

Warfarin	Sulfa drugs	2
Warfarin	Macrolides	3
Warfarin	Quinolones	4
Warfarin	Phenytoin	5
ACE inhibitors	Potassium supplements	6
ACE inhibitors	Spironolactone	7
Digoxin	Amiodarone	8
Digoxin	Verapamil	9
Theophylline	Quinolones	10

NSAIDs

Reference: <sup>1</sup>M3 Project (Multidisciplinary Medication Management Project), Lesher, BA, "Clinically Important Drug Reactions", Prescriber's Letter 2004 Jun, 11: Detail-Document #: 200601

10 is greatest risk 84 Carbamazepine Propoxyphene Allopurinol Thiopurines 8.0 Warfarin Sulfinpyrazone 7.2 Azole antifungal agents 7.0 Benzodiazepines Pimozide Macrolide antibiotics 6.0 Sildenafil Nitrates 6.0 Fibric acids Warfarin 6.0 Warfarin Cimetidine 6.0 Ergot alkaloids Macrolide antibiotics 5.8 5.6 Pimozide Azole antifungal agents Anticoagulants Salicvlates 4.8 Thyroid hormones Anticoagulants 5.6 Reference: <sup>2</sup>Malone DC, et al. J Am Pharm Assoc (Wash DC). 2004 Mar-Apr; 44(2):142-51.

DRUGS TO BE AVOIDED IN THE ELDERLY Review the list "Drug DUPLICATION SCREENING Review the patient's r

Review the list "Drugs to be Avoided in the Elderly"

1

Review the patient's medications, including OTCs to confirm that there is no inappropriate therapeutic duplication, paying particular attention to <u>multiple narcotics</u>, <u>multiple NSAIDS</u>, and <u>combination products</u> containing analgesics. Ensure that duplicate usage is consistent with practice.

Reference: PCM and PSC data

Warfarin

## RECOMMENDATION

5

6.

If any safety indicator is present,

(especially important if it is a change within the last 6 months) action is required.

**Potential Course of Action** 

1. Discontinue drug and recommend alternate drug therapy to physician.

2. Educate patient about what to watch for and what action to take.

Confirm all current medications, including Prescription, Herbal remedies, Vitamins and OTCs, and how patients are taking them.

# D. ATTAINING THERAPEUTIC GOALS

### 1. CARDIOVASCULAR RISK MANAGEMENT

MAJOR RISK FACTORS FOR CORONARY HEART DISEASE (CHD)(Exclusive of LDL Cholesterol) THAT MODIFY LDL GOALS

PREDETERMINED: Increasing age (men >45 years; women >55 years), Male sex (gender), Family history of premature CHD (CHD in male first degree relative <55 years; CHD in female first degree relative <65 years),

**MODIFIABLE:** Tobacco smoke/cigarette smoking, high blood cholesterol, hypertension (BP >140/90 mmHg or on antihypertensive medication), physical inactivity, obesity, diabetes mellitus, Low HDL cholesterol (<40 mg/dL)\*,

\* HDL cholesterol >60 mg/dL counts as a "negative" risk factor; its presence removes one risk factor from the total count.

A. EVALUATE TREATMENT GOAL BY RISK CATEGORY. Obtain the following medical history and test results, reviewing accepted clinical values and cardiovascular risk... Note: The Framingham risk equation, attempts to determine percent risk of a heart attack or stroke over 10 years. The Framingham Risk Calculator is available through NCEP at: http://hin.nhlbi.nih.gov/atpiii/calculator.asp?usertype=prof

CHD Risk Equivalent:: Clinical CHD, Symptomatic carotid artery disease, Peripheral arterial disease, Abdominal aortic aneurysm

Diagnosia	Cardiovas gular Bisly Catagory		Traatman	t Coal	
Diagnosis	Cardiovascular Risk Category	Lipids: LDL	Lipids: Non-HDL (Total – HDL)	Blood Pressure	HbAlc
Diabetic	Diabetes is considered a CHD risk equivalent	<100 mg/dl	New York State	<130/80 mmHg	<7.0 %
Non- Diabetic	Coronary Heart Disease (CHD) and CHD Risk Equivalent (10-year risk for CHD >20%)	<100 mg/dl	<130 mg/dl		
	Multiple (2+) Risk Factors (10-year risk ≤20%)	<130 mg/dl	<160 mg/dl	<140/90 mmHg	
	0-1 Risk Factor (10-year Risk Factor <10%)	<160 mg/dl	<190 mg/dl		

Reference: American Diabetes Association, ATPIII Guideline, National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP), JNC-7, American Heart Association.

