

20247 Improving Public Health by Advancing a Multi-component Approach to Increasing Prescription Dispensing Safety in U.S. Outpatient Pharmacies

1 **Improving Public Health by Advancing a Multicomponent Approach to Increasing Prescription**
2 **Dispensing Safety in U.S. Outpatient Pharmacies**

3 **Policy Date:** October 29, 2024

4 **Policy Number:** 20247

5 Abstract

6 This policy statement addresses one component of medication safety: the safety of prescription dispensing
7 within outpatient pharmacies. In 2022, nearly 4.5 billion prescriptions were dispensed from these
8 pharmacies, yet limited data exist about the types and rate of dispensing errors, the impact of factors such
9 as work pressures and staff training on errors, and the extent to which pharmacies prioritize safety and
10 invest resources to improve safety. While prescriptions should be dispensed without errors, national
11 surveys and media reports indicate that dispensing errors may be increasing because of a lack of
12 organizational commitment to the personnel and resources needed to ensure patient safety. This weak
13 culture of safety may reflect the relative lack of external accountability placed upon pharmacies to ensure
14 that prescriptions are dispensed without error. Three avenues for lowering the risk of dispensing errors are
15 proposed: (1) additional research and practice-based data to determine error types, rates and costs,
16 pharmacy-based factors contributing to errors, and the effectiveness of continuous quality improvement
17 efforts to prevent future errors; (2) further research into defining and measuring the culture of safety
18 within pharmacies and effective ways to strengthen that culture; and (3) increased external accountability
19 for pharmacies to maintain a culture of safety. Prescription dispensing safety is likely to be clearly
20 assessed and continuously improved if a multicomponent, collaborative approach brings together the
21 innovation, support, and accountability needed to address this key component of medication safety.
22 Undertaking the recommended action steps within the selected sector of pharmacies can serve as a
23 springboard for expanding prescription dispensing safety in all pharmacies.

24

25 Key words: patient safety; public safety; safety culture; prescription safety

26

27 Relationship to Existing APHA Policy Statements

28 No active APHA policy statement addresses this public health problem. The APHA policies listed below
29 discuss problems, strategies, or action steps that lay a foundation for this proposed statement. APHA
30 Policy Statement 20109 cites low health literacy as a contributing factor to medication errors.
31 Interdisciplinary education and patient-centered care are supported by Policy Statements 200614, 20088,
32 202011, and #20215. Policy Statements 20068 and 20223 are foundational for our action step related to
33 organized labor as a means of addressing workplace issues that affect the culture of safety within
34 pharmacies.

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- 35 ● APHA Policy Statement 20109: Health Literacy: Confronting a National Public Health Problem
- 36 ● APHA Policy Statement 200614: The Role of the Pharmacist in Public Health
- 37 ● APHA Policy Statement 20088: Promoting Interprofessional Education
- 38 ● APHA Policy Statement 201011: Reforming Primary Health Care: Support for the Health Care
- 39 Home Model
- 40 ● APHA Policy Statement 20215: A Call to Improve Patient and Public Health Outcomes of
- 41 Diabetes through an Enhanced Integrated Care Approach
- 42 ● APHA Policy Statement 20068: Resolution on the Right For Employee Free Choice to Form
- 43 Unions
- 44 ● APHA Policy Statement 20223: Support Decent Work for All as a Public Health Goal in the
- 45 United States

46

47 Problem Statement

48 This policy statement addresses prescription dispensing safety within outpatient pharmacies including
49 chain, grocery store, mass merchandiser, independent, and mail order pharmacies. From 2015 to 2018,
50 nearly half of U.S. residents reported using at least one prescription medication in the past 30 days, with
51 24.0% using three or more medications.[1] In 2022, an estimated 4.5 billion prescriptions were dispensed
52 from these pharmacies,[2] resulting in \$64 billion in retail out-of-pocket prescription expenditures.[3]
53 Private insurers and the Centers for Medicare & Medicaid Services (CMS), through Medicare Part D and
54 Medicaid programs, each accounted for about 40% of retail prescription expenditures.[4]

55

56 The safety of outpatient pharmacy prescription dispensing practices is a public health concern. The high
57 number of prescriptions dispensed means that even a low dispensing error rate can affect millions. If the
58 commonly cited 1.5% dispensing error rate is applied to 2022 prescription data, an estimated 67.5 million
59 dispensing errors occurred that year.[2] Alarming, reports by pharmacists [5] and the media [6,7]
60 suggest that dispensing errors are rising.

