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# BMJ Open

## Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug interaction alerts

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3 **Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce**  
4 **prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug**  
5 **interaction alerts**  
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## ABSTRACT

### Introduction

Drug-drug interaction (DDI) alerts in hospital electronic medication management (EMM) systems are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. This project aims to determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and on patient harm in the inpatient setting. It also aims to identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts, and to develop algorithms to improve the specificity of DDI alerting systems.

### Methods and analysis

A controlled pre-post design will be used. Study sites include six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales and Queensland. Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months following implementation of the EMM system at each site (total 3360 patients) will be retrospectively reviewed by study pharmacists to identify potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and associated patient harm. To identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Non-identifiable DDI alert data will be extracted from EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation in order to quantify alert burden on prescribers. Finally, data collected from chart review and EMM systems will be linked with clinically relevant DDIs to inform the development of algorithms to trigger only clinically relevant DDI alerts in EMM systems.

### Ethics and dissemination

This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics Committee (18/02/21/4.07). Study results will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences and workshops.

## ARTICLE SUMMARY

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- A controlled pre-post study will evaluate the impact of DDI alerts on errors and harm, the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of EMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.
- This study uses a large-scale, multi-site, mixed-methods approach.
- This study is one of a small number to assess actual harm to patients from DDIs
- Results may not be generalisable to hospitals with substantially different work practices or DDI alerting systems
- This study is limited in that assessments of patient harm will be done retrospectively from information contained in medical records.

## INTRODUCTION

Drug-drug interactions (DDIs) occur when two or more medications are taken in combination that lead to a change in the effects of one or more medications.[1, 2] The result can be therapeutic failure, where the medications do not achieve their anticipated effects, or adverse patient outcomes, such as bleeding or kidney damage.[3] The prevalence of DDIs is on the rise as our population ages, as patients have a greater number of chronic conditions, and use more medicines concurrently. A cross sectional analysis of dispensing data for over 300,000 residents in Scotland between 1995 and 2010, revealed that the rate of potentially serious DDIs more than doubled in the 15-year time-frame.[4] Not unexpectedly, a strong relationship exists between the number of medications prescribed and the probability of a DDI occurring.[5] This is a highly significant problem for patients in hospital, who take on average 12 medications.[6, 7]

Studies of DDI rates in hospitals report highly variable results, with the rate of DDIs dependent on how they are defined (e.g. 'potential DDI' vs. 'actual DDI'), measured (e.g. per patient, per order) and identified (e.g. via chart review vs. automatic detection using software). The quality of some previous studies is also questionable, with many neglecting to specify these key pieces of information. In a recent systematic review and meta-analysis which aimed to determine the prevalence of DDIs in hospitalised patients, it was found that 33% of patients experienced a *potential* DDI during their hospital stay.[8] Studies rarely went further than identifying potential DDIs to determine which of these represented clinically relevant DDIs for a patient or resulted in actual patient harm. In the small number of studies that did this, potential DDIs proved to be very poor predictors of DDI-related harm, with only approximately 2% of potential DDIs associated with actual patient harm.[8]

Despite this, a common approach taken by organisations is to implement decision support for prescribers in electronic medication management (EMM) systems to reduce DDIs. Although DDIs are predictable in nature, the sheer volume of known drug interactions is likely to contribute to poor DDI detection, with research showing that prescribers are often unable to recognise DDIs.[9] Decision support typically comprises computerised alerts, which are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. There is good evidence to show that when well designed and targeted, computerised alerts can have positive effects on prescribing behaviour.[10, 11] However, accompanying this evidence, are a large number of studies demonstrating alerts are overridden by users, along with accounts of user annoyance and frustration. Clinicians override 49%–96% of drug alerts[12] and our own research has shown that in certain contexts, doctors do not read the majority of alerts presented.[13] *Alert fatigue*, when users



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3 become overwhelmed and desensitized to alert presentation, is the primary reason for alerts  
4 being ignored.  
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6 Although DDI alerts have the potential to reduce serious medication errors, there has been  
7 limited research evaluating their effectiveness in both reducing DDIs and patient harm. Two  
8 studies have examined the impact of a single customised DDI alert on the concurrent  
9 ordering of two medications, but reported inconsistent findings.[14, 15] In one case,  
10 introduction of a DDI alert also resulted in unintended consequences (e.g. delays in  
11 appropriate treatment).[15] To date, no research has examined the impact of DDI alert sets  
12 (i.e. a suite of DDI alerts, not a single DDI alert) on DDIs or harm.  
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17 Previous evaluations of DDI alerts have focused on a review of the number of alerts  
18 generated and overridden (i.e. dismissed with no change made to a medication order) by  
19 prescribers.[16] This research has shown that prescribers receive very large numbers of DDI  
20 alerts and override almost all alerts (over 90%) that are presented. Despite international  
21 efforts to improve DDI alerts, override rates remain as high as they were over a decade  
22 ago.[17] There is now little doubt that improving alert specificity is critical for reducing  
23 frequent interruptions to prescriber workflow (i.e. too many alerts) and improving the  
24 effectiveness of computerised alerts to prevent errors.[18, 19]  
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30 Despite the scarcity of evidence demonstrating that DDI alerts reduce DDIs and patient  
31 harm, the United States Government's Meaningful Use Program,[20] and Healthcare  
32 Information and Management Systems Society (HIMMS) Electronic Medical Record  
33 Adoption Model[21] both recommend implementation of drug interaction checking within  
34 electronic medical records. However, a major consequence of DDI alert inclusion in EMM  
35 systems is the alert burden this places on prescribers. Thus, the inclusion of DDI alerts in  
36 EMM systems is likely to result in prescribers presented with hundreds of DDI alerts a day.  
37 Alert fatigue is almost certain to eventuate, with doctors learning to ignore all alerts, even  
38 those that present safety-critical information. Thus, decisions about which types of alerts to  
39 include in EMM systems are non-trivial in terms of both ensuring a positive impact on patient  
40 care and a minimal impact on prescribers' cognitive load.  
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47 With limited evidence available to guide the implementation of DDI alerts, hospitals are faced  
48 with a difficult decision when implementing EMM systems: should DDI alerts be turned on,  
49 and if so, which alerts? Such decisions should be informed by evidence which demonstrates  
50 that alerts align well with prescriber workflow, are effective in reducing errors and result in  
51 reduced patient harm. No such evidence currently exists. In recognising this significant  
52 evidence gap, we are partnering with eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD to undertake a  
53 comprehensive evaluation of DDI alerts. The project aims to:  
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1. Determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and patient harm.
2. Identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts.
3. Quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts in hospital medication systems.
4. Develop algorithms to predict clinically relevant DDIs.

## METHODS AND ANALYSIS

### Study design

Table 1 provides a summary of the study design and methods to be used, and the main outcome measures (defined in Table 2). A controlled pre-post design will be adopted. This is the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of eMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.

**Table 1. Study design and outcomes**

| Aim | Design/method  | Outcome measures/outputs  | When collected       |
|-----|--|---|----------------------|
| 1   | Controlled pre-post study involving retrospective review of medical records  | Rates of potential DDIs<br>Rates of clinically relevant DDIs<br>Rates of patient harm | Before and after EMM |
| 2   | Human factors evaluation – observations and interviews with prescribers  | Alert usability and acceptability, barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts | After EMM            |
| 3   | Analysis of alert data extracted from EMM systems  | Alert burden (alerts/patient; alerts/order; alerts/prescriber)                        | After EMM            |
| 4   | Analysis of patient and medication information collected during retrospective review and extracted from clinical information systems | Algorithms which predict clinically relevant DDIs                                     | After EMM            |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management

**Table 2. Definitions of potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and harm resulting from DDIs**

| Category  | Definition   |
|---|--|
| Potential drug-drug interaction                     | A potential DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>potentially</i> altered.   |
| Clinically relevant drug-drug interaction           | A clinically relevant DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>highly likely</i> to be altered when taking into account individual patient factors (age, gender, diagnosis, comorbidities) and medication order factors (dose and route of potentially interacting medications).  |
| Drug-drug interaction that resulted in patient harm | Drug pairs that interacted and resulted in harm to the patient. Identification of harm is based on clinical evidence and confirmed by symptoms and investigations recorded in the patient record. Harm constitutes "impairment of structure or function of the body and/or any deleterious effect arising there from, including disease, injury, suffering, disability and death, and may be physical, social or psychological".[22] |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction

### Research project setting

The study will be conducted at six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales (NSW) and Queensland (QLD). Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. All study sites used paper medication charts prior to implementation of EMM systems and all sites have replaced or will replace paper charts with an EMM system. This study will evaluate only one component of the EMM system: clinical decision support in the form of DDI alerts.