#### RECOMMENDATION B.

If the patient has not achieved the recommended goal, action is required.

### **Potential Course of Action**

1. Consider non- adherence to current therapy and/or under-treatment. 2. Consider need for additional or alternative therapy, and recommend therapy to physician.

## 2. COMPLICATION MANAGEMENT (review potential complications)

- A. Determine the presence or absence of syndromes by asking, "Describe how you have been feeling lately?"
- B. Review common geriatric syndromes and rule out drug-induced causality.

Common Syndromes		Drug -Induced Causes	Potential Course of Action	
Pain* 0-10 Numeric Pain Intensity Scale	Mild 1-3/10		<ol> <li>Clarify the type of pain the patient is experiencing.</li> <li>Recommend acetaminophen.</li> <li>Nonopioid analgesic, fixed dose***</li> </ol>	
	Moderate 4-6/10		Opioid (consider adjunct analgesic)	
	Severe 7-10/10		Refer to guideline for 24hr and breakthrough pain management ***	
Constipation Determine frequency combinations with dr producing anti-cholin	of ugs ergic effects.	Opioids, Acetaminophen-NSAID combinations*** Anticholinergics Calcium supplementation**	<ol> <li>Reduce drug-induced causes</li> <li>Recommend bowel regiment utilizing osmotic laxatives and/or stool softeners, lower dose bulk-forming agents with adequate liquid intake. **</li> </ol>	
Muscular soreness a	nd stiffness	Statins.	<ol> <li>Recommend acetaminophen for musculoskeletal pain.</li> <li>Avoid multiple NSAIDs.</li> </ol>	
Osteoporosis		Corticosteroids.	<ol> <li>Recommend measure bone density scan and treat accordingly (use supplements to prevent bone loss and rebuild bone). &gt;age 50 need 1200 mg Calcium daily and daily vitamin D at age 51-70 400 IU and &gt;age 70 600 IU.</li> <li>Refer patient to physician.</li> </ol>	
Falls		Analgesics, antipsychotics, benzodiazepines, anticonvulsants, antiparkinson agents, antidepressants, cardiovascular agents (including diuretics, anti-arrhythmics***), oral hypoglycemics**	<ol> <li>Identify individuals likely to fall, based upon review of inappropriate medication or combination screening.</li> <li>Discontinue or modify drug regimen.</li> <li>Utilize assistive devices, fall prevention programs, exercise to improve strength.</li> </ol>	

C. RECOMMENDATION

## **Potential Course of Action**

If drug-induced causes, action must be taken.

1. Discontinue drug and recommend alternate drug therapy to physician.

2. Educate patient about what to watch for and what action to take.

Reference: Core competencies for the care of older patients: recommendations of the American Geriatrics Society. The Education Committee Writing Group of the American Geriatrics Society. Acad Med. 2000 Mar;75(3):252-5. \*Koda-Kimble, Mary Anne, Yee Young, Lloyd, Kradjan , Wayne A., Guglielmo, B. Joseph, Alldredge ,Brian K., Corelli, Robin L., 2005, Applied Therapeutics: The Clinical Use of Drugs, 8th Edition, Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia. \*\* Delafuente JC, Stewart RB, eds. Therapeutics in the elderly. 3rd ed. Cincinnati:Harvey Whitney Books Co., 2001. \*\*\* J Am Geriatr Soc. 1998 May;46(5):635-51. The management of chronic pain in older persons: AGS Panel on Chronic Pain in Older Persons. American Geriatrics Society.