61

62 Dispensing errors include prescriptions dispensed to the wrong person, incorrect medications or strengths
63 dispensed, incorrect prescription label information, dispensing medications that could lead to drug-drug or
64 drug-disease interactions, and failure to provide adequate patient/caregiver counseling.[8–11] The
65 multiple steps involved in prescription dispensing create error opportunities at any point during
66 prescription preparation, review of medication records for therapeutic concerns, and patient
67 counseling.[8] Errors can result in drug-drug interactions, adverse events, hospital admissions, increased
68 health care utilization, and increased risk of death.[9]

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69

70 A focus on dispensing errors within outpatient pharmacies is warranted because they lack key safety
71 features that exist within inpatient (hospital/long-term care) pharmacies.[10] Safety differences include
72 the following: (1) outpatient prescriptions are dispensed directly to patients; (2) few outpatient
73 pharmacies face external regulatory pressures that promote a culture of safety[12]; (3) outpatient
74 pharmacies are not required to obtain accreditation approval from organizations such as The Joint
75 Commission[13] or URAC (formerly known as the Utilization Review Accreditation Commission)[14]
76 that provide external verification of prescription safety procedures; and (4) while parent institutions of
77 inpatient pharmacies promote their safety to the public, outpatient pharmacy corporations emphasize fast
78 receipt of prescriptions, prioritizing consumer demand over dispensing safety.[15]

79

80 This policy lays out three problem areas that cloud or add to dispensing error concerns. First, we lack a
81 clear understanding of the types, frequency, and associated costs of dispensing errors and their impact on
82 patient health; the degree to which system-mediated factors, such as pharmacy staffing, impact errors; and
83 the interplay of these factors within specific outpatient pharmacy environments. Second, the culture of
84 safety appears to be eroding in a growing number of pharmacies. Third, there is little external pressure to
85 hold back that decline.

86

87 Paucity of outpatient pharmacy dispensing safety data: The Institute of Medicine report *To Err Is Human: Building a Safer Health System*[16] ushered in an era of medication safety research; however, little
88 research has focused on outpatient pharmacy prescription dispensing.[8,17] A 2024 international
89 systematic review of both hospital and community pharmacy dispensing error studies from 2010 to 2023
90 included only 15 U.S. studies.[18]

92

93 Outpatient pharmacy dispensing error studies report significant variations in error rates due to differences
94 in medication error definitions, pharmacy inclusion criteria, study sample sizes, methodologies (e.g.,
95 direct observation, mystery shoppers [i.e., individuals hired to pose as shoppers], surveys, claim data
96 analysis), and error reporting metrics.[10] Some studies have defined an error as occurring only when
97 undetected, while others have included errors detected and remedied during the dispensing process (i.e.,
98 “near misses”).[19] A 2018 meta-analysis of medication error studies reported dispensing error rates
99 ranging from 0.00003% to 52%, with an overall estimated rate of 1.5%.[19] The lowest error rate was
100 reported from a claims database analysis of selected medications. The highest rate resulted from direct
101 observations related to selected prescriptions requiring patient consultation.

102

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103 Reported percentages of dispensing errors causing patient harm range from 4% to 52%. [17,20] An
104 observational study of 50 pharmacies showed that 6.5% of dispensing errors had the potential to cause
105 patient harm, [21] while a mystery shopper study of 255 pharmacies revealed that 52% of pharmacies
106 dispensed two prescriptions that, if taken together, could result in a life-threatening drug interaction. [20]
107 The degree to which harm from dispensing errors contributes to health care expenditures is unknown. The
108 authors of a 2024 systemic review of medication errors called for a common data reporting and analysis
109 framework to determine the financial impact of those errors. [22] Similarly, adoption of common data
110 collection, reporting, and analytical approaches is needed to determine the financial impact of dispensing
111 errors in outpatient pharmacies. [22]

112
113 Certain individuals may be at high risk for error harm, including children, pregnant persons, elderly
114 persons, and those who have multiple or complex health conditions, mental health illness, or
115 developmental or intellectual disabilities; take multiple medications; or take medications with a high
116 potential for serious adverse reactions. [23,24] Individuals with low vision and hearing impairment and
117 those with low health literacy or English as a second language may face challenges in reading prescription
118 labels necessary to detect dispensing errors. [25–29] People with fragmented health care; who face barriers
119 to care (e.g., those residing in rural or underserved areas and those with inadequate health insurance)
120 and/or discrimination within health care settings due to race, ethnicity, gender identity, or mental health
121 illness; or who live in stressful socioeconomic conditions (e.g., homelessness) may face barriers to error
122 remediation. [30,31]