This study includes three main methods of data collection, namely retrospective chart review (Aims 1 and 4), observations and interviews (Aim 2), and data extraction from clinical

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3 information systems (Aims 3 and 4). Our methodological approach is presented separately  
4 for each part of the study.  
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### 6 Part 1. Retrospective chart review 7

8 The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months  
9 following implementation of the EMM system at each site will be retrospectively reviewed  
10 (total 3360 patients). Medication orders for these patients will initially be entered into  
11 *Stockley's Interactions Checker* (an authoritative international source of drug interaction  
12 information; <http://www.medicinescomplete.com/>) to identify potential DDIs. Based on the  
13 severity classifications used by the Stockley's checker, potential DDIs of the two highest  
14 severity levels (i.e. *severe* and *moderate*) will undergo further review. Study pharmacists (not  
15 affiliated with any study hospital) will complete a detailed audit of patients' medical records to  
16 determine whether these potential DDIs represent clinically relevant DDIs, taking into  
17 account patient factors such as age, sex, renal function, and medication order factors, such  
18 as route.  
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25 Any evidence of possible harm resulting from the DDIs (e.g. abnormal test result,  
26 administration of an antidote) will also be extracted from patient records. When possible  
27 harm is identified, these patient cases will be presented to an expert panel of clinical  
28 pharmacologists who will determine whether these possible harms constitute actual patient  
29 harm resulting from the DDI. Severity of harm to patients will be classified on the 5-point  
30 *Severity Assessment Code (SAC) Scale*,<sup>[23]</sup> used in our past research.<sup>[24, 25]</sup> Clinician  
31 confidence in the association between the DDI and identified harm will be classified using  
32 the *WHO-Uppsala Monitoring Centre (WHO-UMC) Algorithm*.<sup>[26]</sup>  
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38 The pharmacists will also note any documentation which suggests that a DDI was  
39 recognised yet intentionally prescribed (e.g. the DDI was considered by the prescriber, who  
40 reduced a medication dose, increased monitoring or took no additional actions). During post  
41 EMM implementation data collection, reviewers will record whether a DDI alert was triggered  
42 for the potential DDIs and prescribers' actions in response to alerts in terms of whether the  
43 prescriber modified, cancelled or proceeded with an order.  
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48 The limitations of medical records data are inherent to this methodology, and will be  
49 minimised by using multiple sources of information from the records, and by using both  
50 pharmacists and clinical pharmacologists to assess clinical outcomes.  
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### 52 *Sample size calculation* 53

54 We identified only two high-quality papers that report the proportion of patient admissions  
55 with a potential DDI, however only one of these studies used comparable methodology to  
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our planned study.[27] That study found that 56% of patients experienced at least one *potential DDI* during their hospital stay. No research to date has examined the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates. Our two expert clinical pharmacologists (RD and SH) estimate a 25% change in potential DDIs to be clinically significant. We used this estimate of a clinically significant change and the 56% baseline figure to estimate the sample size required in our study with a two-sided test for proportions (90% power and a 95% confidence interval). The number of patient admissions to be reviewed per study period at each site was determined to be 280. Thus, across the entire study period and the six study sites, 3360 patient admissions will be audited.

### *Data analysis*

To determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDIs, we will conduct an intention to treat analysis. A generalised linear modelling approach will be applied to examine if implementation of DDI alerts was associated with a significant reduction in potential DDI rates, clinically relevant DDI rates, and the occurrence and severity of patient harm. Data collected at the six hospitals will be used. Rates of DDIs and harm from the intervention and control hospitals will be compared at baseline and after EMM implementation.

## Part 2. Observations and interviews

### *Participants*

Approximately 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Doctors will be directly approached while working on wards and invited to take part in the study. All doctors who prescribe medications are eligible to participate. Participation is voluntary and all doctors will be required to provide written informed consent. A snowball sampling approach will also be used whereby doctors who participate in the study will be asked to inform other doctors about the study. This recruitment approach has proven highly successful in our previous evaluations of decision support. [13, 28, 29]

### *Procedure*

Doctors will be shadowed by a human factors researcher during medication-related tasks (e.g. ward-rounds, medicine review) and all interactions with alerts will be recorded. In particular, the researcher will note if alerts are read, and if alerts impacted on medication-related work (e.g. medication order changed, alert content discussed with a colleague). Approximately 30 hours of observation at each site is planned. Doctors will also be invited to participate in a brief semi-structured interview. Interview questions will focus on usability and

acceptability of the DDI alerts in their hospital EMM system (e.g. usefulness, integration into workflow), see Table 3.

**Table 3. Semi-structured interview questions for doctors**

| <b>Basic demographics</b>   |
|---|
| Role  |
| Years practicing medicine   |
| Ward/specialty  |
| EMM system in use   |
| Length of time using EMM system   |
| <b>Opinion of EMMS and DDI alerts</b>   |
| Do you prefer using paper or electronic charts? Why?  |
| What alerts are operational in your EMM system?   |
| Roughly how many DDI alerts do you see in a day?  |
| Do you find the DDI alerts useful or bothersome?  |
| Do you read the alerts? Which ones and why?   |
| Do you think alerts are effective in changing prescribing decisions? How often do they result in a change to your prescribing? Can you think of an occasion when an alert impacted on your prescribing? |
| If there was an option to remove DDI alerts from the EMMS, would you support their removal? Why?  |
| Can you think of any changes needed to the DDI alerts?  |
| Any other comments?   |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management

### *Data analysis*

Detailed field notes on the impact of computerised alerts on medication-related work will be taken during observations. Interviews with prescribers will be audiotaped and transcribed. Content will be de-identified and analysed by two investigators to identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts. A general inductive approach to analysis will be used.[30] Investigators will meet periodically throughout qualitative data collection to discuss barriers and facilitators and determine at what point saturation of themes is achieved (i.e. no new barriers and facilitators are apparent). Recruitment of participants will continue at each site until theme saturation is reached. This is viewed as an appropriate strategy for determining sample size in qualitative research.[31] Emergent themes from each site will be compared

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3 and contrasted to determine differences in barriers and facilitators, and on perceived  
4 usefulness, usability and acceptability of DDI alerts in EMM.  
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### 9 *Part 3. Analysis of data extracted from clinical information systems*

#### 10 *Part 3a. Analysis of data to determine alert burden*

11 Non-identifiable DDI alert data (including number of alerts triggered) will be extracted from  
12 intervention hospital EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation. Data will be  
13 used to quantify alert burden on prescribers. That is, the number DDI alerts encountered and  
14 overridden. Descriptive statistics will be used to determine the number of medications  
15 prescribed per patient admission, the number of DDI alerts encountered as a proportion of  
16 the number of medications prescribed, and the proportion of DDI alerts overridden.  
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#### 22 *Part 3b. Analysis of data to develop algorithms*

23 Data extracted from hospital clinical information systems will be linked with data collected  
24 during retrospective chart review, including information related to clinically relevant DDIs.  
25 Decision tree modelling and Bayesian modelling will be used to develop algorithms which  
26 predict the occurrence of clinically relevant DDIs. When embedded into an EMM system,  
27 these algorithms will improve the performance of DDI alerting systems, including specificity  
28 and positive predictive value of clinically relevant DDIs.  
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## 36 **ETHICS AND DISSEMINATION**

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38 This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics  
39 Committee (18/02/21/4.07) and ratified by Macquarie University Human Research Ethics  
40 Committee.  
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43 The research will fill a significant knowledge gap by providing data on how frequently DDIs  
44 occur in hospitalised patients, what proportion of potential DDIs are clinically relevant, and  
45 what proportion lead to patient harm. Importantly, this research will generate the first data on  
46 the effectiveness of DDI alerts to reduce medication errors and prevent patient harm. It will  
47 also provide information on the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI  
48 alerts and on how DDI alerts impact on clinicians' work.  
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52 Doctors are increasingly being asked to incorporate new technology into their work with little  
53 assessment of the ways in which systems may adversely impact their workflow or efficiency.  
54 Our human factors evaluation provide an in-depth examination of this impact, identify  
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3 barriers to optimal use of alerts and use this evidence to inform future alert design and future  
4 EMM education for clinicians. Adopting a human factors approach to evaluation and  
5 incorporating user input into redesign will not only increase likelihood of optimal use of alerts,  
6 but ensure systems are targeting problem areas and are easy to use and integrate into  
7 current practice. Thus our human factors evaluation will facilitate the direct translation of  
8 research into optimal system redesign and use.  
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12 Another outcome of the research will be algorithms to predict the occurrence of clinically  
13 relevant DDIs. When incorporated into EMM systems, these algorithms will improve  
14 specificity of DDI alerting systems - alerts will only trigger to warn of clinically relevant DDIs,  
15 not potential DDIs. This will reduce the alert burden to prescribers substantially.  
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19 Our results will have both immediate and long-term effects on Australian hospitals, and more  
20 broadly, as hospitals worldwide implement EMM systems. Study results will be published in  
21 peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences. Key study  
22 findings will be communicated to NSW and QLD hospitals, and system vendors via annual  
23 workshops. With assistance from our partners, eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD, results from  
24 this study will also be integrated into state-wide design of EMM systems.  
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29 This research will provide much needed evidence to inform decisions about selection and  
30 design of computerised alerts in EMM systems in Australian hospitals and internationally.  
31 EMM systems are becoming a central tool in clinical practice and over the next decade the  
32 majority of clinical work will be performed using and guided by this technology. Working  
33 closely with our partner investigators, our study will produce evidence to ensure that decision  
34 support is effective in producing clinical benefits that outweigh any potentially dangerous  
35 disruptions to clinical work due to excessive alerting.  
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31 All authors contributed to and approved the final manuscript. MTB conceived the study and  
32 led the revisions of the draft manuscript. WYZ and BVD assisted in drafting the manuscript  
33 and in project management, including ethics approval. MTB, LL, JW, RD and SH are Chief  
34 Investigators on the project and all made contributions to the project in their specific areas of  
35 expertise. AH, PK, CM, MD, LN, RS are Associate Investigators and provided input to the  
36 protocol, particularly with respect to electronic systems, planned translation, and practical  
37 aspects of the study.  
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# BMJ Open

## Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug interaction alerts

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3 **Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce**  
4 **prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug**  
5 **interaction alerts**  
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## ABSTRACT

### Introduction

Drug-drug interaction (DDI) alerts in hospital electronic medication management (EMM) systems are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. This project aims to determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and on patient harm in the inpatient setting. It also aims to identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts, and to develop algorithms to improve the specificity of DDI alerting systems.

### Methods and analysis

A controlled pre-post design will be used. Study sites include six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales and Queensland. Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months following implementation of the EMM system at each site (total 3360 patients) will be retrospectively reviewed by study pharmacists to identify potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and associated patient harm. To identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Non-identifiable DDI alert data will be extracted from EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation in order to quantify alert burden on prescribers. Finally, data collected from chart review and EMM systems will be linked with clinically relevant DDIs to inform the development of algorithms to trigger only clinically relevant DDI alerts in EMM systems.

### Ethics and dissemination

This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics Committee (18/02/21/4.07). Study results will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences and workshops.



## ARTICLE SUMMARY

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- A controlled pre-post study will evaluate the impact of DDI alerts on errors and harm. This is the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of EMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.
- This study uses a large-scale, multi-site, mixed-methods approach.
- This study is one of a small number to assess actual harm to patients from DDIs
- Results may not be generalisable to hospitals with substantially different work practices or DDI alerting systems
- This study is limited in that assessments of patient harm will be done retrospectively from information contained in medical records.

## INTRODUCTION

Drug-drug interactions (DDIs) occur when two or more medications are taken in combination that lead to a change in the effects of one or more medications.<sup>1 2</sup> The result can be therapeutic failure, where the medications do not achieve their anticipated effects, or adverse patient outcomes, such as bleeding or kidney damage.<sup>3</sup> The prevalence of DDIs is on the rise as our population ages, as patients have a greater number of chronic conditions, and use more medicines concurrently. A cross sectional analysis of dispensing data for over 300,000 residents in Scotland between 1995 and 2010, revealed that the rate of potentially serious DDIs more than doubled in the 15-year time-frame.<sup>4</sup> Not unexpectedly, a strong relationship exists between the number of medications prescribed and the probability of a DDI occurring.<sup>5</sup> This is a highly significant problem for patients in hospital, who take on average 12 medications.<sup>6 7</sup>

Studies of DDI rates in hospitals report highly variable results, with the rate of DDIs dependent on how they are defined (e.g. 'potential DDI' vs. 'actual DDI'), measured (e.g. per patient, per order) and identified (e.g. via chart review vs. automatic detection using software). The quality of some previous studies is also questionable, with many neglecting to specify these key pieces of information. In a recent systematic review and meta-analysis which aimed to determine the prevalence of DDIs in hospitalised patients, it was found that 33% of patients experienced a *potential* DDI during their hospital stay.<sup>8</sup> Studies rarely went further than identifying potential DDIs to determine which of these represented clinically relevant DDIs for a patient or resulted in actual patient harm. In the small number of studies that did this, potential DDIs proved to be very poor predictors of DDI-related harm, with only approximately 2% of potential DDIs associated with actual patient harm.<sup>8</sup>

Despite this, a common approach taken by organisations is to implement decision support for prescribers in electronic medication management (EMM) systems to reduce DDIs.

Although DDIs are predictable in nature, the sheer volume of known drug interactions is likely to contribute to poor DDI detection, with research showing that prescribers are often unable to recognise DDIs.<sup>9</sup> Decision support typically comprises computerised alerts, which are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. There is good evidence to show that when well designed and targeted, computerised alerts can have positive effects on prescribing behaviour.<sup>10 11</sup>

However, accompanying this evidence, are a large number of studies demonstrating alerts are overridden by users, along with accounts of user annoyance and frustration. Clinicians override 49%–96% of drug alerts<sup>12</sup> and our own research has shown that in certain contexts, doctors do not read the majority of alerts presented.<sup>13</sup> *Alert fatigue*, when users become

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3 overwhelmed and desensitized to alert presentation, is the primary reason for alerts being  
4 ignored.  
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7 Although DDI alerts have the potential to reduce serious medication errors, there has been  
8 limited research evaluating their effectiveness in both reducing DDIs and patient harm. Two  
9 studies have examined the impact of a single customised DDI alert on the concurrent  
10 ordering of two medications, but reported inconsistent findings.<sup>14 15</sup> In one case, introduction  
11 of a DDI alert also resulted in unintended consequences (e.g. delays in appropriate  
12 treatment).<sup>15</sup> To date, no research has examined the impact of DDI alert sets (i.e. a suite of  
13 DDI alerts, not a single DDI alert) on DDIs or harm.  
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17 Previous evaluations of DDI alerts have focused on a review of the number of alerts  
18 generated and overridden (i.e. dismissed with no change made to a medication order) by  
19 prescribers.<sup>16</sup> This research has shown that prescribers receive very large numbers of DDI  
20 alerts and override almost all alerts (over 90%) that are presented. Despite international  
21 efforts to improve DDI alerts, override rates remain as high as they were over a decade  
22 ago.<sup>17</sup> There is now little doubt that improving alert specificity is critical for reducing frequent  
23 interruptions to prescriber workflow (i.e. too many alerts) and improving the effectiveness of  
24 computerised alerts to prevent errors.<sup>18 19</sup>  
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33 Despite the scarcity of evidence demonstrating that DDI alerts reduce DDIs and patient  
34 harm, the United States Government's Meaningful Use Program,<sup>20</sup> and Healthcare  
35 Information and Management Systems Society (HIMMS) Electronic Medical Record  
36 Adoption Model<sup>21</sup> both recommend implementation of drug interaction checking within  
37 electronic medical records. However, a major consequence of DDI alert inclusion in EMM  
38 systems is the alert burden this places on prescribers. Thus, the inclusion of DDI alerts in  
39 EMM systems is likely to result in prescribers presented with hundreds of DDI alerts a day.  
40 Alert fatigue is almost certain to eventuate, with doctors learning to ignore all alerts, even  
41 those that present safety-critical information. Thus, decisions about which types of alerts to  
42 include in EMM systems are non-trivial in terms of both ensuring a positive impact on patient  
43 care and a minimal impact on prescribers' cognitive load.  
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51 With limited evidence available to guide the implementation of DDI alerts, hospitals are faced  
52 with a difficult decision when implementing EMM systems: should DDI alerts be turned on,  
53 and if so, which alerts? Such decisions should be informed by evidence which demonstrates  
54 that alerts align well with prescriber workflow, are effective in reducing errors and result in  
55 reduced patient harm. No such evidence currently exists. In recognising this significant  
56 evidence gap, we are partnering with eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD to undertake a  
57 comprehensive evaluation of DDI alerts. The project aims to:  
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1. Determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and patient harm.
2. Identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts.
3. Quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts in hospital medication systems.
4. Develop algorithms to predict clinically relevant DDIs.

## METHODS AND ANALYSIS

### Study design

Table 1 provides a summary of the study design and methods to be used, and the main outcome measures (defined in Table 2). A controlled pre-post design will be adopted. This is the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of EMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.

