

NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

Ann Longterm Care. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2010 August 30.

Published in final edited form as: Ann Longterm Care. 2010 May ; 18(5): 17–22.

Detecting Adverse Drug Events Using a Nursing Home Specific Trigger Tool

Steven M. Handler, MD, MS, CMD [Assistant Professor] 1,2,3 and Joseph T. Hanlon, PharmD, MS, BCPS [Professor] 2,3,4,5

¹ Department of Biomedical Informatics, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

² Division of Geriatric Medicine, Department of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, PA, USA

³ Geriatric Research Education and Clinical Center (GRECC), Veterans Affairs Pittsburgh Healthcare System (VAPHS), Pittsburgh

⁴ Department of Pharmacy and Therapeutics, School of Pharmacy, University Pittsburgh

⁵ Center for Health Equity Research and Promotion (CHERP), VAPHS, Pittsburgh

Adverse drug events (ADEs) are defined by the Institute of Medicine (IOM) as, "injuries resulting from a medical intervention related to a drug."¹ Institutionalized elderly experience ADEs at a rate as high as 10.8 events per 100-patient months, often as a result of polypharmacy, multiple comorbid illness, and difficulty with monitoring prescribed medications.^{2–4} This translates into approximately 135 ADEs each year in an average size nursing home (NH; bed size of 105) or approximately 2 million events a year among all U.S. NH patients. ADEs represent the most clinically significant and costly medication-related problems in NHs and are associated with 93,000 deaths a year and in as much as \$4 billion of excess healthcare expenditures.^{5–6} Despite the consequences and costs associated with ADEs, the vast majority of these events go undetected using traditional methods including comprehensive chart reviews, direct observation, and voluntary reporting. Therefore, alternative surveillance strategies are needed in NHs to supplement existing detection strategies and minimize the potential consequences of ADEs.

The trigger tool methodology, developed in part by the Institute of Healthcare Improvement (IHI), greatly simplifies the chart review process by allowing rapid and systematic examination of charts to extract relevant data for the detection of potential ADEs. The technique, which requires minimal training, appears to increase the rate of ADE detection 50-fold from traditional reporting methods.⁷ The triggers themselves represent specific events including the ordering of certain medications (e.g., antidotes, such as Vitamin K), the results of certain laboratory studies (e.g., supratherapeutic serum medication concentrations, such as digoxin level), and change in clinical status or new sign or symptom (e.g., drug-induced fall or drug-related rash). Since the triggers are likely to differ based on specific clinical setting, multiple IHI trigger tools have been developed including those for: mental health settings, adult inpatient, adult outpatient, adult intensive care units, adult peri-operative care units, pediatric inpatient, and neonatal intensive care units.⁸ Many of the clinical setting-specific trigger tools have been successfully used to demonstrate the benefits of low-cost error detection strategies that produce consistent, reliable, and relevant data.^{9–13}

Corresponding Author: Steven M. Handler, MD, MS, Department of Biomedical Informatics and Division of Geriatric Medicine, M-183 Parkvale Building, 200 Meyran Ave, Pittsburgh, PA 15213, USA, (412) 647-1452 (W) (412), 291-2141 (F) handler@pitt.edu.

Recently, a study was completed to develop a consensus list of agreed upon laboratory, pharmacy, and Minimum Data Set triggers to expand the use of the trigger tool methodology to the NH setting.¹⁴ The authors conducted a comprehensive literature search for potential ADE triggers, followed by an Internet-based, two-round, modified Delphi survey of physician, pharmacist, and advanced practitioner experts in geriatrics. Panelists reached consensus agreement on 40 triggers: 15 laboratory/medication combinations, 12 medication concentrations, 10 antidotes, and 3 Resident Assessment Protocols (RAPs). Highest consensus scores (4.6; 95% CI, 4.4–4.9 or 4.4–4.8) were for naloxone when taking opioid analgesics; phytonadione when taking warfarin; dextrose, glucagon, or liquid glucose when taking hypoglycemic agents; medication-induced hypoglycemia; supratherapeutic international normalized ratio when taking warfarin; and triggering the Falls RAP when taking certain medications.