Drugs to be Avoided in the Elderly 2002 Criteria for Potentially Inappropriate Medication Use in Older Adults: Independent of Diagnoses or Conditions		
Drug	Concern	
Gastrointestinal antispasmodic drugs: dicyclomine (Bentyl), hyoscyamine (Levsin and Levsinex), propantheline (Pro-Banthine), belladonna alkaloids (Donnatal and others), and clidinium-chlordiazepoxide (Librax)	GI antispasmodic drugs are highly anticholinergic and have uncertain effectiveness. These drugs should be avoided (especially for long-term use).	
Anticholinergics and antihistamines: chlorpheniramine (Chlor-Trimeton), diphenhydramine (Benadryl), hydroxyzine (Vistaril and Atarax), cyproheptadine (Periactin), promethazine (Phenergan), tripelennamine, dexchlorpheniramine (Polaramine)	All nonprescription and many prescription antihistamines may have potent anticholinergic properties. Nonanticholinergic antihistamines are preferred in elderly patients when treating allergic reactions.	
Diphenhydramine (Benadryl)	May cause confusion and sedation. Should not be used as a hypnotic, and when used to treat emergency allergic reactions, it should be used in the smallest possible dose.	
Ergot mesyloids (Hydergine) and cyclandelate (Cyclospasmol)	Have not been shown to be effective in the doses studied.	
Ferrous sulfate >325 mg/d	Doses >325 mg/d do not dramatically increase the amount absorbed but greatly increase the incidence of constipation.	
All barbiturates (except phenobarbital) except when used to control seizures	Are highly addictive and cause more adverse effects than most sedative or hypnotic drugs in elderly patients.	
Meperidine (Demerol)	Not an effective oral analgesic in doses commonly used. May cause confusion and has many disadvantages to other narcotic drugs.	
Ticlopidine (Ticlid)	Has been shown to be no better than aspirin in preventing clotting and may be considerably more toxic. Safer, more effective alternatives exist.	
Ketorolac (Toradol)	Immediate and long-term use should be avoided in older persons, since a significant number have asymptomatic GI pathologic conditions.	
Amphetamines and anorexic agents	These drugs have potential for causing dependence, hypertension, angina, and myocardial infarction.	
Long-term use of full-dosage, longer half-life, non-COX-selective NSAIDs: naproxen (Naprosyn, Avaprox, and Aleve), oxaprozin (Daypro), and piroxicam (Feldene)	Have the potential to produce GI bleeding, renal failure, high blood pressure, and heart failure.	
Daily fluoxetine (Prozac)	Long half-life of drug and risk of producing excessive CNS stimulation, sleep disturbances, and increasing agitation. Safer alternatives exist.	
Long-term use of stimulant laxatives: bisacodyl (Dulcolax), cascara sagrada, and Neoloid except in the presence of opiate analgesic use	May exacerbate bowel dysfunction.	
Amiodarone (Cordarone)	Associated with QT interval problems and risk of provoking torsades de pointes. Lack of efficacy in older adults.	
Orphenadrine (Norflex)	Causes more sedation and anticholinergic adverse effects than safer alternatives.	
Guanethidine (Ismelin)	May cause orthostatic hypotension. Safer alternatives exist.	
Guanadrel (Hylorel)	May cause orthostatic hypotension.	
Cyclandelate (Cyclospasmol)	Lack of efficacy.	
Isoxsurpine (Vasodilan)	Lack of efficacy.	
Nitrofurantoin (Macrodantin)	Potential for renal impairment. Safer alternatives available.	
Doxazosin (Cardura)	Potential for hypotension, dry mouth, and urinary problems.	
Methyltestosterone (Android, Virilon, and Testrad)	Potential for prostatic hypertrophy and cardiac problems.	
Thioridazine (Mellaril)	Greater potential for CNS and extrapyramidal adverse effects.	
Mesoridazine (Serentil)	CNS and extrapyramidal adverse effects	
Short acting nifedipine (Procardia and Adalat)	Potential for hypotension and constipation.	
Clonidine (Catapres)	Potential for orthostatic hypotension and CNS adverse effects.	
Mineral oil	Potential for aspiration and adverse effects. Safer alternatives available.	
Cimetidine (Tagamet)	CNS adverse effects including confusion.	
Ethacrynic acid (Edecrin)	Potential for hypertension and fluid imbalances. Safer alternatives available.	