**Table 1. Study design and outcomes**

| Aim      | Design/method  | Outcome measures/outputs  | When collected       |
|----------|--|---|----------------------|
| <b>1</b> | Controlled pre-post study involving retrospective review of medical records  | Rates of potential DDIs<br>Rates of clinically relevant DDIs<br>Rates of patient harm | Before and after EMM |
| <b>2</b> | Human factors evaluation – observations and interviews with prescribers  | Alert usability and acceptability, barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts | After EMM            |
| <b>3</b> | Analysis of alert data extracted from EMM systems  | Alert burden (alerts/patient; alerts/order; alerts/prescriber)                        | After EMM            |
| <b>4</b> | Analysis of patient and medication information collected during retrospective review and extracted from clinical information systems | Algorithms which predict clinically relevant DDIs                                     | After EMM            |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management

**Table 2. Definitions of potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and harm resulting from DDIs**

| Category  | Definition   |
|---|--|
| Potential drug-drug interaction                     | A potential DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>potentially</i> altered.   |
| Clinically relevant drug-drug interaction           | A clinically relevant DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>highly likely</i> to be altered when taking into account individual patient factors (age, gender, diagnosis, comorbidities) and medication order factors (dose and route of potentially interacting medications).  |
| Drug-drug interaction that resulted in patient harm | Drug pairs that interacted and resulted in harm to the patient. Identification of harm is based on clinical evidence and confirmed by symptoms and investigations recorded in the patient record. Harm constitutes “impairment of structure or function of the body and/or any deleterious effect arising there from, including disease, injury, suffering, disability and death, and may be physical, social or psychological”. <sup>22</sup> |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction

### Research project setting

The project commenced in December 2017 and is due to be completed in December 2021. The study will be conducted at six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales (NSW) and Queensland (QLD). Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. Hospitals were allocated to intervention or control based on their decision to include or exclude DDI alerts in their implementation plan. All study sites used paper medication charts prior to implementation of EMM systems and all sites have replaced or will replace paper charts with an EMM system.

This study will evaluate only one component of the EMM system: clinical decision support in the form of DDI alerts. DDI alerts to be implemented at each site are interruptive, require an

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3 override reason to be entered, but none are hard-stop alerts preventing the prescriber from  
4 continuing with their order. All intervention hospital EMM systems will utilise the Cerner  
5 Multum™ DDI knowledge-base (<https://www.cerner.com/solutions/drug-database>) for DDI  
6 detection, although some local customisation is expected. A list of all DDI alerts which have  
7 been incorporated into EMM systems will be provided to researchers following  
8 implementation.  
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13 This study includes three main methods of data collection, namely retrospective chart review  
14 (Aims 1 and 4), observations and interviews (Aim 2), and data extraction from clinical  
15 information systems (Aims 3 and 4). See Figure 1. Our methodological approach is  
16 presented separately for each part of the study.  
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### 20 Part 1. Retrospective chart review

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22 The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months  
23 following implementation of the EMM system at each site will be retrospectively reviewed  
24 (total 3360 patients). Patients will be randomly selected from all patients admitted to study  
25 hospitals during a one-week period six months before and six months after EMM. Patients  
26 who visited the ED but were not admitted to wards and those in wards where a different  
27 EMM system was in use (i.e. the intensive care unit and oncology department) will be  
28 excluded. Medication orders for patients will initially be entered into *Stockley's Interactions*  
29 *Checker* (an authoritative international source of drug interaction information;  
30 <http://www.medicinescomplete.com/> - see Appendix 1) to identify potential DDIs. Based on  
31 the severity classifications used by the Stockley's checker, potential DDIs of the two highest  
32 severity levels (i.e. *severe* and *moderate*) will undergo further review. Study pharmacists (not  
33 affiliated with any study hospital) will complete a detailed audit of patients' medical records to  
34 determine whether these potential DDIs represent clinically relevant DDIs, taking into  
35 account patient factors such as age, sex, renal function, and medication order factors, such  
36 as route.  
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47 Any evidence of possible harm resulting from the DDIs (e.g. abnormal test result,  
48 administration of an antidote) will also be extracted from patient records. When possible  
49 harm is identified, these patient cases will be presented to an expert panel of clinical  
50 pharmacologists who will determine whether these possible harms constitute actual patient  
51 harm resulting from the DDI. Severity of harm to patients will be classified on the 5-point  
52 *Severity Assessment Code (SAC) Scale*,<sup>23</sup> used in our past research.<sup>24 25</sup> Clinician  
53 confidence in the association between the DDI and identified harm will be classified using  
54 the *WHO-Uppsala Monitoring Centre (WHO-UMC) Algorithm*.<sup>26</sup>  
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3 The pharmacists will also note any documentation which suggests that a DDI was  
4 recognised yet intentionally prescribed (e.g. the DDI was considered by the prescriber, who  
5 reduced a medication dose, increased monitoring or took no additional actions). During post  
6 EMM implementation data collection, reviewers will record whether a DDI alert was triggered  
7 for the potential DDIs.  
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11 The limitations of medical records data are inherent to this methodology, and will be  
12 minimised by using multiple sources of information from the records, and by using both  
13 pharmacists and clinical pharmacologists to assess clinical outcomes and their link to DDIs.  
14 The drug interaction checker used to identify potential DDIs (Stockley's) differs from the DDI  
15 knowledge-base operating in the 'intervention' EMM systems. There is large variability in the  
16 DDIs included in different knowledge-bases and reference sources.<sup>27</sup> We selected Stockley's  
17 for DDI identification as it is considered to be the gold standard and often used as a  
18 comparison point for other reference sources.<sup>28 29</sup>  
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### 25 *Sample size calculation*

26 We identified only two high-quality papers that report the proportion of patient admissions  
27 with a potential DDI, however only one of these studies used comparable methodology to  
28 our planned study.<sup>30</sup> That study found that 56% of patients experienced at least one *potential*  
29 *DDI* during their hospital stay. No research to date has examined the impact of DDI alerts on  
30 DDI rates. Our two expert clinical pharmacologists (RD and SH) estimate a 25% change in  
31 potential DDIs to be clinically significant. We used this estimate of a clinically significant  
32 change and the 56% baseline figure to estimate the sample size required in our study with a  
33 two-sided test for proportions (90% power and a 95% confidence interval). The number of  
34 patient admissions to be reviewed per study period at each site was determined to be 280.  
35 Thus, across the entire study period and the six study sites, 3360 patient admissions will be  
36 audited.  
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### 45 *Data analysis*

46 To determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDIs, we will conduct an intention to treat analysis.  
47 A generalised linear modelling approach will be applied to examine if implementation of DDI  
48 alerts was associated with a significant reduction in potential DDI rates, clinically relevant  
49 DDI rates, and the occurrence and severity of patient harm. Data collected at the six  
50 hospitals will be used. Rates of DDIs and harm from the intervention and control hospitals  
51 will be compared at baseline and after EMM implementation.  
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## Part 2. Observations and interviews

### Participants

Approximately 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Doctors will be directly approached while working on wards and invited to take part in the study. All doctors who prescribe medications are eligible to participate. Participation is voluntary and all doctors will be required to provide written informed consent. A snowball sampling approach will also be used whereby doctors who participate in the study will be asked to inform other doctors about the study. This recruitment approach has proven highly successful in our previous evaluations of decision support.<sup>13 31 32</sup>

### Procedure

Prescribers will be shadowed by a human factors researcher during medication-related tasks (e.g. ward-rounds, medicine review) and all interactions with alerts will be recorded. In particular, the researcher will note if alerts are read, and if alerts impacted on medication-related work (e.g. medication order changed, alert content discussed with a colleague). Approximately 30 hours of observation at each site is planned. Prescribers will also be invited to participate in a brief semi-structured interview. Interview questions will focus on usability and acceptability of the DDI alerts in their hospital EMM system (e.g. usefulness, integration into workflow), see Table 3.

**Table 3. Semi-structured interview questions for prescribers**

|  |
|--|
| <b>Basic demographics</b>                            |
| Role   |
| Years practicing medicine                            |
| Ward/specialty                                       |
| EMM system in use                                    |
| Length of time using EMM system                      |
| <b>Opinion of EMMS and DDI alerts</b>                |
| Do you prefer using paper or electronic charts? Why? |
| What alerts are operational in your EMM system?      |
| Roughly how many DDI alerts do you see in a day?     |
| Do you find the DDI alerts useful or bothersome?     |
| Do you read the alerts? Which ones and why?          |



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3 Do you think alerts are effective in changing prescribing decisions? How often  
4 do they result in a change to your prescribing? Can you think of an occasion  
5 when an alert impacted on your prescribing?  
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8 If there was an option to remove DDI alerts from the EMMS, would you support  
9 their removal? Why?  
10

