

Pharmacovigilance: New Perspective for Drug Safety & Monitoring

Mubarak Rampurawala^{1*}, Dr. Chairesh Shah², Dr. Umesh Upadhyay³

^{1,2,3} Department of Pharmacy, Sigma Institute of Pharmacy Vadodara; Gujarat Technical University (GTU), Gujarat, India.

Abstract

Pharmacovigilance has its own unique and fundamental role in the healthcare and pharmaceutical systems. It is done by monitoring the drug interaction effects in the human body^[1]. Pharmacovigilance goes beyond reviewing marketed drugs and includes more than just spontaneous reporting. Its scope has grown from a minor drug control activity to a major one that now includes helping to obtain sufficient valid consent and institutional review boards (ethical committees) for patient safety during clinical trials, developing a safety profile for the proper use of a new molecular entity and effectively communicating that information to a variety of relevant stakeholders, and choosing the first safe dose for use in humans based on available scientific data. This study links the expansion of pharmacovigilance to the evaluation of drug safety.

Keywords: Pharmacovigilance, Adverse drug reactions, clinical trials, spontaneous reporting, intensive reporting, Good pharmacovigilance practices.

1. Introduction

Pharmacovigilance can be defined as process of identification and response to drug safety issues.^[2] It has been growing considerably. It has been revealed in a survey that in 1994, more than 320 personnel worked in pharmacovigilance department in The UK^[3]. A pharmaceutical company at higher level have approximately 100 experienced staff in pharmacovigilance in its research and development branch. The development is exceeded due to the recognition of the role, the investigation and marketing of a vast range of diverse medicinal products and detailed regulatory needs. The reports of ADR or possible ADR's can be examinable for the key marketed products in which more than a 1000 case entries are received globally from the health care professionals and supplementary sources^[4].

All the medications which promise effectiveness don't come without risk. Full understanding of drug's safety profile can be achieved by clinical trials^[5]. Pharmacovigilance is defined by the WHO as 'the science and activities relating to the detection, assessment, understanding and prevention of adverse effects or any other drug-related problem';^[6] it plays a crucial part in confirming that doctors, simultaneously with the patient, have enough information to make a verdict when it comes to choosing a drug for appropriate treatment.^[7,8]

2. History

Though it was not yet known by that name, pharmacovigilance dates back around 170 years. It is a planned activity in the field of professional health care with significant social and economic ramifications that aims to evaluate drug risk/benefit ratios, enhance patient safety, and enhance quality of life. We outline the pharmacovigilance accomplishments in this remark.

In order to comprehend all the steps that have marked the historical evolution, from the first reports were simply letters or cautions that physicians issued to the publishers of significant and well-known scientific journals to the highly structured computerised registers of today. The historical periods also aid in our comprehension. Why did pharmacovigilance enable us to accomplish such significant improvements in human health and for the materia medica itself, and to recognize the obstacle that are expected in the upcoming years.^[10]

Year	Evolution
1747	First clinical trial by James Lind to prove the effect of lemon juice in treatment of scurvy.
1937	Demise of 100+ infants due to sulphanilamide toxicity.
1950	Reported aplastic anemia due to chloramphenicol toxicity.
1961	Global catastrophe by thalidomide toxicity.
1963	Recollection of immediate action on ADRs by World Health.
1968	WHO researches for global drug monitoring on pilot scale.
1996	International standard level clinical trials introduced in India.
1997	India merged with WHO ADR monitoring program.
1998	Commencement of pharmacovigilance in India.
2002	67 th National Pharmacovigilance Centre was vested in India.
2004-2005	National Pharmacovigilance Program was established in India.
2009-2010	PvPI (Pharmacovigilance Program) was commenced.
2012	Haemovigilance was started.
2015	Commencement of MvPI (Materiovigilance).

Table 1: The chronological pharmacovigilance evolution with particular reference to India. ^[11-15]

3. Worldwide soldiers

There exists a quite complex and exquisite relationship between extensive fields of companion in the practice of drug safety monitoring. These companions essentially anticipate, acknowledge and respond to the frequently increasing demands and expectation of the people, health care professionals, and policy officials.

Department	Purpose
The Quality Assurance and Safety	Part of Department of essential Drugs and Medicine Policy within WHO and pharmaceutical companies. They close gap between the potential the drug has to offer and the reality of usage by the worldwide population.
The Uppsala Monitoring Centre	It manages the global database of ADR reports received from national centers. They have accomplished communication among countries to provide rapid identification of signals
The National Pharmacovigilance Centers	Increases public awareness of drug safety. Vital centers in the developed countries have managed to establish active surveillance program with the use of record linkage and PEM to collect epidemiological reports on ADRs on a specific drug.
Hospitals And Academia	Many medical institutes have developed ADR and medication fault close watch system in their premises. Academic centers provide an important role in pharmacology by teaching, clinical research, training, ethics program and clinical services.

Health Professional	A lot of healthcare professionals from different categories will observe different kind of drug problems
----------------------------	--

Table 2: Role of Different Departments in The Pharmacovigilance Study.^[16-24]

4. Aim

Augmentation of patient health, care and safety concerning the use of medications with medical intervention rests to be a crucial parameter.^[25, 26] The main aims are as follows:

- I. For many years, study the effectiveness of pharmaceuticals and keep an eye on their side effects starting in the laboratory and continuing through the pharmacy.
- II. Enhance safety and patient care with regard to medication use and any additional medical and paramedical procedures.
- III. Pharmacovigilance monitors any severe side effects of medications.
- IV. Encourage the safe, sane, and more effective (particularly cost-efficient) use of medicines by helping to examine the benefits, harms, effectiveness, and risks associated with their use.
- V. Strengthen public safety and health in respect to drug consumption.^[27,28]