The IHI formally adopted this set of 40 triggers as the "Nursing Home Adverse Drug Event Trigger Tool."¹⁵ We suggest that this tool be incorporated into the consultant pharmacist medication regimen review (MRR) process. The State Operations Manual provides a definition for MRR (i.e., F428), as a thorough evaluation of the medication regimen of a resident, with goal of promoting positive outcomes and minimizing adverse consequences. The review includes preventing, identifying, reporting, and resolving medication errors, or other irregularities, and collaborating with other members of the interdisciplinary team.¹⁶ According to these new guidelines, F428 emphasizes that consultant pharmacists are expected to perform MRRs at least every 30 days, and expedited reviews for short-stay residents, as well as those residents who experience an acute change in condition.¹⁷

The IHI recommends either one of the two following strategies to detect triggers and investigate them to determine if an ADE has occurred: 1) review a *sample* of resident charts (**letters A through I**), or 2) review *all* resident charts (**letters B through G**):

- A. Select a random sample of 20 resident records.
- **B.** Obtain incident report information (e.g., medication error, adverse drug event, and falls reports) from the nursing home administrator, director of nursing, or risk management (if permissible).
- C. Review each resident record, paying particular attention to the following sections:
 - **a.** Physician orders and Medication Administration Records (MARs): Look for trigger medications.
 - **b.** Laboratory reports: Look for trigger lab results.
 - **c.** Consultant pharmacist medication regimen review notes, consultations, and recommendations made to the attending physician. Look for previous recommendations made for monitoring, gradual dose reduction, or to stop drug, change drug, change dose, change directions, change schedule, or other (e.g., add a drug, change formulation).
 - **d.** Physician and nursing progress notes looking for acute or gradual change in condition such as new or worsening cognitive or functional status, falls, lethargy, gastrointestinal problems, hypotension, rash, nausea/vomiting, or other adverse events that may be associated with the use of a medication. Also, take note of any unplanned hospitalization and emergency department evaluations.
- **D.** List all triggers found on the ADE Resident Record Review Sheet (Table 1).

Ann Longterm Care. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2010 August 30.

- **E.** For each trigger found, read through the appropriate parts of the resident record to determine if an ADE has occurred. Sometimes professional judgment will be required to make this determination. Some ADEs will result in more than one trigger; use your best judgment in determining the number of ADEs that occurred in this situation.
- **F.** If an ADE occurred, assign a category of harm (E through I) and provide a brief description of the ADE (Table 1).
- **G.** After you have completed the ADE Patient Record Review Sheet for the patient records in the sample, summarize your findings in the ADE Monthly Summary Sheet (Table 2). For each patient record reviewed, document the following: whether an ADE occurred; the number of ADEs; and (if you collected data on doses) the total number of medication doses received.
- **H.** Use the data in the ADE Monthly Summary Sheet to calculate one or both of these important measures:
 - a. Percent of residents with an ADE
 - i. The total number residents identified as having experienced any ADEs from a sample of resident records, divided by the total number of records in the sample; multiplied by 100 to express as a percentage.
 - **b.** ADEs per 1,000 Doses
 - **i.** The total number of ADEs identified in a sample of resident records, divided by the total number of medication doses administered to those residents. Multiply the result by 1,000.
- I. Track the measures (Percent of Admissions with an ADE, ADEs per 1,000 Doses) over time in a run chart, to see if changes you are testing are making the medication system safer. You can use the Improvement Tracker on IHI.org to automatically track and graph these measures over time.

The IHI recommends using the results of this tool to measure the number of ADEs in an organization over time, and determine whether or not the changes a facility is making results in improvement. Similar to other NH quality improvement initiatives, the results can be summarized and reported to the quality assessment and assurance (QAA) committee that is required to meet at least quarterly as described in F520.¹⁸ During these meetings, the committee can develop and implement plans of action to correct the future occurrence of ADEs, including monitoring the effect of implemented changes and making needed revisions to the action plans.

