substance misuse disorder. DAMA  
10 has an associated increased risk of morbidity and mortality. In this review of studies across Western  
11 healthcare settings, specifically adult medical inpatients, we will review the evidence and seek to  
12 address the causes, consequences and possible corrective measures in this common scenario.

13 Keywords:

14 Self-Discharge

15 Discharge against medical advice

16 Hospital discharge

17 Absconding

18 Leave against medical advice

19

20 Introduction

21 Patients who discharge against medical advice (DAMA) comprise between 1-2% of all hospital  
22 admissions (Warriner, 2011), affecting between 1.6-3.2 million admissions in the UK alone. The act of  
23 DAMA is broadly defined as when a hospitalised patient chooses to leave the hospital before the  
24 medical care team recommends discharge (Alfandre, 2013). This extends from patient leaving before  
25 they are first assessed e.g. in the emergency department, absconding from an inpatient setting during  
26 investigation, or a carer or relative deciding to remove the patient prematurely prior to completion of  
27 treatment. DAMA impacts on both the patient and staff, not only within the acute hospital setting but  
28 also continuation of care in the community. Specifically, this means that the patient’s medical  
29 problems may be inadequately assessed, treated or followed-up, depending on when and where  
30 DAMA occurs in the healthcare journey. The process of DAMA itself is often considered an adversarial  
31 interaction by patients and potentially litigious by healthcare professionals. Furthermore, there is  
32 evidence that DAMA results in increased dissatisfaction, healthcare costs, readmission rates,  
33 morbidity and mortality. Despite the frequency of the problem there is a paucity of literature on  
34 “DAMA”; which accounts for under 100 research papers per annum on PubMed. This is in stark  
35 contrast to a subject like “falls” which in the UK similarly affects between 1-2% of all hospital  
36 admissions but accounts for over 8000 research papers per annum on PubMed. For the purposes of  
37 this review, we will focus on DAMA from studies in Western healthcare settings initiated by  
38 hospitalised adult medical inpatients only.

39 Definition

40 DAMA must fulfil these 4 criteria “1) is patient-initiated, 2) occurs prior to work-up, treatment or  
41 discharge planning having been completed, 3) the work-up, treatment, or discharge planning cannot  
42 safely be performed on an outpatient basis, and 4) the patient has decision-making capacity” (Holmes  
43 et al., 2021). In the UK, this is supported by advice from medicolegal bodies, such as the Medical  
44 Protection Society (MPS), who inform us that only the adult patient with capacity to make the decision  
45 to DAMA is free to leave, where as other patient groups are not (Redmond, 2019). In the UK, the  
46 process by which patients discharge themselves against medical advice is often termed “self-  
47 discharge”.

48 Epidemiology

49 Whilst the prevalence is widely quoted as 1-2%, there is some variation depending on specialty,  
50 healthcare system and hospital setting (Alfandre et al., 2017; Spooner et al., 2017) see table 1. It is  
51 self-evident that some conditions, which impact on mobility such as a lower limb fracture, will mean  
52 the patient is less physically able to DAMA compared to those which do not (Kraut et al., 2013;  
53 Menendez et al., 2015). However, what is less clear is why rates of DAMA are higher in larger hospitals  
54 in urban settings(Ibrahim et al., 2007). DAMA is increasing, with data from 2016 - 2021 in the United  
55 States (US) and United Kingdom (UK) demonstrating a year-on-year increase from 0.8 to 1.2% (Jaydev  
56 et al., 2022; NHS Digital, 2022; Onukwugha and Alfandre, 2019). However, in the UK such data is not  
57 routinely captured by the National Health Service (NHS) as whilst Hospital Episode Statistics collected  
58 by the NHS includes a field to record the method by which an inpatient was discharged but code  
59 description does not explicitly state that this is DAMA, but rather this is implied (NHS Digital, 2022).