11 Can you think of any changes needed to the DDI alerts?  
12

13 Any other comments?  
14

15 Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management  
16

### 17 *Data analysis*

18 Detailed field notes on the impact of computerised alerts on medication-related work will be  
19 taken during observations. Interviews with prescribers will be audiotaped and transcribed.  
20 Content will be de-identified and analysed by two investigators to identify barriers and  
21 facilitators to optimal use of alerts. A general inductive approach to analysis will be used.<sup>33</sup>  
22 Investigators will meet periodically throughout qualitative data collection to discuss barriers  
23 and facilitators and determine at what point saturation of themes is achieved (i.e. no new  
24 barriers and facilitators are apparent). Recruitment of participants will continue at each site  
25 until theme saturation is reached. This is viewed as an appropriate strategy for determining  
26 sample size in qualitative research.<sup>34</sup> Emergent themes from each site will be compared and  
27 contrasted to determine differences in barriers and facilitators, and on perceived usefulness,  
28 usability and acceptability of DDI alerts in EMM.  
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### 39 *Part 3. Analysis of data extracted from clinical information systems*

#### 40 *Part 3a. Analysis of data to determine alert burden*

41 Non-identifiable DDI alert data (including number of alerts triggered) will be extracted from  
42 intervention hospital EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation. Data will be  
43 used to quantify alert burden on prescribers. That is, the number DDI alerts encountered and  
44 overridden. Descriptive statistics will be used to determine the number of medications  
45 prescribed per patient admission, the number of DDI alerts encountered as a proportion of  
46 the number of medications prescribed, and the proportion of DDI alerts overridden.  
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#### 53 *Part 3b. Analysis of data to develop algorithms*

54 Data extracted from hospital clinical information systems will be linked with data collected  
55 during retrospective chart review, including information related to clinically relevant DDIs.  
56 Decision tree modelling and Bayesian modelling will be used to develop algorithms which  
57 predict the occurrence of clinically relevant DDIs to improve the specificity and positive  
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3 predictive value of identifying these DDIs. If relevant, a mixed effect model will be applied to  
4 consider the correlation between medications ordered by the same prescribers.  
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### 7 Patient and public involvement

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9 No patients or the public were involved in any stage of the research process for this study.  
10  
11

## 12 ETHICS AND DISSEMINATION

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14  
15 This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics  
16 Committee (18/02/21/4.07) and ratified by Macquarie University Human Research Ethics  
17 Committee.  
18  
19

20  
21 The research will fill a significant knowledge gap by providing data on how frequently DDIs  
22 occur in hospitalised patients, what proportion of potential DDIs are clinically relevant, and  
23 what proportion lead to patient harm. Importantly, this research will generate the first data on  
24 the effectiveness of DDI alerts to reduce medication errors and prevent patient harm. It will  
25 also provide information on the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI  
26 alerts and on how DDI alerts impact on clinicians' work.  
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30  
31 Doctors are increasingly being asked to incorporate new technology into their work with little  
32 assessment of the ways in which systems may adversely impact their workflow or efficiency.  
33 Our human factors evaluation provide an in-depth examination of this impact, identify  
34 barriers to optimal use of alerts and use this evidence to inform future alert design and future  
35 EMM education for clinicians. Adopting a human factors approach to evaluation and  
36 incorporating user input into redesign will not only increase likelihood of optimal use of alerts,  
37 but ensure systems are targeting problem areas and are easy to use and integrate into  
38 current practice. Thus our human factors evaluation will facilitate the direct translation of  
39 research into optimal system redesign and use.  
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46 Another outcome of the research will be algorithms to predict the occurrence of clinically  
47 relevant DDIs. When incorporated into EMM systems, these algorithms would have the  
48 potential to improve specificity of DDI alerting systems - alerts will only trigger to warn of  
49 clinically relevant DDIs, not potential DDIs. This will reduce the alert burden to prescribers  
50 substantially.  
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54  
55 Our results will have both immediate and long-term effects on Australian hospitals, and more  
56 broadly, as hospitals worldwide implement EMM systems. Study results will be published in  
57 peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences. Key study  
58 findings will be communicated to NSW and QLD hospitals, and system vendors via annual  
59  
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workshops. With assistance from our partners, eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD, results from this study will also be integrated into state-wide design of EMM systems.

This research will provide much needed evidence to inform decisions about selection and design of computerised alerts in EMM systems in Australian hospitals and internationally. EMM systems are becoming a central tool in clinical practice and over the next decade the majority of clinical work will be performed using and guided by this technology. Working closely with our partner investigators, our study will produce evidence to ensure that decision support is effective in producing clinical benefits that outweigh any potentially dangerous disruptions to clinical work due to excessive alerting.

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13 All authors contributed to and approved the final manuscript. MTB conceived the study and  
14 led the revisions of the draft manuscript. WYZ and BVD assisted in drafting the manuscript  
15 and in project management, including ethics approval. MTB, LL, JW, RD and SH are Chief  
16 Investigators on the project and all made contributions to the project in their specific areas of  
17 expertise. AH, PK, CM, MD, LN, RS and PD are Associate Investigators and provided input  
18 to the protocol, particularly with respect to electronic systems, planned translation, and  
19 practical aspects of the study.  
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29  
30

## 31 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

32  
33 The authors have no known competing interests.  
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## 39 **FIGURES**

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41 Figure 1. Overall study design  
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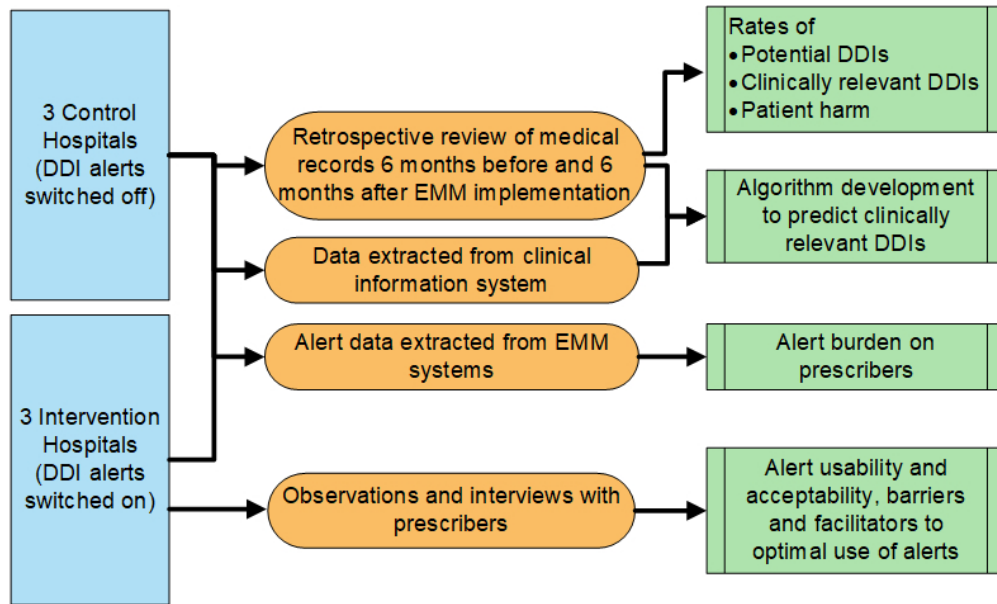


Figure 1. Overall study design

# Appendix 1: Stockley's Interactions Checker

Stockley's Interactions Checker uses 4 levels of severity:

## 1. Severe

For interactions that could totally incapacitate a patient or result in either a permanent detrimental effect or a life-threatening event.

## 2. Moderate

For interactions that could result in an effect that may either cause considerable distress or partially incapacitate a patient. These interactions are unlikely to be life-threatening or result in long-term effects.

## 3. Mild

For interactions that could result in an effect that is mild and unlikely to unduly concern or incapacitate the majority of patients.

## 4. Nothing expected

For interactions that are unlikely to result in an effect, or for drugs pairs where no interaction occurs.

For each interaction, Stockley's recommends one of the following actions:

### 1. Avoid

For interactions where a drug combination is best avoided. This will mainly be used to highlight contraindicated drug pairs.

### 2. Monitor

For interactions where the drug pair is valuable and no compensatory action is possible, but the patient needs to be monitored to assess the outcome. For interactions where biochemical or therapeutic drug monitoring is recommended and further action may be needed based on the results.

### 3. Information

For interactions where close follow up or monitoring are probably not automatically warranted due to the low probability of an interaction, but where more information is given in the event of a problem.

Recommendations are based on the following:

### 1. Extensive

1  
2  
3 For interactions where the information given is based on numerous small or medium size  
4 studies or several large studies. The information is usually supported by case reports.  
5  
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7

## 8 **2. Study**

9  
10 For interactions where the information given is based on formal study. This may be one  
11 small or medium size study, or several small studies. The studies may or may not be  
12 supported by case reports.  
13

## 14 **3. Case**

15  
16 For interactions where the information given is based either on a single case report or a  
17 limited number of case reports. No trials appear to have been conducted.  
18  
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## 20 **4. Theoretical**

21 For interactions where the information given is based on a theoretical interaction or lack of  
22 interaction. This information may have been derived either from in vitro studies involving  
23 the drug in question or based on the way other members of the same group act.  
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# BMJ Open

## Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug interaction alerts

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|---------------------------------|--|
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| Article Type:                   | Protocol   |
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| <b>Primary Subject Heading</b>: | Health informatics   |
| Secondary Subject Heading:      | Health services research   |
| Keywords:                       | Drug-drug interaction, Decision support, Alert, Alert fatigue  |
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3 **Optimising computerised decision support to transform medication safety and reduce**  
4 **prescriber burden: Study protocol for a mixed-methods evaluation of drug-drug**  
5 **interaction alerts**  
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## ABSTRACT

### Introduction

Drug-drug interaction (DDI) alerts in hospital electronic medication management (EMM) systems are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. This project aims to determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and on patient harm in the inpatient setting. It also aims to identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts, and to develop algorithms to improve the specificity of DDI alerting systems.