Drug	Concern
Desiccated thyroid	Concerns about cardiac effects. Safer alternatives available.
Amphetamines (excluding methylphenidate hydrochloride and anorexics)	CNS stimulant adverse effects.
Estrogens only (oral)	Evidence of the carcinogenic (breast and endometrial cancer) potential of these agents and lack of cardioprotective effect in older women.
Propoxyphene (Darvon) and combination products (Darvon with ASA, Darvon-N, and Darvocet-N)	Offers few analgesic advantages over acetaminophen, yet has the adverse effects of other narcotic drugs.
Indomethacin (Indocin and Indocin SR)	Of all available nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, this drug produces the most CNS adverse effects.
Pentazocine (Talwin)	Narcotic analgesic that causes more CNS adverse effects, including confusion and hallucinations, more commonly than other narcotic drugs. Additionally, it is a mixed agonist and antagonist.
Trimethobenzamide (Tigan)	One of the least effective antiemetic drugs, yet it can cause extrapyramidal adverse effects.
Muscle relaxants and antispasmodics: methocarbamol (Robaxin), carisoprodol (Soma), chlorzoxazone (Paraflex), metaxalone (Skelaxin), cyclobenzaprine (Flexeril), and oxybutynin (Ditropan). Do not consider the extended-release Ditropan XL.	Most muscle relaxants and antispasmodic drugs are poorly tolerated by elderly patients, since these cause anticholinergic adverse effects, sedation, and weakness. Additionally, their effectiveness at doses tolerated by elderly patients is questionable.
Flurazepam (Dalmane)	This benzodiazepine hypnotic has an extremely long half-life in elderly patients (often days), producing prolonged sedation and increasing the incidence of falls and fracture. Medium- or short-acting benzodiazepines are preferable.
Amitriptyline (Elavil), chlordiazepoxide-amitriptyline (Limbitrol), and perphenazine-amitriptyline (Triavil)	Because of its strong anticholinergic and sedation properties, amitriptyline is rarely the antidepressant of choice for elderly patients.
Doxepin (Sinequan)	Because of its strong anticholinergic and sedating properties, doxepin is rarely the antidepressant of choice for elderly patients.
Meprobamate (Miltown and Equanil)	This is a highly addictive and sedating anxiolytic. Those using meprobamate for prolonged periods may become addicted and may need to be withdrawn slowly.
Doses of short-acting benzodiazepines: doses greater than lorazepam (Ativan), 3 mg; oxazepam (Serax), 60 mg; alprazolam (Xanax), 2 mg; temazepam (Restoril), 15 mg; and triazolam (Halcion), 0.25 mg	Because of increased sensitivity to benzoadiazepines in elderly patients, smaller doses may be effective as well as safer. Total daily doses should rarely exceed the suggested maximums.
Long-acting benzodiazepines: chlordiazepoxide (Librium), chlordiazepoxide-amitriptyline (Limbitrol), clidinium-chlordiazepoxide (Librax), diazepam (Valium), quazepam (Doral), halazepam (Paxipam), and chlorazepate (Tranxene)	These drugs have a long half-life in elderly patients (often several days), producing prolonged sedation and increasing the risk of falls and fractures. Short- and intermediate-acting benzodiazepines are preferred if a benzodiazepine is required.
Disopyramide (Norpace and Norpace CR)	Of all antiarrhythmic drugs, this is the most potent negative inotrope and therefore may induce heart failure in elderly patients. It is also strongly anticholinergic. Other antiarrhythmic drugs should be used.
Digoxin (Lanoxin) (should not exceed >0.125 mg/d except when treating atrial arrhythmias)	Decreased renal clearance may lead to increased risk of toxic effects.
Short-acting dipyridamole (Persantine). Do not consider the long-acting dipyridamole (which has better properties than the short-acting in older adults) except with patients with artificial heart valves	May cause orthostatic hypotension.
Methyldopa (Aldomet) and methldopa-hydrochlorothiazide (Aldoril)	May cause bradycardia and exacerbate depression in elderly patient.
Reserpine at doses >0.25 mg	May induce depression, impotence, sedation, and orthostatic hypotension.
Chlorpropamide (Diabinese)	It has a prolonged half-life in elderly patients and could cause prolonged hypoglycemia. Additionally, it is the only oral hypoglycemic agent that causes SIADH.

Reference: Fick DM, Cooper JW, Wade WE, Waller JL, Maclean JR, Beers MH. Updating the Beers Criteria for Potentially Inappropriate Medication Use in Older Adults: Results of a US Consensus Panel of Experts. *Arch Intern Med.* 2003;163:2716-2724.