123
124 Data on root causes of dispensing errors are key to prevention. Associations have been found between
125 dispensing errors and high prescription volumes, inadequate staffing levels and education, workplace
126 disruptions, and lack of patient counseling. [11,21,32] Pharmacists consistently report that performance
127 metrics drive work overload, work-related stress, burnout, and moral injury and thus contribute to errors
128 and increased patient safety issues. [33] Technology use lowers dispensing errors, but they still occur as a
129 result of human error and technology limitations. [10] Key questions remain about the impact and
130 interaction of these factors in causing dispensing errors and the interventions that best alleviate their
131 impact on error occurrence and patient safety.

132
133 Understanding dispensing safety is complicated by the lack of public sources of error data. Food and
134 Drug Administration (FDA) MedWatch, [34] the FDA and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention
135 (CDC) Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System (VAERS), [35] and the Institute for Safe Medication
136 Practices (ISMP) consumer and health professional reporting systems [36] collect dispensing error reports

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137 but do not publicly share such data or allow access to databases. Most outpatient pharmacies do not report
138 dispensing error rates to state boards of pharmacy, and dispensing safety is rarely discussed in corporate
139 annual reports.[37] A growing number of outpatient pharmacies use patient safety organizations (PSOs)
140 that shield error data from public and legal disclosure.[38] While data confidentiality is thought to
141 enhance error reporting,[16] this also means that the public cannot choose pharmacies and payers cannot
142 build pharmacy networks based on dispensing safety criteria. Only crude indicators of pharmacy
143 dispensing safety are publicly available: state data on lack or loss of licensure, lawsuits, whistleblower
144 reports, and media reports. [6,7]

145
146 Eroding culture of safety within outpatient pharmacies: Dispensing safety within outpatient pharmacies
147 must be supported by an organizational culture that acknowledges medication risks, strives to protect
148 patient safety, values communication, fosters shared trust, and believes in the value of preventive
149 measures.[10] According to the 2022 National Pharmacist Workforce Study, 82% of pharmacists
150 indicated that patient medication safety is being “reduced” or “significantly reduced” as a result of
151 increasing practice-related activities.[5] Pharmacists’ frustrations may arise from their lack of legal
152 authority over system-mediated causes of errors such as staffing levels and staff education.[5]

153
154 The linchpin to a culture of safety is continuous quality improvement (CQI), in which a systems approach
155 is used to improve safety through ongoing error data gathering, assessments, and system improvements.
156 While medication safety is a required component of pharmacist education, pharmacy staff may not have
157 the requisite reporting and communication skills needed for CQI initiatives.[39] A growing number of
158 pharmacies use PSOs approved by the Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality (AHRQ) to collate
159 their error data and recommend safety initiatives.[38] The impact of PSOs on dispensing safety practices
160 is unknown but requires examination because pharmacists practicing at pharmacies affiliated with PSOs
161 report fear of reprisal for reporting errors and state that they do not receive feedback about reported
162 errors[6]—two hurdles to improving medication safety that PSOs were created to overcome.

163
164 Collaboration between pharmacists and prescribers and their staffs is essential to prevent dispensing
165 errors; however, the “siloes” nature of pharmacies within the health care system hinders the prescriber-
166 pharmacist communications and collaborations needed to prevent, detect, and remedy prescription errors.
167 Lack of pharmacy access to electronic health record information prevents detection of errors such as
168 drug-disease interactions and incorrect patient or medication names on prescriptions.[32,40] A Qualtrics
169 survey of 204 pharmacists and 200 physicians revealed that while nearly all believed collaboration

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170 between physicians and pharmacists is important, both physicians and pharmacists reported that
171 collaboration was hindered by lack of time and communication challenges.[41]