### Methods and analysis

A controlled pre-post design will be used. Study sites include six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales and Queensland. Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months following implementation of the EMM system at each site (total 3360 patients) will be retrospectively reviewed by study pharmacists to identify potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and associated patient harm. To identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts, 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Non-identifiable DDI alert data will be extracted from EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation in order to quantify alert burden on prescribers. Finally, data collected from chart review and EMM systems will be linked with clinically relevant DDIs to inform the development of algorithms to trigger only clinically relevant DDI alerts in EMM systems.

### Ethics and dissemination

This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics Committee (18/02/21/4.07). Study results will be published in peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences and workshops.

## ARTICLE SUMMARY

### Strengths and limitations of this study

- A controlled pre-post study will evaluate the impact of DDI alerts on errors and harm. This is the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of EMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.
- This study uses a large-scale, multi-site, mixed-methods approach.
- This study is one of a small number to assess actual harm to patients from DDIs
- Results may not be generalisable to hospitals with substantially different work practices or DDI alerting systems
- This study is limited in that assessments of patient harm will be done retrospectively from information contained in medical records.

## INTRODUCTION

Drug-drug interactions (DDIs) occur when two or more medications are taken in combination that lead to a change in the effects of one or more medications.<sup>1 2</sup> The result can be therapeutic failure, where the medications do not achieve their anticipated effects, or adverse patient outcomes, such as bleeding or kidney damage.<sup>3</sup> The prevalence of DDIs is on the rise as our population ages, as patients have a greater number of chronic conditions, and use more medicines concurrently. A cross sectional analysis of dispensing data for over 300,000 residents in Scotland between 1995 and 2010, revealed that the rate of potentially serious DDIs more than doubled in the 15-year time-frame.<sup>4</sup> Not unexpectedly, a strong relationship exists between the number of medications prescribed and the probability of a DDI occurring.<sup>5</sup> This is a highly significant problem for patients in hospital, who take on average 12 medications.<sup>6 7</sup>

Studies of DDI rates in hospitals report highly variable results, with the rate of DDIs dependent on how they are defined (e.g. 'potential DDI' vs. 'actual DDI'), measured (e.g. per patient, per order) and identified (e.g. via chart review vs. automatic detection using software). The quality of some previous studies is also questionable, with many neglecting to specify these key pieces of information. In a recent systematic review and meta-analysis which aimed to determine the prevalence of DDIs in hospitalised patients, it was found that 33% of patients experienced a *potential* DDI during their hospital stay.<sup>8</sup> Studies rarely went further than identifying potential DDIs to determine which of these represented clinically relevant DDIs for a patient or resulted in actual patient harm. In the small number of studies that did this, potential DDIs proved to be very poor predictors of DDI-related harm, with only approximately 2% of potential DDIs associated with actual patient harm.<sup>8</sup>

Despite this, a common approach taken by organisations is to implement decision support for prescribers in electronic medication management (EMM) systems to reduce DDIs. Although DDIs are predictable in nature, the sheer volume of known drug interactions is likely to contribute to poor DDI detection, with research showing that prescribers are often unable to recognise DDIs.<sup>9</sup> Decision support typically comprises computerised alerts, which are generated at the point of prescribing to warn doctors about potential interactions in their patients' medication orders. There is good evidence to show that when well designed and targeted, computerised alerts can have positive effects on prescribing behaviour.<sup>10 11</sup> However, accompanying this evidence, are a large number of studies demonstrating alerts are overridden by users, along with accounts of user annoyance and frustration. Clinicians override 49%–96% of drug alerts<sup>12</sup> and our own research has shown that in certain contexts, doctors do not read the majority of alerts presented.<sup>13</sup> *Alert fatigue*, when users become



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3 overwhelmed and desensitized to alert presentation, is the primary reason for alerts being  
4 ignored.  
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7 Although DDI alerts have the potential to reduce serious medication errors, there has been  
8 limited research evaluating their effectiveness in both reducing DDIs and patient harm. Two  
9 studies have examined the impact of a single customised DDI alert on the concurrent  
10 ordering of two medications, but reported inconsistent findings.<sup>14 15</sup> In one case, introduction  
11 of a DDI alert also resulted in unintended consequences (e.g. delays in appropriate  
12 treatment).<sup>15</sup> To date, no research has examined the impact of DDI alert sets (i.e. a suite of  
13 DDI alerts, not a single DDI alert) on DDIs or harm.  
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17 Previous evaluations of DDI alerts have focused on a review of the number of alerts  
18 generated and overridden (i.e. dismissed with no change made to a medication order) by  
19 prescribers.<sup>16</sup> This research has shown that prescribers receive very large numbers of DDI  
20 alerts and override almost all alerts (over 90%) that are presented. Despite international  
21 efforts to improve DDI alerts, override rates remain as high as they were over a decade  
22 ago.<sup>17</sup> There is now little doubt that improving alert specificity is critical for reducing frequent  
23 interruptions to prescriber workflow (i.e. too many alerts) and improving the effectiveness of  
24 computerised alerts to prevent errors.<sup>18 19</sup>  
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33 Despite the scarcity of evidence demonstrating that DDI alerts reduce DDIs and patient  
34 harm, the United States Government's Meaningful Use Program,<sup>20</sup> and Healthcare  
35 Information and Management Systems Society (HIMMS) Electronic Medical Record  
36 Adoption Model<sup>21</sup> both recommend implementation of drug interaction checking within  
37 electronic medical records. However, a major consequence of DDI alert inclusion in EMM  
38 systems is the alert burden this places on prescribers. Thus, the inclusion of DDI alerts in  
39 EMM systems is likely to result in prescribers presented with hundreds of DDI alerts a day.  
40 Alert fatigue is almost certain to eventuate, with doctors learning to ignore all alerts, even  
41 those that present safety-critical information. Thus, decisions about which types of alerts to  
42 include in EMM systems are non-trivial in terms of both ensuring a positive impact on patient  
43 care and a minimal impact on prescribers' cognitive load.  
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51 With limited evidence available to guide the implementation of DDI alerts, hospitals are faced  
52 with a difficult decision when implementing EMM systems: should DDI alerts be turned on,  
53 and if so, which alerts? Such decisions should be informed by evidence which demonstrates  
54 that alerts align well with prescriber workflow, are effective in reducing errors and result in  
55 reduced patient harm. No such evidence currently exists. In recognising this significant  
56 evidence gap, we are partnering with eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD to undertake a  
57 comprehensive evaluation of DDI alerts. The project aims to:  
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1. Determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDI rates and patient harm.
2. Identify barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts.
3. Quantify the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI alerts in hospital medication systems.
4. Develop algorithms to predict clinically relevant DDIs.

## METHODS AND ANALYSIS

### Study design

Table 1 provides a summary of the study design and methods to be used, and the main outcome measures (defined in Table 2). A controlled pre-post design will be adopted. This is the most rigorous design possible for hospital-wide implementations of EMM systems when randomisation of hospitals is not feasible.