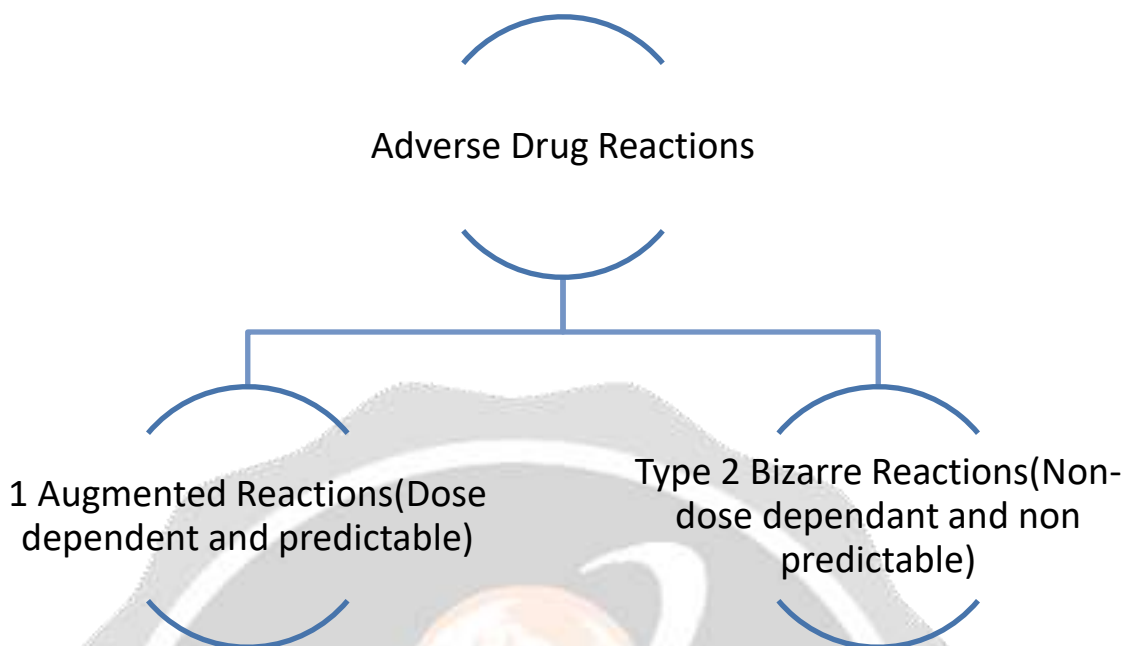
5. Need For Pharmacovigilance

Pharmacovigilance is a salient and constitutive part of clinical research. Despite its 40-year history, pharmacovigilance remains a dynamic scientific and clinical field. It continues to play an important role in meeting the challenges posed by the increasing range and potency of drugs. When adverse events and toxicity occur especially when they are not previously known, it is essential that they are reported, analyzed and their significance is effectively communicated to the subject with knowledge. The knowledge required to interpret the information, which is inevitable and certain for all drugs, has a trade-off between potential benefits and harms. Suffering can be minimized by ensuring that good quality, safe and effective medicines are used appropriately and patient expectations and concerns are taken into account when making treatment decisions. Consuming medicines and prescribing them is one of the most common activities of patients and the member who take care of them. It makes logical for those medications to be subject to the same rigorous standards of oversight as those evident in the creation and evaluation of pharmaceuticals, and for prescribing practices and the degree of rational and cost-effective use to be examined.^[27]

It is commonly acknowledged that the clinical development of medications is a difficult process that takes a long time to complete. When a medication is marketed, it leaves the safe and secure scientific setting of clinical trials and becomes available for use by the general public. Currently, only a small number of carefully chosen individuals have been used to test the short-term safety and effectiveness of the majority of medications. Pharmacovigilance is therefore required, which entails assuring the early detection of novel adverse responses or patient subgroups of extraordinary sensitivity; establishing specified methods to mitigate such risks. Furthermore, it is crucial that after being marketed, fresh and medically still developing medications are examined for their efficacy and safety in actual use. Moreover, additional knowledge is generally required regarding the effectiveness and safety of long-term drug use in combination with other medicines when employed in specific populations, such as children, pregnant women, and the elderly. Numerous negative effects, drug interactions, and risk factors have been documented later in the drug release years. These years also saw the advancement of pharmacovigilance awareness, education, and clinical training, as well as effective public outreach. Additionally, building processes and procedures for gathering and analyzing reports from patients and designing information for consumers, practitioners, and regulators on how to utilize medications effectively.^[29]

6. Adverse Drug Reactions

An adverse drug reaction (ADR) can be defined as ‘an appreciably harmful or unpleasant reaction resulting from an intervention related to the use of a medicinal product; adverse effects usually predict hazard from future administration and warrant prevention, or specific treatment, or alteration of the dosage regimen, or withdrawal of the product’.^[30,31]

Figure 1: Types of ADRs. ^[32]

Type of reaction	Features	Examples	Management
A: Augmented Reactions (Dose related)	Common Predictable Low mortality	Digoxin toxicity, respiratory depression with opioids.	Reduce dose Consider concomitant therapy.
B: Bizarre Reactions (Non-dose related)	Uncommon Unpredictable High Mortality	a: Immunologic Reactions b: Idiosyncratic reactions	Avoid or withhold.
C: Chronic Reactions (Dose and time related)	Uncommon Cumulative dose related	Osteonecrosis of the jaw with bisphosphonates	Reduce dose; Withdrawal may have to increased.
D: Time related Reactions (Delayed)	Uncommon Usually dose related Apparent after some time of use	Carcinogenesis Teratogenesis	Most of the time it is intractable.
E: : End Of Use Reactions (Withdrawal)	Uncommon Soon after drug withdrawal	Withdrawal syndrome with opiates/barbiturates	Withdraw drug slowly.
F: Unexpected Failure	Common	Resistance to anti-	Consider concomitant

Of therapy (Failure)	Caused by drug interaction	microbial agents	therapy.
-----------------------------	----------------------------	------------------	----------

Table 3: Detailed classification of ADRs ^[33]

6.1. Factors Affecting the occurrence of ADRs:

Predisposition appears to be multi-factorial for the majority of adverse events, especially the idiosyncratic drug reactions, and involves both environmental and genetic flaws as well as concurrent infections and the use of additional medications for various illnesses. The majority of adverse drug reactions (ADRs) originate from the prolongation of a drug's intended pharmacologic effects, frequently as a result of the significant individual patient variability in pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. The pathophysiology of ADRs involves pharmacological, immunological, and genetic components. Dose, drug formulation, pharmacokinetic or pharmacodynamics abnormalities, and medication interactions are some of the factors that predispose to pharmacological ADRs. A need for many atypical pharmacological reactions is now known to exist: the metabolic conversion of medicines to metabolites. ^[33-36]

Some of the factors are: ^[37-46]

- A. Patient related factors
 - a. Age
 - b. Gender
 - c. Maternity Status
 - d. Foetal Development
 - e. Creatinine Clearance
 - f. Allergic Reactions
 - g. Body Weight and Fat Distribution
- B. Social factors
 - a. Alcohol consumption
 - b. Race and ethnicity factors
 - c. Smoking
- C. Drug related factors
 - a. Poly pharmacy
 - b. Drug dose and frequency
- D. Disease related factors

7. Clinical trials:

To assure the safety and effectiveness of any new treatment, clinical research is a crucial step in the drug discovery process. Clinical trials are essential in the worldwide scientific era of today for bringing new and improved medications to market. Human volunteers (subjects) are recruited for clinical trials to test prospective treatments to see whether they should be certified for use in the general population.