60 Table 1 Demonstrating variation in DAMA rate between country and speciality

Specialty	Country	DAMA rate %	Study
Obstetrics	USA	4	(Guo et al., 2023)

Acute Medical Unit	UK	3	(Alagappan et al., 2023)
Cardiology	UK	1.5	(Kwok et al., 2019)
Stroke	USA	0.8	(Raja et al., 2020)
Orthopaedics	USA	0.3	(Menendez et al., 2015)

61

62 DAMA = discharge against medical advice, UK = United Kingdom & USA = United States of America.

63 Risk Factors

64 Those factors consistently associated with increased likelihood of DAMA are legion and broadly can  
65 be divided into demographic, clinical and systemic (Saia et al., 2023; Sealy et al., 2019; Spooner et al.,  
66 2017)00/00/0000 00:00:0000/00/0000 00:00:00.

67 Demographic

68 These include male gender, foreign national, ethnic minority and young age (<40 years).

69 Clinical

70 These include being less unwell, fewer comorbidities and a history of mental health issues or  
71 substance misuse disorder.

72 Systemic

73 These include a low household income, lacking medical insurance and unplanned or weekend  
74 admission.

75 Aetiology

76 The reasons that lead to DAMA can broadly be divided into personal, professional and organisational  
77 (Albayati et al., 2021). **Figure 1** demonstrates some of the more common themes surrounding this.

78 Personal

79 Personal reasons include domestic or practical issues such as the need to take care of dependent  
80 children, a spouse or pet (Hwang, 2017). It may also be that simply the patient begins to feel better or  
81 self-reports less subjective pain, irrespective of whether there has been a clinical or objective  
82 improvement from baseline (Babaei et al., 2023; Könniker et al., 2022). Fear of infection from COVID  
83 has also been cited as a recent reason for DAMA (Werner and Lee, 2023).

84 Professional

85 Professional reasons include disagreement with the clinician, poor communication, dissatisfaction in  
86 general with the healthcare provided and lack of a primary care provider in the community (Albayati  
87 et al., 2021). Health literacy is often poor in these patient groups, for example, in the UK 61% of  
88 working-age adults cannot understand health information containing numbers and text. Therefore, if  
89 the risks of DAMA are not communicated in a meaningful manner, this may have an impact on a  
90 patient's ability to fully understand the possible consequences (Chakravarty et al., 2020; Rowlands et  
91 al., 2015).

92 Organisational

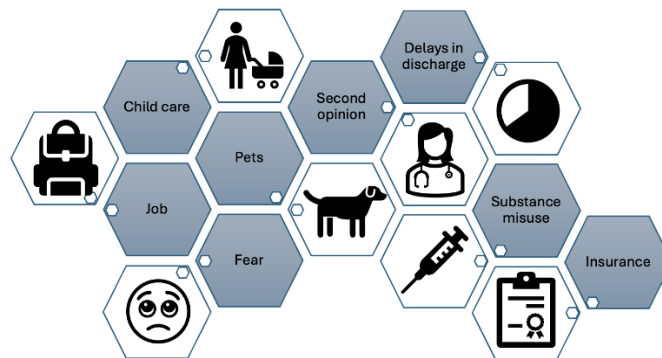
93 Organisational reasons include long waits to be seen by a clinician, overcrowding, poor  
94 communication and the perception of a stigmatising and hostile environment.

95 Sequelae

96 The impact of DAMA is not to be underestimated, in terms of worse outcomes for the patient and also  
97 for the healthcare system. This is unsurprising given as it directly conflicts with the “6 characteristics  
98 of health care quality: safe, effective, patient-centred, timely, efficient, and equitable” (Holmes et al.,  
99 2021). This is inevitably due to a combination of missing diagnostic tests and treatment, but may also  
100 reflect underlying sociological, economic and psychological vulnerability contribute to ill-considered  
101 decision making around discharge (Alagappan et al., 2023).

102 Morbidity

103 The unplanned readmission rate is between 20-40% higher, the subsequent length of stay doubled  
104 from 2 to 4 days and the consequences and complications of inadequately treated disease increase  
105 significantly (Alfandre and Schumann, 2013; Aliyu, 2002; Choi et al., 2011; Kwok et al., 2019; Mishra  
106 et al., 2022)



107

108 Figure 1: Common themes surrounding DAMA

109 .