The future of ADE detection in the NH setting will likely rely on utilizing health information technology. This is consistent with the IOM and other patient safety organizations recommendation that all healthcare settings assess the safety of medication use through active monitoring systems within a culture of safety.^{1, 16–22} Although most NHs have yet to adopt a significant amount of health information technology²³, the majority generate laboratory, pharmacy, and Minimum Data Set data in electronic format that can be used by active medication monitoring systems to automate the detection of ADEs. Recently, investigators have developed and tested an active medication monitoring system using the consensus set of NH triggers accepted by IHI.²⁴ They found that they could detect ADEs with a high degree of accuracy and at a rate of nearly 2.5 times greater than that of *usual care* (i.e., pharmacist-conducted manual chart review).

Bibliography

- 1. Institute of Medicine. Preventing Medication Errors. Washington, DC: National Academies Press; 2007.
- 2. Handler SM, Wright RM, Ruby CM, Hanlon JT. Epidemiology of medication-related adverse events in nursing homes. Am J Geriatr Pharmacother Sep;2006 4(3):264–272. [PubMed: 17062328]
- 3. Gurwitz JH, Field TS, Avorn J, McCormick D, Jain S, Eckler M, et al. Incidence and preventability of adverse drug events in nursing homes. Am J Med 2000;109(2):87–94. [PubMed: 10967148]
- 4. Gurwitz JH, Field TS, Judge J, Rochon P, Harrold LR, Cadoret C, et al. The incidence of adverse drug events in two large academic long-term care facilities. Am J Med Mar;2005 118(3):251–258. [PubMed: 15745723]
- 5. Bootman JL, Harrison DL, Cox E. The health care cost of drug-related morbidity and mortality in nursing facilities. Arch Intern Med 1997;157(18):2089–2096. [PubMed: 9382665]
- Gurwitz JH, Field TS, Rochon P, Judge J, Harrold LR, Bell CM, et al. Effect of computerized provider order entry with clinical decision support on adverse drug events in the long-term care setting. J Am Geriatr Soc 2008;56(12):2225–2233. [PubMed: 19093922]
- 7. Cohen, MR., editor. Medication Errors. Washington, DC: American Pharmacists Association; 2007.
- Institute for Healthcare Improvement. Trigger Tool for Measuring Adverse Drug Events (IHI Tool). [Accessed August 17, 2009]. http://www.ihi.org/IHI/Topics/PatientSafety/MedicationSystems/Tools/Trigger+Tool+for +Measuring+Adverse+Drug+Events+(IHI+Tool).htm
- Resar RK, Rozich JD, Classen D. Methodology and rationale for the measurement of harm with trigger tools. Qual Saf Health Care Dec;2003 12(Suppl 2):ii39–45. [PubMed: 14645894]
- Rozich JD, Haraden CR, Resar RK. Adverse drug event trigger tool: a practical methodology for measuring medication related harm. Qual Saf Health Care Jun;2003 12(3):194–200. [PubMed: 12792009]
- Takata GS, Mason W, Taketomo C, Logsdon T, Sharek PJ. Development, testing, and findings of a pediatric-focused trigger tool to identify medication-related harm in US children's hospitals. Pediatrics Apr;2008 121(4):e927–935. [PubMed: 18381521]
- Cohen MM, Kimmel NL, Benage MK, Cox MJ, Sanders N, Spence D, et al. Medication safety program reduces adverse drug events in a community hospital. Qual Saf Health Care Jun;2005 14 (3):169–174. [PubMed: 15933311]
- Sharek PJ, Horbar JD, Mason W, Bisarya H, Thurm CW, Suresh G, et al. Adverse events in the neonatal intensive care unit: development, testing, and findings of an NICU-focused trigger tool to identify harm in North American NICUs. Pediatrics Oct;2006 118(4):1332–1340. [PubMed: 17015521]
- Handler SM, Hanlon JT, Perera S, Roumani YF, Nace DA, Fridsma DB, et al. Consensus list of signals to detect potential adverse drug reactions in nursing homes. J Am Geriatr Soc May;2008 56 (5):808–815. [PubMed: 18363678]
- 15. Institute for Healthcare Improvement. Trigger Tool for Measuring Adverse Drug Events in the Nursing Home. [Accessed August 17, 2009]. http://www.ihi.org/IHI/Topics/PatientSafety/MedicationSystems/Tools/ TriggerToolforMeasuringADEsinNursing+Home.htm
- 16. Martin CM, McSpadden CS. Changes in the state operations manual: implications for consultant pharmacy practice. Consult Pharm Dec;2006 21(12):948–961. [PubMed: 17243847]
- 17. Bain KT. Adverse drug reactions and current state of drug regimen review in nursing facilities: need for a change? Consult Pharm Jul;2007 22(7):586–592. [PubMed: 17714003]
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services and Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services. Guidance to surveyors for long term care facilities. State Operations Provider Certification. [Accessed September 10, 2008]. http://www.cms.hhs.gov/transmittals/downloads/R22SOMA.pdf
- 19. National Quality Forum. Safe Practices for Better Healthcare: A Consensus Report. 2003.
- 20. Institute of Medicine. Patient Safety: Achieving a New Standard for Care. Washington, D.C: The National Academies Press; 2004.