Clinical trials, as their name suggests, are a collection of experiments and observations performed on human participants in clinical research. In order to prevent, detect, treat, or manage various illnesses or medical disorders, they are conducted in the search for novel therapies, interventions, or diagnostic procedures. Clinical Trials aids in assessing whether a novel intervention is effective, safe, and effective, as well as whether it is superior to currently available treatments. According to WHO defines clinical trial as: 'Any research study that prospectively assigns human participants or groups of humans to one or more health-related interventions to evaluate the effects on health outcomes'. The basic goal of drug discovery research is to create novel, safer, and more effective medications for human use. A new medicine must undergo numerous stages of rigorous testing, first on animals and then on human beings, before it is released onto the market. ^[48-50]

7.1. Types of clinical trials

- A. According to the mode of study

- a. Interventional Study
- b. Clinical observational study
- B. According to the purpose
 - c. Prevention trials
 - d. Diagnostic trials
 - e. Treatment trials
 - f. Supportive care trials
 - g. Screening trials
 - h. Compassionate use trials

7.2. Phases in clinical trials

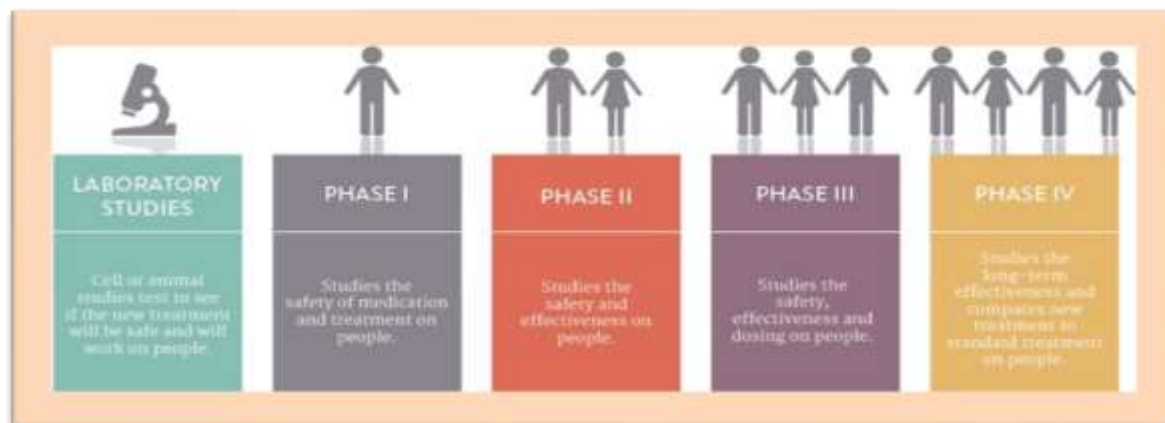


Figure2: Phases in clinical trials.

8. Methods incorporated in pharmacovigilance

8.1. Spontaneous reporting system

SRS were developed, and these have now taken over as the main way to gather data on the security of medicines after they have been put on the market. The primary purpose of SRS is to identify new, uncommon, and significant ADR signals as soon as possible. A pharmacovigilance centre can receive reports of suspected ADRs from physicians, pharmacists, and patients more frequently thanks to a spontaneous reporting method ^[34–36]. The pharmacovigilance centre's job is to gather and analyse information, as well as to alert stakeholders to any potential risks when new ADR signals are detected. The pharmaceutical business also uses spontaneous reporting to get data regarding its products. All medications on the market can be monitored effectively and affordably with an SRS over their full life cycle. The likelihood for selective reporting and failure to report is the fundamental criticism of this strategy. It is impossible to determine cause-and-effect correlations or precise incidence rates using an SRS. It is also impossible to comprehend risk variables or decipher usage patterns. The value of spontaneous reporting has been established over time, despite the claims of critics who claim it is not the best technique for ensuring the safety of pharmaceuticals ^[82–87].

8.2. Intensive monitoring

Intensive monitoring has a non-interventional observational cohort as its foundation. Intensive monitoring delivers real-world clinical data by being non-interventional and involving neither inclusion nor selection criteria during the data collection period. Selection bias is eliminated because it is unaffected by the types of inclusion and exclusion criteria that define clinical studies. The methodology's foundation in event monitoring, which enables it to spot signals for outcomes that weren't necessarily suspected to be adverse drug reactions (ADRs) of the medicine under study, is another advantage.

The incidence of adverse events can also be assessed thanks to intensive monitoring programmes, allowing for the calculation of the risk of specific ADRs. However, this strategy also has known drawbacks. Unknown is the percentage of negative effects that are not disclosed to medical professionals. In addition, reported event rates rather than actual incidence rates are produced by the studies. This holds true for all research projects using

computer databases and record linking that use information from medical records. Standard intensive monitoring studies lack a control group, so the actual background incidence of occurrences is unknown^[88,89].

9. Pharmacovigilance process

Processes involved:

1. Collect and record ADRs
2. Causality assessment and analysis of ADRs
3. Collate and code in database
4. Compute risk benefit and suggest regulatory actions
5. Communicate for safe use of drugs among stakeholders

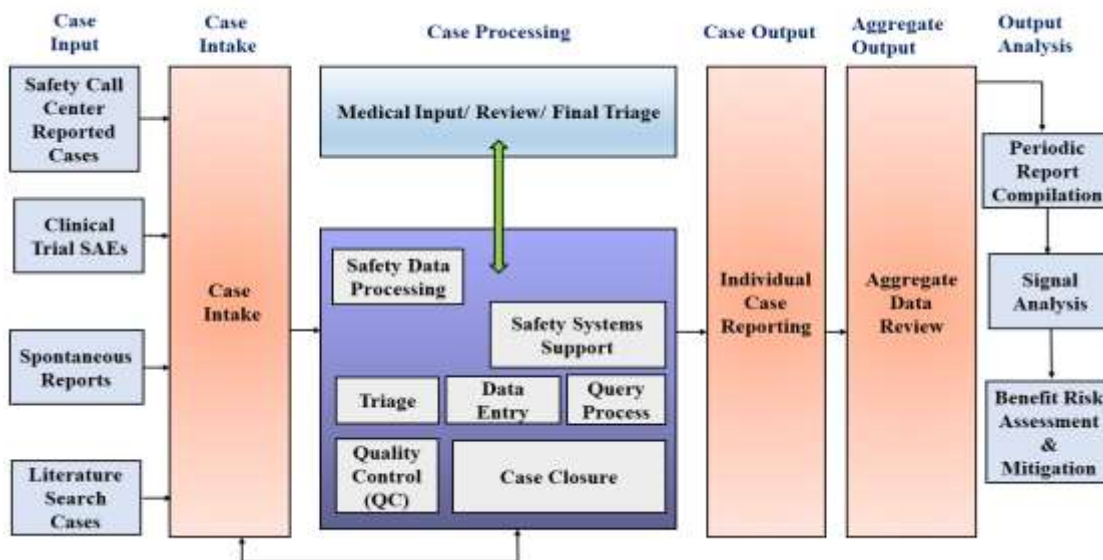


Figure 3: Activities Associated With Pharmacovigilance

9.1. Signal Detection

The World Health Organization (WHO) has defined a signal as: Reported information on a possible causal relationship between an adverse event and a drug, the relationship being unknown or incompletely documented previously. Usually more than a single report is required to generate a signal, depending upon the seriousness of the event and the quality of the information.