**Table 1. Study design and outcomes**

| Aim      | Design/method  | Outcome measures/outputs  | When collected       |
|----------|--|---|----------------------|
| <b>1</b> | Controlled pre-post study involving retrospective review of medical records  | Rates of potential DDIs<br>Rates of clinically relevant DDIs<br>Rates of patient harm | Before and after EMM |
| <b>2</b> | Human factors evaluation – observations and interviews with prescribers  | Alert usability and acceptability, barriers and facilitators to optimal use of alerts | After EMM            |
| <b>3</b> | Analysis of alert data extracted from EMM systems  | Alert burden (alerts/patient; alerts/order; alerts/prescriber)                        | After EMM            |
| <b>4</b> | Analysis of patient and medication information collected during retrospective review and extracted from clinical information systems | Algorithms which predict clinically relevant DDIs                                     | After EMM            |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management

**Table 2. Definitions of potential DDIs, clinically relevant DDIs and harm resulting from DDIs**

| Category  | Definition   |
|---|--|
| Potential drug-drug interaction                     | A potential DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>potentially</i> altered.   |
| Clinically relevant drug-drug interaction           | A clinically relevant DDI is defined as two or more drugs interacting with each other in such a way that the effectiveness or toxicity of one or more drugs is <i>highly likely</i> to be altered when taking into account individual patient factors (age, gender, diagnosis, comorbidities) and medication order factors (dose and route of potentially interacting medications).  |
| Drug-drug interaction that resulted in patient harm | Drug pairs that interacted and resulted in harm to the patient. Identification of harm is based on clinical evidence and confirmed by symptoms and investigations recorded in the patient record. Harm constitutes “impairment of structure or function of the body and/or any deleterious effect arising there from, including disease, injury, suffering, disability and death, and may be physical, social or psychological”. <sup>22</sup> |

Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction

### Research project setting

The project commenced in December 2017 and is due to be completed in December 2021. The study will be conducted at six major referral hospitals in two Australian states, New South Wales (NSW) and Queensland (QLD). Three hospitals will act as control sites and will implement an EMM system without DDI alerts, and three as intervention sites with DDI alerts. Hospitals were allocated to intervention or control based on their decision to include or exclude DDI alerts in their implementation plan. All study sites used paper medication charts prior to implementation of EMM systems and all sites have replaced or will replace paper charts with an EMM system.

This study will evaluate only one component of the EMM system: clinical decision support in the form of DDI alerts. DDI alerts to be implemented at each site are interruptive, require an

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3 override reason to be entered, but none are hard-stop alerts preventing the prescriber from  
4 continuing with their order. All intervention hospital EMM systems will utilise the Cerner  
5 Multum™ DDI knowledge-base (<https://www.cerner.com/solutions/drug-database>) for DDI  
6 detection, although some local customisation is expected. A list of all DDI alerts which have  
7 been incorporated into EMM systems will be provided to researchers following  
8 implementation.  
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13 This study includes three main methods of data collection, namely retrospective chart review  
14 (Aims 1 and 4), observations and interviews (Aim 2), and data extraction from clinical  
15 information systems (Aims 3 and 4). See Figure 1. Our methodological approach is  
16 presented separately for each part of the study.  
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### 20 Part 1. Retrospective chart review

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22 The medical records of 280 patients admitted in the six months prior to and six months  
23 following implementation of the EMM system at each site will be retrospectively reviewed  
24 (total 3360 patients). Patients will be randomly selected from all patients admitted to study  
25 hospitals during a one-week period six months before and six months after EMM. Patients  
26 who visited the ED but were not admitted to wards and those in wards where a different  
27 EMM system was in use (i.e. the intensive care unit and oncology department) will be  
28 excluded. Medication orders for patients will initially be entered into *Stockley's Interactions*  
29 *Checker* (an authoritative international source of drug interaction information;  
30 <http://www.medicinescomplete.com/> - see Appendix 1) to identify potential DDIs. Based on  
31 the severity classifications used by the Stockley's checker, potential DDIs of the two highest  
32 severity levels (i.e. *severe* and *moderate*) will undergo further review. Study pharmacists (not  
33 affiliated with any study hospital) will complete a detailed audit of patients' medical records to  
34 determine whether these potential DDIs represent clinically relevant DDIs, taking into  
35 account patient factors such as age, sex, renal function, and medication order factors, such  
36 as route.  
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47 Any evidence of possible harm resulting from the DDIs (e.g. abnormal test result,  
48 administration of an antidote) will also be extracted from patient records. When possible  
49 harm is identified, these patient cases will be presented to an expert panel of clinical  
50 pharmacologist physicians who will determine whether these possible harms constitute  
51 actual patient harm resulting from the DDI. Severity of harm to patients will be classified on  
52 the 5-point *Severity Assessment Code (SAC) Scale*,<sup>23</sup> used in our past research.<sup>24 25</sup>  
53 Clinician confidence in the association between the DDI and identified harm will be classified  
54 using the *WHO-Uppsala Monitoring Centre (WHO-UMC) Algorithm*.<sup>26</sup>  
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3 The pharmacists will also note any documentation which suggests that a DDI was  
4 recognised yet intentionally prescribed (e.g. the DDI was considered by the prescriber, who  
5 reduced a medication dose, increased monitoring or took no additional actions). During post  
6 EMM implementation data collection, reviewers will record whether a DDI alert was triggered  
7 for the potential DDIs.  
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11 The limitations of medical records data are inherent to this methodology, and will be  
12 minimised by using multiple sources of information from the records, and by using both  
13 pharmacists and clinical pharmacologist physicians to assess clinical outcomes and their link  
14 to DDIs. The drug interaction checker used to identify potential DDIs (Stockley's) differs from  
15 the DDI knowledge-base operating in the 'intervention' EMM systems. There is large  
16 variability in the DDIs included in different knowledge-bases and reference sources.<sup>27</sup> We  
17 selected Stockley's for DDI identification as it is considered to be the gold standard and often  
18 used as a comparison point for other reference sources.<sup>28 29</sup>  
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### 25 *Sample size calculation*

26 We identified only two high-quality papers that report the proportion of patient admissions  
27 with a potential DDI, however only one of these studies used comparable methodology to  
28 our planned study.<sup>30</sup> That study found that 56% of patients experienced at least one *potential*  
29 *DDI* during their hospital stay. No research to date has examined the impact of DDI alerts on  
30 DDI rates. Our two expert clinical pharmacologist physicians (RD and SH) estimate a 25%  
31 change in potential DDIs to be clinically significant. We used this estimate of a clinically  
32 significant change and the 56% baseline figure to estimate the sample size required in our  
33 study with a two-sided test for proportions (90% power and a 95% confidence interval). The  
34 number of patient admissions to be reviewed per study period at each site was determined  
35 to be 280. Thus, across the entire study period and the six study sites, 3360 patient  
36 admissions will be audited.  
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### 44 *Data analysis*

45 To determine the impact of DDI alerts on DDIs, we will conduct an intention to treat analysis.  
46 A generalised linear modelling approach will be applied to examine if implementation of DDI  
47 alerts was associated with a significant reduction in potential DDI rates, clinically relevant  
48 DDI rates, and the occurrence and severity of patient harm. Data collected at the six  
49 hospitals will be used. Rates of DDIs and harm from the intervention and control hospitals  
50 will be compared at baseline and after EMM implementation.  
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## Part 2. Observations and interviews

### Participants

Approximately 10-15 doctors working at each intervention hospital will take part in observations and interviews. Doctors will be directly approached while working on wards and invited to take part in the study. All doctors who prescribe medications are eligible to participate. Participation is voluntary and all doctors will be required to provide written informed consent. A snowball sampling approach will also be used whereby doctors who participate in the study will be asked to inform other doctors about the study. This recruitment approach has proven highly successful in our previous evaluations of decision support.<sup>13 31 32</sup>

### Procedure

Prescribers will be shadowed by a human factors researcher during medication-related tasks (e.g. ward-rounds, medicine review) and all interactions with alerts will be recorded. In particular, the researcher will note if alerts are read, and if alerts impacted on medication-related work (e.g. medication order changed, alert content discussed with a colleague). Approximately 30 hours of observation at each site is planned. Prescribers will also be invited to participate in a brief semi-structured interview. Interview questions will focus on usability and acceptability of the DDI alerts in their hospital EMM system (e.g. usefulness, integration into workflow), see Table 3.

**Table 3. Semi-structured interview questions for prescribers**

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| <b>Basic demographics</b>                            |
| Role   |
| Years practicing medicine                            |
| Ward/specialty                                       |
| EMM system in use                                    |
| Length of time using EMM system                      |
| <b>Opinion of EMMS and DDI alerts</b>                |
| Do you prefer using paper or electronic charts? Why? |
| What alerts are operational in your EMM system?      |
| Roughly how many DDI alerts do you see in a day?     |
| Do you find the DDI alerts useful or bothersome?     |
| Do you read the alerts? Which ones and why?          |

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3 Do you think alerts are effective in changing prescribing decisions? How often  
4 do they result in a change to your prescribing? Can you think of an occasion  
5 when an alert impacted on your prescribing?  
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8 If there was an option to remove DDI alerts from the EMMS, would you support  
9 their removal? Why?  
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11 Can you think of any changes needed to the DDI alerts?  
12

13 Any other comments?  
14

15 Note: DDI = Drug-drug interaction; EMM = Electronic medication management  
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### 17 *Data analysis*

18 Detailed field notes on the impact of computerised alerts on medication-related work will be  
19 taken during observations. Interviews with prescribers will be audiotaped and transcribed.  
20 Content will be de-identified and analysed by two investigators to identify barriers and  
21 facilitators to optimal use of alerts. A general inductive approach to analysis will be used.<sup>33</sup>  
22 Investigators will meet periodically throughout qualitative data collection to discuss barriers  
23 and facilitators and determine at what point saturation of themes is achieved (i.e. no new  
24 barriers and facilitators are apparent). Recruitment of participants will continue at each site  
25 until theme saturation is reached. This is viewed as an appropriate strategy for determining  
26 sample size in qualitative research.<sup>34</sup> Emergent themes from each site will be compared and  
27 contrasted to determine differences in barriers and facilitators, and on perceived usefulness,  
28 usability and acceptability of DDI alerts in EMM.  
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### 39 *Part 3. Analysis of data extracted from clinical information systems*