Ann Longterm Care. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2010 August 30.

- Shojania, KG.; Duncan, BW.; McDonald, KM.; Watchter, RM. Making Health Care Safer: A Critical Analysis of Patient Safety Practices. Rockville, MD: Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality; 2001. p. 43
- 22. Kilbridge PM, Classen DC. Automated surveillance for adverse events in hospitalized patients: back to the future. Qual Saf Health Care Jun;2006 15(3):148–149. [PubMed: 16751458]
- 23. Alexander GL, Wakefield DS. Information technology sophistication in nursing homes. J Am Med Dir Assoc Jul;2009 10(6):398–407. [PubMed: 19560717]
- 24. Handler SM, Hanlon JT, Perera S, Saul MI, Fridsma DB, Visweswaran S, et al. Assessing the Performance Characteristics of Signals Used by a Clinical Event Monitor to Detect Adverse Drug Reactions in the Nursing Home. Proceedings / AMIA 2008:278–282.

Table 1

Trigger Tool for Measuring Adverse Drug Events in the Nursing Home

Nursing Home Resident	Record Review Sheet			
Patient Identification N	umber:			
Admission Date:	Patient's Age:			
Review Date:				
Trigger Number	Laboratory/Medication Combination Signals			
T1	Hypoglycemia (as indicated by a low or decreasing glucose concentration) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen hypoglycemia			
T2	Supratherapeutic (above upper limit of normal range) international normalized ratio (INR) is found in an individual taking warfarin			
T3	Clostridium difficile toxin is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause pseudomembranous colitis			
T4	Hyperkalemia (as indicated by a high or increasing potassium concentration) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen hyperkalemia			
Τ5	Hypokalemia (as indicated by a low or decreasing potassium concentration) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen hypokalemia			
T6	Thrombocytopenia (as indicated by a low or decreasing platelet count) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen thrombocytopenia			
T7	Supratherapeutic activated partial thromboplastin time (PTT) is found in an individual taking heparin			
T8	Subtherapeutic concentration (below lower limit of normal range) of thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) or elevated concentration of thyroxine (T4) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause hyperthyroidism			
Т9	Hyponatremia (as indicated by a low or decreasing sodium concentration) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen hyponatremia			
T10	Leukopenia (as indicated by a low or decreasing white blood cell count) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen leukopenia			
T11	Elevated alanine aminotransferase (ALT) or aspartate aminotransferase (AST) concentration is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause hepatocellular toxicity			
T12	Elevated creatinine or blood urea nitrogen (BUN) concentration is found in an individual taking a drug that may increase creatinine or BUN			
T13	Supratherapeutic concentration of TSH or decreased concentration of T4 is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause hypothyroidism			
T14	Agranulocytosis or neutropenia (as indicated by a low or decreasing neutrophil count) is found in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen agranulocytosis or neutropenia			
T15	Elevated creatine phosphokinase (CPK) concentration is found in an individual taking a drug that may increase CPK			
	Medication Concentration Signals			
T16	Aminoglycoside peak or trough concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking an aminoglycoside antibiotic (e.g., amikacin, gentamicin, or tobramycin)			
T17	Phenytoin concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking phenytoin			
T18	Lithium concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking lithium			
T19	Theophylline trough concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual Taking theophylline			
T20	Digoxin concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking digoxin			
T21	Procainamide concentration or N-acetylprocainamide (NAPA) concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking procainamide			
T22	Primidone (Mysoline) concentration or phenobarbital concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking primidone			
	Medication Concentration Signals (continued)			
T23	Quinidine concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking quinidine			