In actuality, the majority of signals will pertain to threats that were previously undetected, but in the middle of the 1990s, there was a remarkable instance of a signal that a known hazard was more serious than assumed. Tiaprofenic acid, a NSAID medicine, had been known to cause cystitis for more than a decade, but a string of cases showed that, if the reaction was not recognised and the drug was continued for an extended period of time, severe chronic cystitis might happen. As a result, surgical bladder excision was frequently required, which left patients permanently disabled.

Although some signals can be picked up passively (such from the medical literature), signal detection should generally be an intentional effort. Although there are probably many needles to discover, it has been stated that identifying signals in huge datasets is similar to trying to locate a needle in a haystack. In this regard, the phrase "data mining" is now frequently employed, especially in reference to the systematic detection of signals from huge spontaneous ADR databases. Data mining is defined as "actively seeking patterns in large datasets."^[48-69]

10. National Programme For Pharmacovigilance:

Clinical trials, which are limited by the number of patients and length of the trial as well as by the extremely controlled environments in which they are conducted, are the only way to gain experience with a product's safety and efficacy prior to its commercialization. These trials do not reflect practise conditions. Once a drug is marketed, how it is utilized in the hospitals or in general practise may not exactly match the settings under which patients are examined during the pre-marketing phase. It is frequently insufficient or impossible to obtain information on uncommon but severe adverse medication responses, chronic toxicity, use in particular populations (such as pregnant women, children, and the elderly), and drug interactions. Before a very large number of patients have taken the medication, certain ADRs might not be discovered.

Therefore, one of the crucial post-marketing strategies for ensuring the effectiveness of pharmaceutical and associated health goods is pharmacovigilance.

1. Evaluating the risks and benefits of medicines to ascertain what, if any, action is required to enhance their safe use.
2. Educating people on how to utilise medications most safely and effectively.
3. Following up on any action's effects.

10.1. The books listed under must be made available to various centres as recognized by the NPAC.

- a. Meyler's Side Effects
- b. AHFs Drug Information Hand Book
- c. Martindale
- d. Davies Text Book Of ADR
- e. Physicians' Desk Reference
- f. British National Formulary ^[70-81]

11. Good Pharmacovigilance Practices

The fundamental foundation of good pharmacovigilance practise is the collection of comprehensive data from spontaneous adverse event reports, sometimes referred to as case reports. To create case series for interpretation, the reports are employed.

11.1. Good Reporting Practice

Signals of drug side effects may be produced by spontaneous case reports of adverse outcomes submitted to the sponsor and FDA as well as reports from other sources, such the scientific literature or clinical studies. For an accurate assessment of the connection in between product and unfavourable outcomes, the reports' quality is essential. FDA advises sponsors to use trained healthcare professionals to contact reporters and urges sponsors to make a reasonable effort to acquire full data for case analysis at initial contacts and subsequent follow-up, particularly for serious incidents. The line of questioning can be narrowed down with the aid of computer-assisted interviewing, targeted questionnaires, or other techniques designed to focus on certain occurrences. When a consumer reports an adverse event, it is frequently crucial to get their consent before contacting the healthcare provider who is aware of the patient's adverse event in order to gather more medical data and, if necessary, collect pertinent medical records. The FDA advises that the gravity of the incident reported, the report's source (such as a healthcare provider, patient, or published source), and other considerations should determine the extent and methodology of case follow-up. The FDA advises that major adverse event reports, particularly those of adverse events not previously associated with the medicine, should receive the most rigorous follow-up attention.

11.2. Characteristics of a good case report:

The following components are found in effective case reports:

- i. A description of the disease or unpleasant effects experienced, including the timing of the development of symptoms or indicators;
- ii. Details of suspected and concurrent product therapy, including over-the-counter drugs, dietary supplements, and recently stopped drugs (i.e., dose, batch number, routine, dates, and length);

- iii. Patient characteristics, such as age, race, and sex; baseline medical state before beginning product therapy; co-morbid condition; concurrent drug use; pertinent family medical history of disease; and existence of other risk factors;
- iv. Recording of the events' assessment, including the techniques utilised to do so;
- v. Patient outcomes and the clinical course of the incident (e.g., hospitalisation or death);
- vi. Appropriate blood levels and pertinent treatment measurements including laboratory data at base, throughout therapy, and after therapy;
- vii. Any additional pertinent information (such as additional information regarding the event or data regarding the patient's benefits, if relevant to the examination of the event);
- viii. Information regarding responsiveness to dechallenge and established goal.

FDA advises sponsors to include all pertinent data from the National Coordinating Council for Medication Error Reporting and Prevention (NCC MERP) Taxonomy in the case narrative part of a medication error report. 6

The FDA has discovered the taxonomy to be a useful tool for categorising and analysing reports of pharmaceutical errors, even though sponsors are not obligated to use it. It offers a common vocabulary and organisational framework for information gathered through reports on pharmaceutical errors.

11.3. Developing a case series

FDA advises sponsors to carefully study the cases and look for additional cases before evaluating a signal resulting from postmarketing spontaneous reports. The sponsor's global adverse event datasets, the published research literature, and other databases like the FDA's Adverse Event Reporting System (AERS) or the Vaccine Adverse Events Reporting System (VAERS) could all be searched thoroughly using updated coding terminology, such as the MedDRA, to find additional cases. FDA advises using formal criteria by including or excluding a case where standardised case definitions are available to evaluate potential cases for participation in a case series. FDA generally advises doing case-level reviews before carrying out other investigations or analysis.

The FDA advises sponsors to assess each case report for clinical content and thoroughness be part of the case-level review and to follow up with reporters as appropriate. Removing any duplicate reports is crucial. When examining case reports, the FDA advises sponsors to look for characteristics that could point to a connection among the consumption of a drug and the adverse event, such as:

- i. The adverse event occurring within the anticipated timeframe (e.g., type 1 allergic reactions occurring soon after therapy, cancer developing years after therapy);
- ii. The absence of event-related symptoms prior to exposure;
- iii. Proof of successful dechallenge or successful established goal.
- iv. The event's consistency with the product's known pharmacological or toxicological effects, or in the case of vaccinations, with known infectious or immunologic pathways of injury;
- v. The existence of additional supporting data from preclinical studies, clinical trials, and/or pharmacoepidemiologic studies;
- vi. Uniformity of the occasion with the known effects of other goods in the class;
- vii. Absence of possible explanations for the event (e.g., no concurrent medications that could have caused the incident; no co- or pre-morbid medical conditions).