110 Mortality

111 Alagappan (2023) recently demonstrated in the UK, what has been known for many years in other  
112 healthcare systems, namely that patient outcomes following DAMA are worse. This was a study of  
113 nearly 37,000 patients with a 3% DAMA rate in an acute hospital setting. DAMA was associated with  
114 increased risk of death in patients (adjusted hazard ratio 2.6) and increased incidence of readmission  
115 (standardised incidence ratio 1.9). Typically, such increases persist at 12 months, despite readmission  
116 (Mitchell et al., 2021).

117 Cost

118 Much of the research in this field originates from North America and therefore rightly concerns the  
119 role of healthcare costs in DAMA.

120 Healthcare system

121 There is a 50% higher cost and 100% longer stay at readmission to the healthcare system, albeit largely  
122 for the same diagnosis made at the index admission (Aliyu, 2002). The overall costs are hard to

123 estimate in the UK, but in the US may be up to \$800 million which is driven primarily by readmissions,  
124 accounting for more than additional 400,000 inpatient hospital bed days (Tan et al., 2020).

#### 125 Patient

126 In the US, most residents (68.6%) and nearly half of attendings (43.9%) believed health insurance  
127 companies would deny payment when a patient decides to DAMA and yet, despite this widely held  
128 belief, no cases of payment refusal were due to DAMA (Schaefer et al., 2012). Furthermore, such  
129 doctors are more likely to report informing patients wishing to DAMA that they may be held financially  
130 responsible. Despite the treating doctor thinking they are acting in the patient's best interests by  
131 trying to convince them to stay, this is grounded in paternalism. Moreover, even in healthcare systems  
132 which are free at the point of care such as the UK, paternalism and indirect non-healthcare costs may  
133 also play a role. For example, if the patient is self-employed one needs to consider the potential impact  
134 on the patient, their family and their employees, if they remain hospitalised.

#### 135 Healthcare professionals

136 There is also a hidden cost, as a source of moral distress for physicians, burdened with a sense of guilt  
137 that they could not convince the patient to stay and of futility and inevitability about the outcome  
138 (Windish and Ratanawongsa, 2008).

#### 139 Interventions

140 What can be done to reduce the incidence and the impact of DAMA, in terms of earlier identification,  
141 renaming and reframing, prevention and harm reduction following DAMA (Foster et al., 2023)?

#### 142 Identifying

143 Early identification of vulnerable patients and preventive measures such as improved patient-provider  
144 communication may reduce DAMA (Spooner et al., 2017).

#### 145 Admission

146 Approximately 75% of patients will give an indication about their intention to DAMA and so speaking  
147 directly with patients from admission about their intentions may be helpful in proactively addressing  
148 concerns and initiating disposition planning (Holmes et al., 2021).

#### 149 Substance misuse

150 All patients with an active history of substance misuse are at highest risk of DAMA and could be pro-  
151 actively targeted from admission, along with those with caring roles, particularly on a weekend or out  
152 of hours (Ti and Ti, 2015).

#### 153 Prior DAMA

154 Prior behaviour can predict future behaviour and therefore it is unsurprising that a history of DAMA,  
155 if known, increases the risk of future DAMA (Alfandre et al., 2017) up to 170-fold (Kraut et al., 2013).

#### 156 Other non-adherent behaviour

157 Patients who are known to be non-adherent with medical therapy are at four-fold increased risk of  
158 DAMA (Ogunbayo et al., 2019) and non-adherence is not benign, either for the patient, the  
159 professional or the healthcare service (Cleemput and Kesteloot, 2002).

#### 160 Low Patient Satisfaction

161 Departments or organisations with a low patient satisfaction score are at higher risk of DAMA and as  
162 such should receive additional high-level support (Grillo Ruggieri et al., 2018).

#### 163 Renaming and reframing

164 The term “DAMA” is often considered to have loaded connotations and therefore replacements have  
165 been proposed such as “alternative discharge” or “patient-initiated discharge” (Kleinman et al., 2022).  
166 Indeed, the entire DAMA process could be viewed more positively, in that it represents an opportunity  
167 for those in positions of power, to empower patients and show empathy and care (Machin et al.,  
168 2018). Rather than being viewed as a failure of the individual patient, or clinician, it could also  
169 considered as a product of “ineffective and non-patient-centred care that disproportionately impacts  
170 vulnerable groups and itself leads to inefficient, untimely, inequitable and unsafe care” (Ambasta et  
171 al., 2020).