Ann Longterm Care. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2010 August 30.

T24	Valproic acid concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking valproic acid		
T25	Phenobarbital concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking phenobarbital		
T26	Carbamazepine concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking carbamazepine		
T27	Disopyramide (Norpace) concentration is supratherapeutic in an individual taking disopyramide		
	Antidote Signals		
T28	Naloxone (Narcan) is given to an individual taking an opioid analgesic		
T29	Phytonadione (vitamin K) in oral, subcutaneous, or intravenous form is given to an individual taking warfarin		
T30	Dextrose 50%, glucagon, or liquid glucose is given to an individual taking a drug that may cause hypoglycemia		
T31	Protamine sulfate is given to an individual taking heparin		
T32	Digoxin immune Fab (Digibind) is given to an individual with a supratherapeutic digoxin concentration		
Т33	Epinephrine is given to an individual taking a drug that may cause an anaphylactic reaction		
T34	Metronidazole (oral) or vancomycin (oral) is given to an individual who has recently taken a drug that may cause pseudomembranous colitis		
T35	Benztropine (Cogentin), diphenhydramine, or trihexyphenidyl (Artane) is given to an individual taking a drug that may cause extrapyramidal symptoms		
T36	Lepirudin (Refludan) is given to an individual taking a drug that may cause heparin-induced thrombocytopenia		
T37	Sodium polystyrene (Kayexalate) is given to an individual taking a drug that may cause hyperkalemia		
	Resident Assessment Protocol Signals		
T38	Falls RAP is triggered in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen falls (falls with or without injury)		
T39	Delirium RAP is triggered in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen delirium (periodic disordered thinking or awareness)		
T40	Dehydration/Fluid Maintenance RAP is triggered in an individual taking a drug that may cause or worsen dehydration (fluid loss exceeding the amount of fluid intake)		

Adapted from Handler SM, et al. Consensus list of signals to detect potential adverse drug reactions in nursing homes. J Am Geriatr Soc 2008;56(5): 808–15.

	ADE Found?			
Triggers found:	Yes	No	Harm Category*	Description of ADE
Total ADEs for this resident:				
Total number of doses of medication for this resident (if available):				

*Harm Category (adapted from NCC-MERP Index; Categories A-D do not cause harm):

Category E: Temporary harm to the patient and required intervention

Category F: Temporary harm to the patient and required initial or prolonged hospitalization

Category G: Permanent patient harm

Category H: Intervention required to sustain life

Category I: Patient death

Table 2

ADE Monthly Summary Sheet

Date					
Patient	ADE found (Yes/No)?	Total Number of ADEs for this patient:	Total number of doses of medications for this patient (if available):		
Pt #1					
Pt #2					
Pt #3					
Pt #4					
Pt #5					
Pt #6					
Pt #7					
Pt #8					
Pt #9					
Pt #10					
Pt #11					
Pt #12					
Pt #13					
Pt #14					
Pt #15					
Pt #16					
Pt #17					
Pt #18					
Pt #19					
Pt #20					
	Total:	Total:	Total:		

Percent of Residents with an ADE

The total number patients identified as having experienced any ADE from a sample of patient records (Column 1 Total), divided by the total number of records in the sample; multiplied by 100 to express as a percentage.

ADEs per 1,000 Doses

The total number of ADEs identified in a sample of patient records (Column 2 Total), divided by the total number of medication doses administered to those patients (Column 3 Total). Multiply the result by 1,00