11.4. Summary Descriptive Analysis of a Case Series:

If one or more occurrences indicate a safety alert that necessitates further examination, The FDA advises creating a case series and compiling descriptive clinical data, characterised, and where possible, risk factors were identified, in order to characterise the potential safety risk.

- 1. The event's clinical and laboratory symptoms and progression;
- 2. The demographics of patients who have experienced events (such as age, gender, and race);
- 3. The length of exposure;
- 4. The interval between the beginning of product exposure and the adverse occurrence;
- 5. Doses administered in situations, including labelled doses, doses above labels, and overdoses;

6. Taking medicines concurrently;
7. The existence of co-morbid conditions, especially those that are known to contribute to the adverse event, like underlying renal or hepatic impairment;
8. The method of administration (for example, parenteral versus oral);
9. Product lot codes, if available, for clients with events; and
10. Variations in the rate of event reporting across a certain calendar period or a product's life cycle.

11.5. Use of Data Mining to Identify Product-Event Combinations

A systematic analysis of the reported adverse events using statistical or mathematical methods, or so-called data mining, can reveal new information concerning the occurrence of an abundance of adverse events recorded for a product at different phases of risk identification and evaluation.

Large adverse event databases, like the FDA's AERS or VAERS, might benefit from data mining approaches to find odd or unexpected product-event combinations that require additional research. Data mining is particularly helpful for analyzing the pattern, time trends, and activities connected to drug-drug interactions. It can be used to supplement current signal detection methodologies. Data mining is not the method for determining the relationship between a product's ingredients and unfavourable outcomes.

11.6. Safety Signals That May Warrant Further Investigation

According to FDA, the aforementioned techniques will enable a sponsor to recognise and provisionally characterise a safety signal. Since it is impossible to characterise every event with absolute certainty and because there is almost always underreporting to a certain degree and inadequate information about the length of therapy, the number of patients treated, etc., it is impossible to estimate the actual danger to patients from these data.

1. New, unlabeled unfavourable events, particularly if they are serious;
2. A labelled event that appears to have become more severe;
3. The occurrence of serious incidents deemed to be incredibly infrequent in the general populace;
4. brand-new interactions between products, devices, foods, or dietary supplements;
5. The discovery of a community at risk that had not previously been recognised (for example, populations with different ethnic or hereditary tendency or co-morbidities);
6. Uncertainty over the name, labelling, packaging, or application of a product;
7. Issues relating to how a product is utilised (such as adverse events observed at doses greater than those on the label or in individuals not advised for treatment);
8. worries resulting from a risk minimization action plan's potential deficiencies (for example, reports of grave incidents that seem to indicate the failure of a RiskMAP target);
9. Additional issues that the company or FDA have identified ^[111-123].

12. Organization of Pharmacovigilance Department:

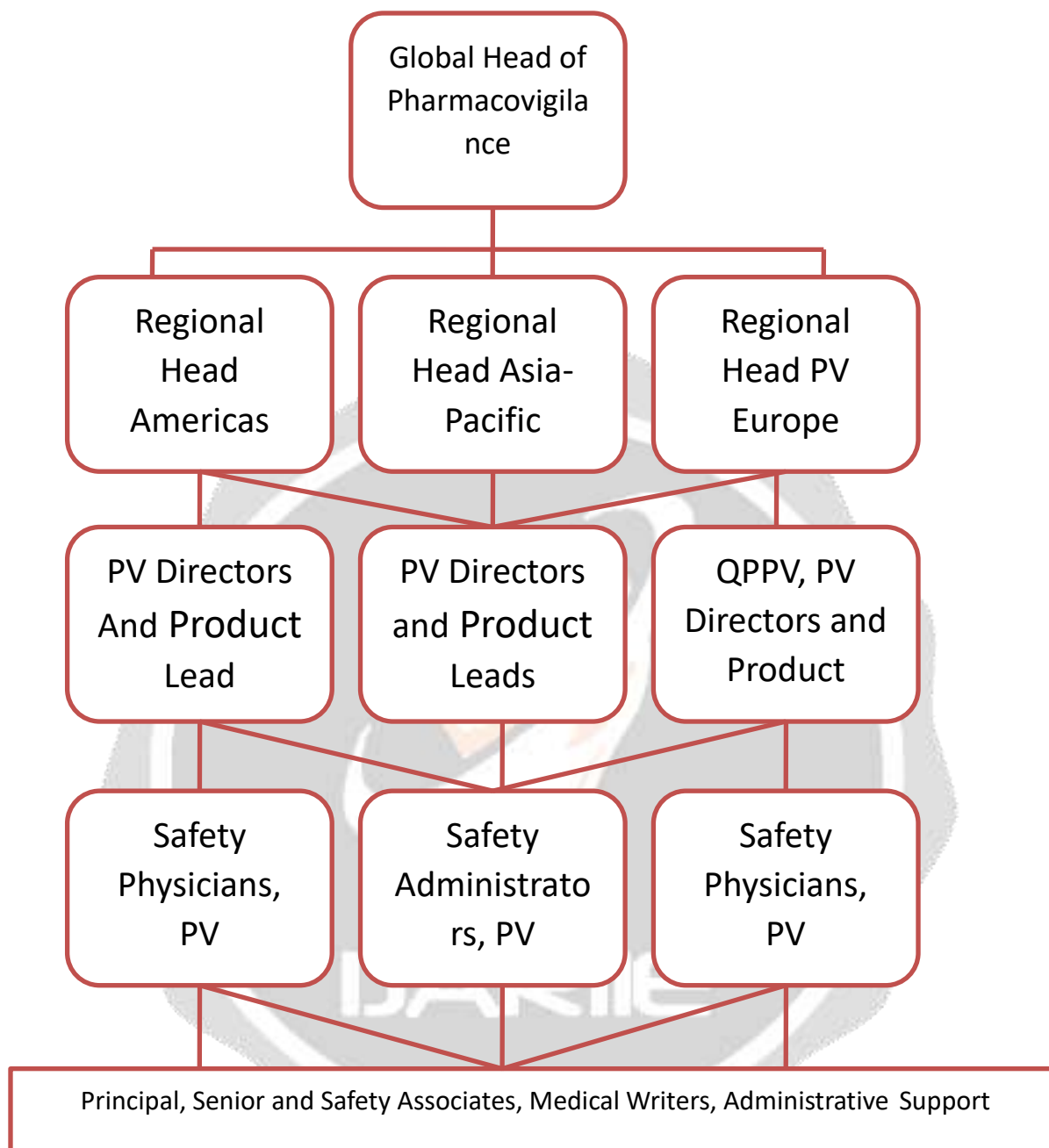


Figure 4: Structure of Organisation of Pharmacovigilance department (Mid-sized)

13. Pharmacovigilance Analytical tools:

It is commonly recognised that PV is a method for managing medication risks. The process starts with the identification of a potential threat, which is then evaluated and researched, leading to actions being made to reduce such risks in the end. The final phase should be an assessment of the process' efficacy. The PV implementation calls for the deployment of particular technologies that will facilitate communication between prescribers and end users. Due to possible new proofs or perhaps insufficient measures applied, the total risk management process is iterative. A drug safety concern is infrequently deemed resolved, and the safety investigation continues until the drug has completed its whole life cycle [90].