172

173 Lack of external accountability for dispensing safety: State boards of pharmacy have a duty to hold
174 pharmacies and pharmacists accountable for prescription safety through enforcement of pharmacy laws
175 and regulations. However, most state boards of pharmacy do not require outpatient pharmacies to report
176 dispensing errors or undertake CQI activities.[12] A survey of state boards of pharmacy showed that only
177 16 state boards mandated that community pharmacies implement some component of CQI.[12] Of those,
178 three required complete audits related to medication safety and only one required documentation of
179 quality improvements made. Few state boards take actions to address workplace factors known to
180 influence dispensing error rates or cite pharmacies for neglecting to counsel patients as required by
181 law.[11]

182

183 Despite significant prescription expenditures and interest in preventing unnecessary health care costs,
184 health care payers rarely hold pharmacies accountable for dispensing errors. Payer medication safety
185 quality measures do not assess pharmacies' culture of safety or CQI initiatives.[42] Neither CMS nor
186 private payers require outpatient pharmacies to attain national accreditation approval from organizations
187 that assess patient safety practices.[12]

188

189 Outpatient pharmacies and their corporate owners face little market pressure to improve prescription
190 dispensing safety. Based on corporate annual report content, shareholders appear to have little interest in
191 prescription dispensing practices, dispensing error rates, or their impact on patient health and liability
192 costs.[37]

193

194 Evidence-Based Strategies to Address the Problem

195 This policy statement focuses on the following three strategies to protect the public against outpatient
196 pharmacy dispensing errors: (1) increasing research and practice-based analysis to characterize dispensing
197 errors, their impact on patient safety and financial costs, the patient populations affected, and system-
198 mediated factors that are the root cause of errors to inform CQI efforts; (2) strengthening the culture of
199 safety through CQI initiatives and pharmacist, patient, and interprofessional collaboration; and (3)
200 encouraging health care payers, patients and caregivers, and the general public to hold pharmacies
201 accountable for dispensing safety.

202

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203 Increase research and practice-based analysis: Data-driven interventions to improve dispensing safety are
204 needed. Meaningful safety data requires consistent use of standardized definitions and reporting
205 elements.[10] Government resources and established public databases can provide direction for the
206 development of sustainable surveillance models. While researcher access to established data repositories
207 can inform an understanding of dispensing errors, limitations commonly seen with error reporting
208 platforms include voluntary error reporting, potential reporter bias, lack of root cause analysis of errors,
209 and data limitations.[43]

210

211 One source for data standardization is publicly available: AHRQ Common Formats for Event Reporting-
212 Community Pharmacy Version.[44] By offering a unifying approach to data reporting, this tool
213 encourages data sharing that can lead to early alerts for needed interventions to protect patient safety.

214

215 FDA MedWatch,[34] VAERS,[35] and ISMP professional and consumer reporting portals [36] also
216 provide insight into error data collection processes and translation into error prevention actions. Together,
217 the FDA and the ISMP identify root causes of common and dangerous dispensing errors and apply this
218 information to improve pharmaceutical product labeling and issue safety alerts.[36] The addition of
219 artificial intelligence (AI) decision support tools holds potential to improve the speed of MedWatch data
220 reviews, leading to better and faster decisions.[45] The VAERS database provides early alerts to health
221 professionals about vaccine administration errors.[46] Increased voluntary reporting participation and
222 deidentified data availability to researchers and analysts could increase the value of these useful
223 databases to outpatient pharmacy CQI efforts.

224

225 Another data resource may be outpatient pharmacy error data held within PSOs. PSOs are established
226 through AHRQ,[38] and thus this agency's support of deidentified data access for research purposes is
227 essential. Finally, an evaluation of dispensing safety within outpatient pharmacies by the Office of the
228 Inspector General might be insightful given that a 2018 evaluation of hospital-based medication adverse
229 events conducted by the office produced valuable recommendations.[47]

230

231 The Ontario, Canada Assurance and Improvement in Medication Safety (AIMS) program provides a
232 standardized data reporting platform supported by mandatory anonymous dispensing error reporting with
233 data used to support CQI initiatives.[48] AIMS offers educational programs and has a safety interest
234 group and interactive tool that allow pharmacies and other stakeholders to view aggregated AIMS
235 data.[48]

236

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237 Strengthen the culture of safety within outpatient pharmacies: Strengthening the culture of safety within
238 outpatient pharmacies first requires that a culture of safety be defined and measured. The AHRQ
239 Community Pharmacy Survey on Patient Safety Culture, an online pharmacy-administered survey,
240 provides an initial step toward this goal.[49] It encompasses 11 selected patient safety components
241 including communications, patient counseling, work environment, and staff training. Researchers have
242 used this tool to characterize pharmacy practice environments.[32]

243
244 The importance of CQI is illustrated in the creation of a joint patient safety reporting system by the
245 Department of Defense and the Veterans Administration.[50] Both agencies can report incidents and near
246 misses, including those related to prescription dispensing errors, via a standardized methodology for data
247 input, incident investigation, and root cause analysis.