#### 40 *Part 3a. Analysis of data to determine alert burden*

41 Non-identifiable DDI alert data (including number of alerts triggered) will be extracted from  
42 intervention hospital EMM systems 6-12 months after system implementation. Data will be  
43 used to quantify alert burden on prescribers. That is, the number DDI alerts encountered and  
44 overridden. Descriptive statistics will be used to determine the number of medications  
45 prescribed per patient admission, the number of DDI alerts encountered as a proportion of  
46 the number of medications prescribed, and the proportion of DDI alerts overridden.  
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#### 53 *Part 3b. Analysis of data to develop algorithms*

54 Data extracted from hospital clinical information systems will be linked with data collected  
55 during retrospective chart review, including information related to clinically relevant DDIs.  
56 Decision tree modelling and Bayesian modelling will be used to develop algorithms which  
57 predict the occurrence of clinically relevant DDIs to improve the specificity and positive  
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3 predictive value of identifying these DDIs. If relevant, a mixed effect model will be applied to  
4 consider the correlation between medications ordered by the same prescribers.  
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### 7 Patient and public involvement

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9 No patients or the public were involved in any stage of the research process for this study.  
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## 12 ETHICS AND DISSEMINATION

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15 This research was approved by the Hunter New England Human Research Ethics  
16 Committee (18/02/21/4.07) and ratified by Macquarie University Human Research Ethics  
17 Committee.  
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21 The research will fill a significant knowledge gap by providing data on how frequently DDIs  
22 occur in hospitalised patients, what proportion of potential DDIs are clinically relevant, and  
23 what proportion lead to patient harm. Importantly, this research will generate the first data on  
24 the effectiveness of DDI alerts to reduce medication errors and prevent patient harm. It will  
25 also provide information on the alert burden posed to prescribers with implementation of DDI  
26 alerts and on how DDI alerts impact on clinicians' work.  
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31 Doctors are increasingly being asked to incorporate new technology into their work with little  
32 assessment of the ways in which systems may adversely impact their workflow or efficiency.  
33 Our human factors evaluation provide an in-depth examination of this impact, identify  
34 barriers to optimal use of alerts and use this evidence to inform future alert design and future  
35 EMM education for clinicians. Adopting a human factors approach to evaluation and  
36 incorporating user input into redesign will not only increase likelihood of optimal use of alerts,  
37 but ensure systems are targeting problem areas and are easy to use and integrate into  
38 current practice. Thus our human factors evaluation will facilitate the direct translation of  
39 research into optimal system redesign and use.  
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46 Another outcome of the research will be algorithms to predict the occurrence of clinically  
47 relevant DDIs. When incorporated into EMM systems, these algorithms would have the  
48 potential to improve specificity of DDI alerting systems - alerts will only trigger to warn of  
49 clinically relevant DDIs, not potential DDIs. This will reduce the alert burden to prescribers  
50 substantially.  
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55 Our results will have both immediate and long-term effects on Australian hospitals, and more  
56 broadly, as hospitals worldwide implement EMM systems. Study results will be published in  
57 peer-reviewed journals and presented at local and international conferences. Key study  
58 findings will be communicated to NSW and QLD hospitals, and system vendors via annual  
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workshops. With assistance from our partners, eHealth NSW and eHealth QLD, results from this study will also be integrated into state-wide design of EMM systems.

This research will provide much needed evidence to inform decisions about selection and design of computerised alerts in EMM systems in Australian hospitals and internationally. EMM systems are becoming a central tool in clinical practice and over the next decade the majority of clinical work will be performed using and guided by this technology. Working closely with our partner investigators, our study will produce evidence to ensure that decision support is effective in producing clinical benefits that outweigh any potentially dangerous disruptions to clinical work due to excessive alerting.

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## 10 **AUTHOR STATEMENT**

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13 All authors contributed to and approved the final manuscript. MTB conceived the study and  
14 led the revisions of the draft manuscript. WYZ and BVD assisted in drafting the manuscript  
15 and in project management, including ethics approval. MTB, LL, JW, RD and SH are Chief  
16 Investigators on the project and all made contributions to the project in their specific areas of  
17 expertise. AH, PK, CM, MD, LN, RS and PD are Associate Investigators and provided input  
18 to the protocol, particularly with respect to electronic systems, planned translation, and  
19 practical aspects of the study.  
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## 31 **COMPETING INTERESTS STATEMENT**

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33 The authors have no known competing interests.  
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## 39 **FIGURES**

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41 Figure 1. Overall study design  
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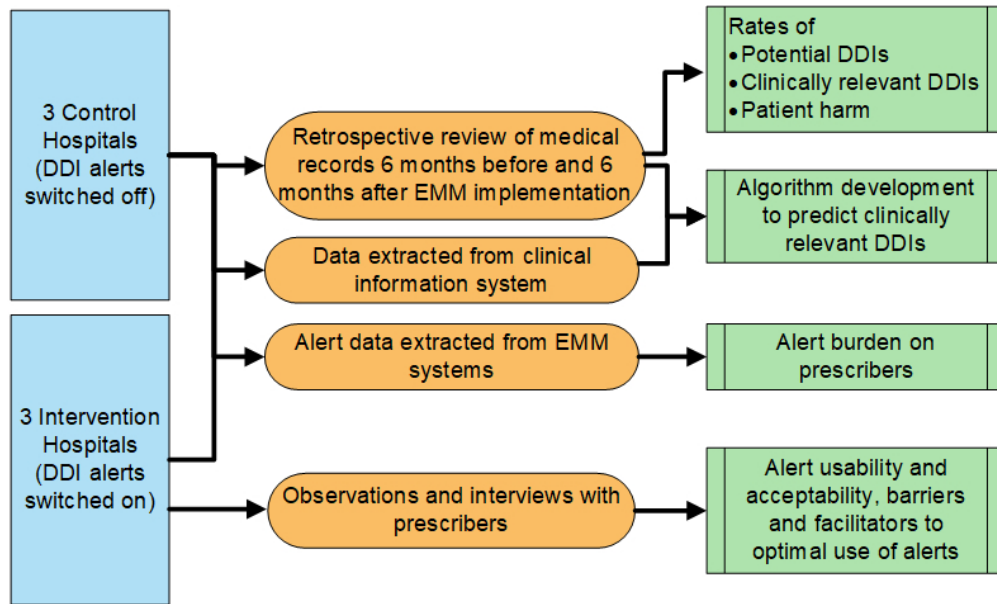


Figure 1. Overall study design

# Appendix 1: Stockley's Interactions Checker

Stockley's Interactions Checker uses 4 levels of severity:

## 1. Severe

For interactions that could totally incapacitate a patient or result in either a permanent detrimental effect or a life-threatening event.

## 2. Moderate

For interactions that could result in an effect that may either cause considerable distress or partially incapacitate a patient. These interactions are unlikely to be life-threatening or result in long-term effects.

## 3. Mild

For interactions that could result in an effect that is mild and unlikely to unduly concern or incapacitate the majority of patients.

## 4. Nothing expected

For interactions that are unlikely to result in an effect, or for drugs pairs where no interaction occurs.

For each interaction, Stockley's recommends one of the following actions:

### 1. Avoid

For interactions where a drug combination is best avoided. This will mainly be used to highlight contraindicated drug pairs.

### 2. Monitor

For interactions where the drug pair is valuable and no compensatory action is possible, but the patient needs to be monitored to assess the outcome. For interactions where biochemical or therapeutic drug monitoring is recommended and further action may be needed based on the results.

### 3. Information

For interactions where close follow up or monitoring are probably not automatically warranted due to the low probability of an interaction, but where more information is given in the event of a problem.

Recommendations are based on the following:

### 1. Extensive

1  
2  
3 For interactions where the information given is based on numerous small or medium size  
4 studies or several large studies. The information is usually supported by case reports.  
5  
6

## 7 8 **2. Study**

9  
10 For interactions where the information given is based on formal study. This may be one  
11 small or medium size study, or several small studies. The studies may or may not be  
12 supported by case reports.  
13

## 14 15 **3. Case**

16 For interactions where the information given is based either on a single case report or a  
17 limited number of case reports. No trials appear to have been conducted.  
18

## 19 20 **4. Theoretical**

21 For interactions where the information given is based on a theoretical interaction or lack of  
22 interaction. This information may have been derived either from in vitro studies involving  
23 the drug in question or based on the way other members of the same group act.  
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