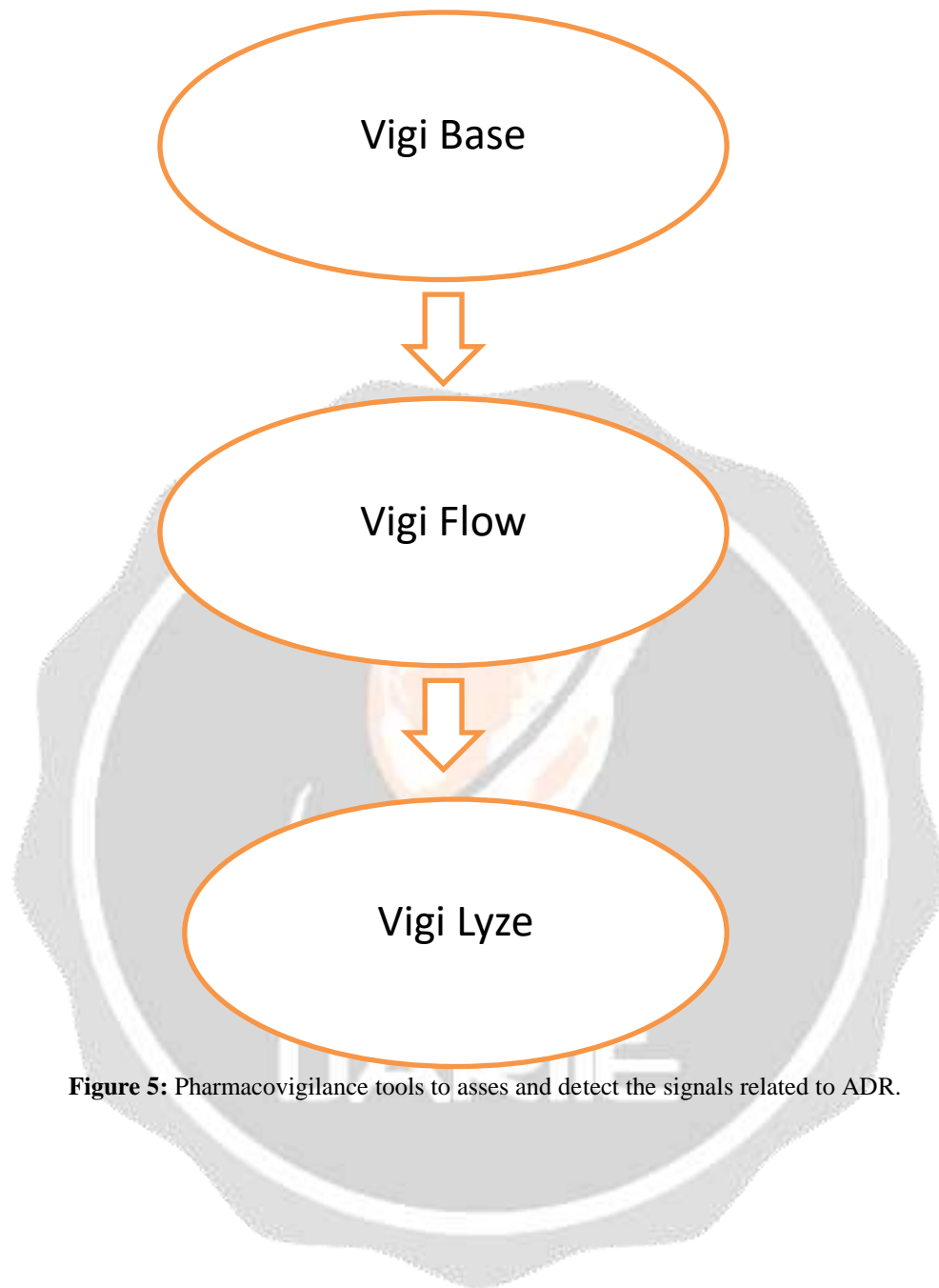


Figure 5: Pharmacovigilance tools to asses and detect the signals related to ADR.

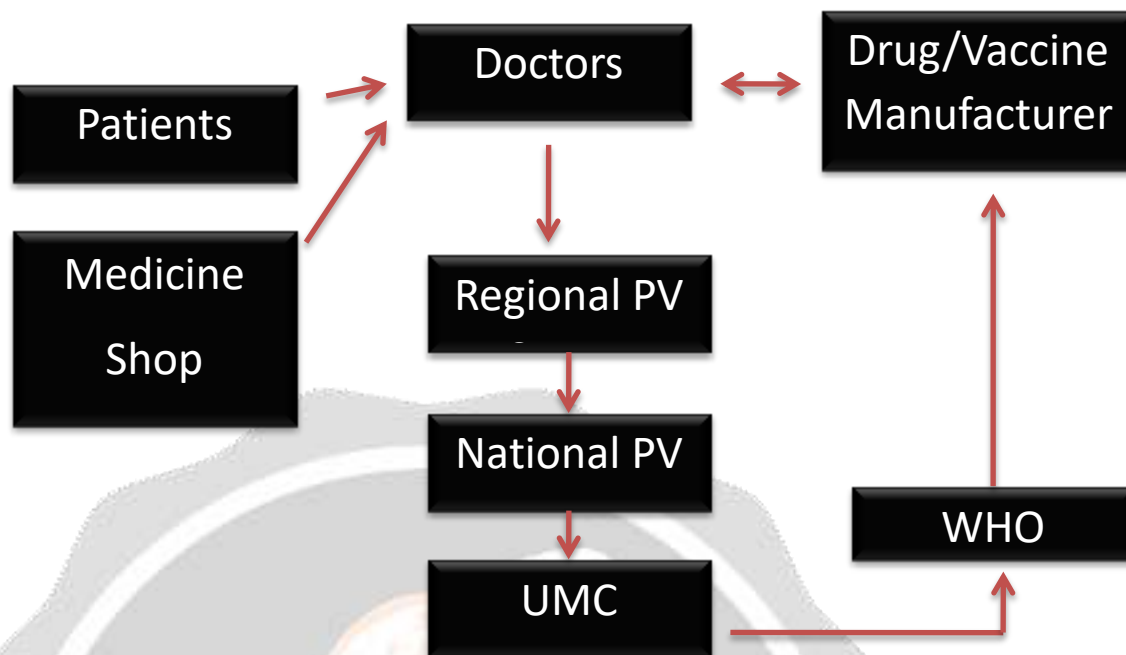


Figure 6: Flow of information among PV centre and global monitoring organisations by using Pharmacovigilance analytical tools^[91].