248
249 When educated, outpatient pharmacists respond positively to CQI initiatives.[51] A communication
250 network established to support CQI efforts in rural Nebraska pharmacies found that pharmacists valued
251 shared error reports and used them to increase safety vigilance within their pharmacies.[52] Designation
252 of a corporate medication safety officer can facilitate CQI participation, supporting communication
253 among all levels of organizational management and ensuring that pharmacy staff receive intentional,
254 ongoing education regarding medication safety and CQI implementation.[53]

255
256 A culture of safety links patient care responsibilities among pharmacists, patients/caregivers, prescribers,
257 and other health care providers. Intentional linking of patient care services and electronic health records
258 between pharmacies and patient-centered medical care homes improves coordination of care. [40,54,55]
259 Shared electronic health records help in coordinating care and identifying prescription errors before
260 prescriptions are dispensed. The Office of the National Coordination for Health Information Technology
261 (ONC) has proposed a rule that e-prescriptions include the indication for use, thus providing information
262 that could prevent incorrect patient, medication, and dose dispensing errors.[56]

263
264 Professional collaborations are essential for meeting the needs of those with barriers to understanding
265 prescription vial information. Pharmacies offer large-print and alternative language prescription labels,
266 but pharmacists often lack adequate skills and time to counsel patients with visual or hearing impairments
267 or those with low proficiency in English. [57,58] Partnerships with public health nurses or community
268 health workers who possess unique knowledge, skills, and community ties may be useful. Cross training
269 of pharmacy technicians as community health workers holds promise, but this model of care is limited by
270 time and financial requirements.[59]

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271

272 A culture of safety supports a work environment that provides adequate resources. As employees,
273 pharmacy staff can take actions to address workplace conditions that negatively affect patient safety. The
274 Occupational Safety and Health Administration enforces federal laws related to employee rights and
275 recognizes the links among an organizational culture of safety, worker rights, and patient safety.[60]
276 Collective bargaining gives employees a voice in decisions related to work issues, such as working
277 conditions that affect employee and patient safety.[61] Drawing on lessons learned from the nursing
278 profession,[62] pharmacy professional associations could play a key role in pharmacy staff efforts to
279 engage in collective bargaining.

280

281 Increase pharmacy accountability for maintaining a strong culture of safety: State boards of pharmacy-
282 mandated pharmacist-patient/caregiver counseling can significantly decrease dispensing errors.[63,64]
283 State laws have mandated error reporting and CQI processes, provided pharmacists legal authority to
284 adequately staff pharmacies, and given pharmacy staff break times.[65–67] While the effect of these
285 mandates is unknown, research on the Omnibus Reconciliation Bill of 1990 pharmacy practice
286 requirements suggests that, without financial incentives, the intended benefits may be muted.[68]
287 Irrespective of the laws' impact, their passage suggests that the political will to address system-mediated
288 causes of dispensing errors exists.

289

290 Historically, outpatient pharmacy corporations have responded to financial incentives. In response to
291 health plan requirements, corporations have expanded pharmacist responsibilities to include performance
292 metrics linked to health plan quality measures.[33] When the federal government offered pharmacies
293 reimbursement for COVID-19 vaccine administration, many pharmacies prioritized vaccine
294 administration.[6] Establishing private and public payer financial incentives for pharmacy CQI efforts
295 may be reasonable given that dispensing errors can result in increased health care costs.

296

297 Some state boards of pharmacy are combining a system-mediated approach to error prevention with
298 financial disincentives by fining outpatient pharmacy corporations, rather than pharmacists, for
299 prescription errors and failure to counsel patients.[6] CMS could build on this approach by requiring that
300 outpatient pharmacies attain national accreditation status to receive Medicare and Medicaid prescription
301 reimbursements.

302

303 As financial awards related to dispensing error lawsuits grow,[69] investors may raise concerns about
304 legal expenditures. Requiring corporations to report information about CQI practices, their impact on

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305 prescription dispensing safety, and overall prescription safety expenditures may incentivize them to
 306 establish stronger cultures of safety within their outpatient pharmacies.