#### 172 Preventing

173 Following early identification of patients at high risk of DAMA, preventing DAMA itself, is the next  
174 step. This is best summarised by the “DAMA universal precautions” firstly, treat substance withdrawal  
175 and pain, secondly communicate compassionately and non-judgmentally, thirdly proactively manage  
176 bothersome physical and emotional symptoms, and finally utilize psychiatric consultation early  
177 (Tummalapalli et al., 2020a).

#### 178 Managing Expectations

179 Patients frequently identified an unmet expectation to be involved in setting the treatment plan as a  
180 reason to DAMA (Onukwugha et al., 2012). Such expectations are important to ascertain and address,  
181 therefore counselling should be directed toward their needs (Albayati et al., 2021). Or if necessary,  
182 allowing the patient to leave, even if just temporarily e.g. caring for pets or relatives, may also  
183 encourage patients to remain in hospital long term. Even if this is in breach of the unwritten contract  
184 patients sign up to on admission.

#### 185 Shared Decision Making

186 Increasingly it is felt that reframing DAMA by focusing on patient empowerment and autonomy may  
187 help to guide hospital policies to focus on a patient-centred approach, encouraging shared decision  
188 making (SDM) and safe follow-up planning.

#### 189 Support Services

190 Boredom and confinement during lengthy hospitalizations and isolation from family and other social  
191 support structures is commonly cited as reason for DAMA. Therefore, involvement of family and  
192 friends, especially if the patient is either abroad or in a remote centre is likely to be of benefit (Pollini  
193 et al., 2021). Furthermore, utilisation of inpatient addiction medicine services as part of early  
194 intervention for substance withdrawal could also be helpful (Lail and Fairbairn, 2018).

#### 195 Destigmatising

196 In certain groups, DAMA maybe driven by real or perceived negative attitudes to certain patient  
197 groups (Askew et al., 2021; Simon et al., 2020). Decreasing DAMA requires a shift of thinking away  
198 from perceiving this as the behaviour of a deviant individual, but rather being considered as  
199 opportunity for quality improvement to ensure that all patients are cared for in a respectful and  
200 person-centred manner (Askew et al., 2021).

#### 201 Follow-up

202 Finally, if DAMA is not identified or prevented, the harms should be minimised. Traditionally follow-  
203 up appointments and even medications to take home have not been provided for such patient groups,  
204 one presumes as a punitive measure. Sadly, in an overstretched, underfunded healthcare service, a  
205 patient wishing to DAMA is often seen as one less problem to sort.

#### 206 Transition clinics

207 Another option, especially for those patients that DAMA without a primary care provider, would be  
208 the provision of specific post-discharge transition clinics. This is considered best practice, although  
209 promoting and measuring engagement with this is key (Mayer et al., 2023; Prakash and Naguib, 2019;  
210 Tummalapalli et al., 2020b). Figure 2 demonstrates a step wise approach for clinicians to adhere to  
211 when considering DAMA.



212

213 Figure 2: Checklist for clinicians when patients wish to DAMA

214

#### 215 Hospital at home

216 It is also worth thinking beyond the hospital setting, for example, can therapy be safely provided in  
217 the community with appropriate fail safes in place. (Alagappan et al., 2023).

218

219

#### 220 Discussion

221 It is clear that in Western adult inpatient hospital settings DAMA is common, costly and comes with  
222 significant implications for both the individual patient and the wider healthcare system. Whilst the  
223 aetiological factors identified by both patient and health professionals are similar across studies, most  
224 of the published data are from retrospective, case-control or qualitative studies from single  
225 institutions, limiting the ability to define a clear causal relationship (Albayati et al., 2021; Onukwugha  
226 and Alfandre, 2019).

227 To date there are no prospective, randomised trials investigating the extent to which any of the  
228 proposed interventions may reduce DAMA. Which given the limited number of papers on PubMed is  
229 unsurprising. The only study is from a neonatal intensive care unit where a focused intervention  
230 including “family counselling, supplemental funds and involving family members” in decision making  
231 reduced DAMA by 1.6% to 0.5% (Bosco et al., 2021). Whilst these findings are interesting in adult  
232 inpatient settings, we appear to lack robust evidence to support adoption of any of the proposed  
233 solutions. However, it is worth considering how the interventions may be useful in clinical practice.