14. Pharmacoepidemiology Study:

The scientific study of the impact of the usage of prescribed (and non-prescribed, such as over-the-counter) pharmaceuticals within a certain community is known as pharmacoepidemiology. It seeks to analyse any consequences that can be seen, whether they are good or bad for the patient's health. It examines how patients actually utilise the medications, including how doctors prescribe them and how patients take them on a daily basis.

Instead of using statistical studies of small groups of individuals, both fields rely on statistical analyses of huge populations to draw relevant findings. This means that they are used to examine trends in a bigger group of people who might or might not share some common traits rather than the clinical history of almost any one particular patient.

Epidemiology and pharmacoepidemiology are applied to the resulting safety information in order to better appreciate its relevance to patients' actual use of medications, even though it is not the focus of standard pharmacovigilance services. Each "Safety Specification" for a new medicine, which is a component of the Risk Management Plan and summarises what is known, what is unclear, and what information is lacking regarding the medicine's safety profile, includes epidemiology data. One component of a pharmacovigilance service is believed to be the creation of the Risk Management Plan itself.

The Risk Management Plan contains a Pharmacovigilance Plan that strives to fill up the safety knowledge gaps left by clinical trials as well as to give more and sufficient understanding about the known risks connected with a pharmaceutical. Pharmacoepidemiology studies are used to monitor patients over time and determine how they are doing. These studies typically involve registries in large groups of patients getting the medication after marketing. To look into any additional safety signals that might emerge after a drug has been released, other pharmacoepidemiology study types may be performed^[92].

15. Pharmacovigilance In Emergency Healthcare:

The lack of COVID-19 vaccines and medications during the early stages of the pandemic prompted a rush to repurpose medications that had already received approval for use in other situations. As a result, many medications (such as hydroxychloroquine, ivermectin, and azithromycin) have been used off-label to treat COVID-19 patients,

despite the fact that the supporting scientific evidence for their effectiveness was of low quality and primarily based on in vitro research.

In this context, pharmacovigilance monitoring has been essential for recognising the hazards connected to pharmaceuticals used off-label, reminding us of the "do not hurt first" concept, especially if there is little or no proof of benefits. Azithromycin, a commonly prescribed macrolide antibiotic, was employed in this instance to treat COVID-19 patients. Because of its known proarrhythmogenic activity, that can be increased when combined with other medications suggested for treating COVID19 (such as hydroxychloroquine), regulatory bodies have warned against using this medication unless there is a risk of bacterial superinfection.

To combat the COVID-19 pandemic, medicine and vaccine approvals were expedited. This emphasised the requirement to quickly gather safety studies in post-marketing settings by identifying and mitigating major concerns and ultimately assuring patients' safety.

The significance of drug- and vaccine-related crisis communication to healthcare practitioners and patients for informed treatment choice and ease of optimal use of medications/vaccines is another lesson gained from the COVID-19 pandemic. Contrarily, ineffective communication with the public and medical services can result in a loss of lives as well as the reputation and confidence of regulators and other stakeholders. One medication that received a lot of attention for being used to treat COVID-19 is hydroxychloroquine. Despite the fact that its effectiveness has not been established, several well-known people, including former US President Donald J. Trump, have lauded it. As a result, several observational studies found a marked increase in hydroxychloroquine and chloroquine purchases and internet searches after they were endorsed by Donald J. Trump, demonstrating how false information, especially if it comes from people in positions of authority, may increase inappropriate medication use and the danger of serious adverse reactions^[93-97].

16. Artificial Intelligence in Pharmacovigilance

Thanks to aggressive marketing of digital solutions that gather patient-derived data, the amount of healthcare data available has grown significantly over the past few years and will continue to grow in the near future. Massive electronic data sets offer a chance to use artificial intelligence (AI) methods to enhance drug safety evaluation. Clinical research is increasingly relying on information extraction, which gathers pertinent ideas from accessible, mostly unstructured sources utilising natural language processing (NLP) methods and text mining. In terms of pharmacovigilance, text mining and NLP techniques can be very helpful to collect data on ADRs and drug-drug interactions from diverse textual sources, assisting academics and medical professionals in keeping track of the safety of medications. In fact, both governmental and private organisations are working to create AI technologies that will enable the autonomous processing of ADRs.

In pharmacovigilance, machine learning and artificial intelligence may also be helpful for 1) the automatic completion of case report entry and processing tasks, 2) the identification of clusters of adverse events that represent symptoms of syndromes, 3) the conduct of pharmacoepidemiological studies, 4) data connection through the conduct of probabilistic matching within datasets, and 5) the prediction and preventing the spread of adverse events through specific interventions^[98-100].

17. Ecopharmacovigilance

Ecopharmacovigilance, which is defined as "the science and activities concerning detection, evaluations, understanding and prevention of adverse effects or other difficulties related to the presence of medications in the environment, which influence both human and the other animal species," is a crucial component in reducing the risk of pharmaceutical pollutants entering the environment. Pharmaceuticals are common environmental contaminants that can enter the environment through a variety of channels, including patient excretion through the sewage system as parent molecule or active metabolites, manufacturer or hospital releases into waste waters, and terrestrial depositions. Numerous studies have examined how pharmaceutical contamination affects numerous animal species, including fish and vultures. By identifying, evaluating, and preventing unfavourable consequences associated with the presence of medicines in the environment, ecopharmacovigilance plays an increasingly significant role in controlling and minimising the causes of pharmaceutical pollution.

Although the discovered levels of pharmaceuticals in the environment were typically modest (ranging from mg/L to g/L), there are still some potential direct and indirect dangers for humans that need to be closely monitored. It is well recognised that antibiotic exposure may increase bacterial resistance, and that sex hormones exercise their

pharmacological effect at relatively low quantities. Additionally, some demographics including expectant mothers, kids, and elderly patients may be particularly susceptible to low amounts of medication. Therefore, one of the primary current objectives of pharmacovigilance is to address concerns relating to pharmaceutical pollution^[101-104].

18. Future Aspects:

In terms of regulation, advancements have been made recently. However, the effects of these adjustments have not yet materialised, hence it has not yet been if it can be demonstrated that these innovations have improved conduct in pharmacovigilance. To further bolster the case. As a science, pharmacovigilance requires that academics create novel techniques that can improve the current system.