307
 308 Increasing public awareness, interest, and education in dispensing errors could engage patients,
 309 caregivers, and the public in taking actions to detect and/or prevent errors.[43] Public prescription
 310 dispensing safety programs could empower patients to request pharmacist counseling when receiving a
 311 prescription and to check the prescription label and vial contents before leaving the pharmacy.[70] One
 312 effective public medication safety program is the Drug Enforcement Agency’s Prescription Take Back
 313 Day, which teaches the public how to safely dispose of unused medication to prevent unintentional
 314 medication use or poisonings. Between 2018 and October 2023, the program collected 8,950 tons of
 315 medications through its twice-yearly events.[71]

316
 317 **Alternative Strategies**

318 An alternative strategy is continued passive surveillance of dispensing errors. Instead of taking the best
 319 practices proactive approach to error prevention,[55] this strategy takes a reactive approach that fails to
 320 address preventive measures and blames pharmacy staff without any root cause analysis of the
 321 contribution of the pharmacy system. This approach thwarts efforts to prevent dispensing errors and their
 322 associated patient harm.

323
 324 Increasing medication safety training sessions and continuing education programs for pharmacy staff
 325 might be proposed as sufficient for addressing error concerns. However, limited educational sessions are
 326 often insufficient to address system-mediated medication safety.[72] To be effective, personnel training
 327 needs to be one component of a comprehensive safety strategy that builds on a culture of safety.

328
 329 Human errors may lead to a desire to rely totally on technology (e.g., robots, AI-driven assessments and
 330 counseling) to prevent dispensing errors. While technology does lower rates of some types of errors,[43]
 331 those requiring complex decision making based on knowledge and experiential skills may not be reliably
 332 prevented with today’s AI capabilities.

333
 334 **Action Steps to Implement Evidence-Based Strategies**

	Evidence-Based Strategy		Action Steps
1	Increase research and practice-based analysis to characterize dispensing	1a	CDC, AHRQ, and the Health Resources and Service Administration, in partnership with researchers and medication safety stakeholders, should conduct and/or fund research related

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	<p>errors, their impact on patient safety, the patient populations impacted, and the system-mediated factors that contribute to errors as a means to inform CQI efforts.</p>		<p>to prescription dispensing errors, the factors that influence their occurrence and prevention, and their effect on patient safety and health care costs. Such work should focus on those most at risk of harm and the culture of safety within outpatient pharmacies and seek to develop common data elements and analytical frameworks. This research should build upon and coordinate with the efforts of the FDA, CDC, and ISMP.</p>
		1b	<p>The Department of Health and Human Services (DHHS) secretary should direct federal health agencies to develop and implement a system for collective reporting of dispensing errors.</p>
		1c	<p>AHRQ should support collaborative research between outpatient pharmacies and researchers on the structure, use, and impact of its Community Pharmacy Survey on Patient Safety Culture and Common Formats for Event Reporting-Community Pharmacy Version. Also, the agency should build on its current work related to pharmacy safety to assist outpatient pharmacies in using data to effectively support CQI initiatives. This effort should include tactics for broadly sharing lessons learned with other pharmacies and key stakeholders. Partners in this effort could include the FDA, CDC, ISMP, outpatient pharmacies, pharmacy professional associations, medication safety experts, health informatics experts, health care payers, and consumer advocates. Finally, the agency should examine the effectiveness of PSOs in supporting CQI efforts within pharmacies and support researcher access to deidentified PSO data.</p>
		1d	<p>Congress should request that the DHHS Office of Inspector General assess outpatient pharmacies' CQI programs and their impact on dispensing errors and patient safety.</p>
2	<p>Strengthen the culture of safety within community pharmacies.</p>	2a	<p>Outpatient pharmacies and their corporate owners should do the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create a culture of safety that guides pharmacy dispensing activities.