234 Inclusion of a DAMA checklist looking for those “red flags”, in the nursing or medical clerking pro-  
235 forma might be a practical way of identifying those at higher risk. For example, if a patient identified  
236 during admission is a substance misuser, this could automatically trigger a referral to inpatient  
237 addiction services. Identification is the first step and much of this information is already captured  
238 during the admission process. This could readily be performed as a quality improvement project.

239 Following identifying those at risk, an SDM approach may incorporate many of the proposed  
240 interventions to reduce DAMA, which predominantly focus on communication. An SDM approach has  
241 been proven to improve therapeutic concordance and patient satisfaction along with reduced  
242 healthcare consultations and decisional conflict (De Nunzio et al., 2018; Kew et al., 2017).

243 Regarding follow-up appointments and transition clinics, physical attendance is likely to be poor, with  
244 a cumulative effect of worse patient outcomes (Ellis et al., 2017; McQueenie et al., 2019). DAMA and  
245 non-adherence, or even non-attendance, elsewhere in healthcare are fundamentally similar.  
246 Differences, where they exist, are often rooted in the quantity or immediacy of health risk and in the  
247 ability of physicians to monitor the patient (Berger, 2008). However, the recent emergence of video  
248 consultations, hospital at home and virtual wards may enable follow-up and monitoring in a more  
249 remote fashion, which may reduce barriers in accessing healthcare and consequently reduce non-  
250 attendance, non-adherence and DAMA.

251 Whilst we lack the evidence, in terms of the observed sequelae of DAMA one can hypothesise that a  
252 meaningful reduction may be achieved by the potential healthcare interventions discussed above.  
253 Possible mechanisms for reducing readmission rates or length of stay for example will be primarily  
254 driven by reducing DAMA at the index admission and so the patient is promptly assessed, investigated  
255 and treatment completed. Therefore, patients will not need to be readmitted for partially treated  
256 pathology nor develop complications leading to increased length of stay.

257 Healthcare professionals in this scenario face an ethical dilemma, managing their desire to respect the  
258 patient's wish to reduce DAMA and therefore the patient's self-determination versus what they consider  
259 clinically is best for the patient and therefore acting with beneficence (Alfandre, 2009). It is important  
260 that healthcare professionals avoid blaming and shaming the patient in this setting and there is  
261 emerging evidence that they would welcome additional training in managing ethical situations like  
262 DAMA (Machin et al., 2020; Machin and Proctor, 2021). Training packages have been developed and  
263 unpublished data suggests that this is well received and increases confidence in dealing with such  
264 situations (D'Costa et al., 2024; Machin and Baker, 2023). Whilst, it is unclear whether this will  
265 translate in to a real-world impact, engagement and education of the medical profession will be key  
266 to changing perceptions and managing expectations around the DAMA process.

267

## 268 Conclusions

269 DAMA is common and increasingly so, with an emerging body of research documenting its negative  
270 impact on patient morbidity and mortality. DAMA also increases costs and stress to a frequently  
271 overstretched healthcare service. However, despite all of this, it remains somewhat of a marginal issue  
272 certainly from a research perspective. Following this review, we now know of the factors which lead  
273 to DAMA, how to identify those at risk and of ways that may reduce its occurrence. It seems that SDM  
274 has a large role to play in all of the above along with novel ways of working and education and  
275 engagement of healthcare professionals. However, it remains to be seen if healthcare systems will  
276 start playing closer attention to this growing significant issue and what robust evidence we will have  
277 to guide us in reducing DAMA.

278

## 279 Key Points

280 1) Patients who reduce DAMA comprise between 1-2% of all hospital admissions.



- 281 2) More common in young males, lower socioeconomic status, substance or mental health disorder.  
282 3) DAMA increases the risks of readmission, length of stay, healthcare costs and mortality.  
283 4) DAMA means the presenting complaint may be inadequately assessed, treated or followed-up  
284 5) The reasons for DAMA are broad, from simply feeling better to the need to care for others.

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