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			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish medication safety leadership positions to promote a culture of safety from top management to the individual pharmacy level. • Provide intentional training and ongoing education to all pharmacy staff regarding prescription dispensing error prevention, detection, and mitigation with an emphasis on team contributions to CQI. • Appropriately staff and resource pharmacies to ensure adequate time for prescription review, patient counseling, and meaningful involvement in CQI initiatives. • Collaborate with prescribers, other health professionals, community advocates, patients, and caregivers to ensure that dispensing safety policies and practices are responsive to community needs.
		2b	OHSA should partner with national and state pharmacy associations to educate pharmacists and pharmacy technicians about their right to safe working environments and their right to lawfully organize.
		2c	ONC should conduct and/or fund research on the impact of CQI program requirements on outpatient pharmacy staff health and safety.
		2d	ONC should expand the availability of electronic health record content and communication processes between outpatient pharmacies and other network partners to foster the detection, prevention, and mitigation of dispensing errors through noncommercial, patient-centered communications. Partners in this effort should include outpatient pharmacy corporations, health care systems, health professionals, health informatics experts, health information exchanges, and consumer advocates.
		2e	The FDA, ISMP, outpatient pharmacies, health professional associations, and consumer advocacy groups should coordinate an orchestrated effort to enhance consumer interest, awareness,

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			and education about outpatient pharmacy dispensing errors and empower patients and their caregivers to take actions to prevent, detect, and mitigate error-related harm and to report errors.
3	Incentivize health care payers, patients/caregivers, and the general public to hold pharmacies accountable for dispensing safety.	3a	State boards of pharmacy should require and enforce regulations that: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prohibit pharmacy policies, practices, and workplace conditions that contribute to dispensing errors. • Require outpatient pharmacy CQI initiatives related to dispensing errors. • Mandate the provision and documentation of oral patient counseling for every prescription dispensed. • Hold outpatient pharmacies and their corporate owners accountable for consistently following laws and regulations intended to prevent dispensing errors.
		3b	CMS, in partnership with national accreditation organizations, pharmacies, pharmacy professional associations, and consumer advocates, should develop conditions of participation and conditions for coverage that outpatient pharmacies must meet to begin and continue participation in the Medicare and Medicaid programs.
		3c	Private and public health care payers should work with AHRQ, outpatient pharmacies, pharmacy professional associations, medication safety experts, and health information specialists to develop a standardized data-driven approach to holistically evaluating pharmacies based on their culture of safety.
		3d	Shareholders should call for publicly traded pharmacy corporations to include information related to their outpatient pharmacy dispensing safety practices in their annual corporate reports.

335

336 Opposing Arguments

337 Dispensing safety data should be confidential and proprietary: Dispensing error reporting may raise

338 concerns that public sharing of patient and pharmacist personal identifying information within error data

339 may violate patient confidentiality laws and thus dampen error reporting efforts. For this reason, release

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340 of deidentified data only is encouraged with an emphasis on their educational use for error
341 prevention.[16] As businesses concerned about their public image and subject to shareholder concerns
342 about liability, pharmacy corporations may argue that even deidentified aggregate dispensing error data
343 are proprietary and should not be publicly available. However, state boards of pharmacy have a duty and
344 health care payers, and the public have a vested interest in being able to review and assess prescription
345 safety information.[55]

346

347 Error increases are a temporary effect of the COVID-19 pandemic: Another opposing argument is that
348 prescription dispensing errors are a result of staffing shortages exacerbated by the COVID-19
349 pandemic.[73] Some may state that as the impact of the pandemic subsides, pharmacy workplace issues
350 will resolve, and workloads will decline. However, responsibilities related to COVID testing and
351 immunizations remain. Staffing shortages were problematic prior to the pandemic.[33]

352

353 Errors should be addressed through a focus on individual workers: Some may suggest that individuals
354 rather than systems are the cause of prescription errors.[74] Pharmacists are liable for the errors they
355 cause, but this viewpoint ignores the prevailing perspective that individual sanctions for human errors
356 discourage error reporting and that a systems approach to assessing and improving safety is more
357 effective in preventing recurrent errors.[55,74]

358

359 Safety regulations and accountability may lead to unintended negative consequences: Two unintended
360 negative consequences of promoting CQI initiatives may occur. CQI initiatives themselves may add to
361 pharmacy staff responsibilities and, if staff resources are not increased, will contribute to errors by further
362 overwhelming the system.[75] Pharmacy corporations may decide that the costs of safety changes are too
363 high and exit the market, thus limiting public access to pharmacies and increasing workloads for
364 remaining pharmacy staff. They may also adopt dispensing models that complicate external
365 accountability for safety. It may be difficult to prevent such reactions, but the benefits of improving
366 prescription safety and preventing patient harm support the action steps presented.

367

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