The definition of pharmacovigilance as people currently know it has been about identifying new ADRs and, if essential, implementing the regulatory actions required to safeguard the public's health, such as revising the product's summary of characteristics (SPCs) or removing it from sale. The creation of data that can help a healthcare provider or patient make a decision about whether or not to utilise a drug has not received much attention. Pharmacovigilance has as one of its main objectives the gathering and dissemination of this data. Active surveillance is necessary to receive information about the safety of a drug at an early stage. When developing new methods for active post-marketing surveillance, one has to bear in mind the importance of being able to gather information in a timely manner. Spontaneous reporting has indeed been shown to be a useful tool in generating signals, but the relatively low number of reports received for a specific association makes it less useful in identifying patient characteristics and risk factors that will contribute to the occurrence of an ADR in a certain person. This information is essential when it comes to a healthcare provider recommending whether or not a particular patient should use the drug in question. Additionally, when dealing with an ADR, patients and the treating physician may have queries like: Will this ADR go away? How long will this ADR last? How long till it resolves; what kind of care is required?

The patient's role is gradually evolving. The modern patient is well informed about his illness and want to take an active role in his care, as opposed to being a patient with little power and information. As was already indicated, certain nations have recognised the value of patients as a source for data about adverse drug reactions.

Patients in these nations have the choice to use the spontaneous reporting method to report ADRs. In the future, pharmacovigilance must focus on this group as a source of information in addition to the more conventional groups, such the health professionals, and this patient empowerment will continue.^[105,106]

19. Challenges

Some of the significant obstacles that pharmacovigilance programmes may face over the next 10 years, with a brief explanation of how these trends may affect the development of research.

Here are some crucial ideas to keep in mind going forward that could be enhanced to create better pharmacovigilance procedures:

1. Pharmacovigilance ought to be more concerned with expanding our understanding of safety and less with identifying harm.
2. Formal decision analysis can be used to simplify complex risk-benefit decisions and is likely to do so.
3. Pharmacovigilance should be conducted in a setting that values scientific advancement. This calls for the proper balancing of contributions from many fields, a stronger academic foundation, and more accessibility to fundamental training, and resources that are specifically devoted to scientific strategy.
4. Based on accepted criteria ('excellent pharmacovigilance practise,' comprehensive audit of pharmacovigilance procedures and outcomes should be designed and implemented).

The following are some major obstacles facing pharmacovigilance:

Globalization: The expansion of drug distribution across borders and the greater exposure of huge populations to pharmaceuticals. These include brand-new chemical compounds used to treat symptoms and alter lifestyles, as well as drugs used in underdeveloped nations to reduce the prevalence of pandemic illnesses like HIV/AIDS, malaria, and tuberculosis.

Expanded safety worries: As the variety of pharmaceuticals increases, pharmacovigilance continues to expand in scope. There is an understanding that monitoring, detecting, and evaluating ADRs occurring under precisely defined circumstances and within a defined dose range are only a small part of medication safety. Instead, it is intimately related to societal drug usage habits. Pharmacovigilance deals with issues such as irrational drug use, overdoses, poly-pharmacy & interactions, increased use of traditional and natural medicines in combination with other medications, illegal sales of illicit drugs over the internet, increased use of self-medication, substandard medications, medication errors, and lack of efficacy. In order to appropriately meet this enormous scope, current mechanisms must change.

Attitudes and views on benefits and harms: These shifts have significantly altered how society uses medicines. As previously discussed in the chapters, healthcare practitioners, patients, and the general public have reacted to these shifting trends in various ways. In light of these quick advancements, their perceptions of benefits and harms as well as the acceptable level of risk for medicines have not been taken into meaningful consideration. There has been substantial evidence of the harm that medications produce.

Only recently have industrialised and developing nations begun to realise the importance of drug-induced illness morbidity and death as a public health priority.

Results and Impact: As public concern over the safety of medications grows, so does public scrutiny of the behaviour of the medical community, the pharmaceutical business, and regulatory agencies. More studies on the efficiency of pharmacovigilance and its role in enhancing public perception must follow increased accountability. The improvement of individual therapy, aiding in the identification and management of sickness brought on by medication, and generally resulting in a decrease in iatrogenic diseases must be a key focus. This information must also be made available to patients and health professionals themselves^[106-110].

20. Conclusions:

The challenges offered by the ever-growing variety and strength of drugs, each of which carries an unavoidable and occasionally unanticipated potential for damage, continue to be met in large part by pharmacovigilance.

It is crucial that negative impacts and toxicity are documented, examined, and their significance adequately communicated to the audience with the ability to understand the facts when they do occur, especially when they were previously unknown. There is a trade-off between the potential for good and bad in all medications. By ensuring that medications of good quality, safety, and efficacy are used sensibly and that the patient's expectations and concerns are taken into consideration when therapeutic selections are made, the harm can be reduced. In order to accomplish this, it is necessary to promote public health, ensure that drug use risks are envisioned and managed, provide regulators with the information they need to change the recommendations for the use of the medications, facilitate communication between the public and health professionals, and train health professionals to comprehend the risks associated with drug use.

It is obvious that the creation of these enormous data sources for pharmacovigilance activities in the future presents a chance to benefit from recent developments in deep learning and fault detection. A continuously studying system of artificial intelligence could not only learn to combine these various sources of information for real-time ADR detection, but could also assist in the identification of potential cases and interact with experts in the field of pharmacotherapy to obtain additional data as required. The NIH and FDA must continue funding research that focuses on how to successfully analyse these data streams because the area of pharmacovigilance is rapidly expanding, and the sources we have emphasized are only a part of the solution. The best funding strategies will guarantee interdisciplinary teams of specialists from fields like epidemiology, sociology, analytics, and computer science. Interdisciplinary collaboration will guarantee methodological rigour and institutional buy-in. In the end, medication for everyone will be safer and more effective thanks to the integration of multiple data sources and expertise. Pharmacovigilance is necessary for consistently identifying and linking medications to adverse effects and for taking corrective actions, particularly for the product debuting for the first time in India. Pharmacy monitoring is the only means to guarantee the security of drugs across lifecycle. Its significance is essential since the ability of clinical trials to identify rare and extremely unique ADRs. If every healthcare provider uses ADR reporting as moral duties and their primary responsibility, we may improve the safety of our world this day. Each report submitted by medical practitioners is attention on the serious unlabeled type of ADRs is more crucial, notwithstanding this. After the notion originated, there are major efforts being made on the pharmacovigilance to develop it more functional, and daily. We are nearer to our destination. It is incumbent upon us to make sure the pharmacovigilance system is

effective. ADR reporting is a highly significant obligation; not as an additional clinical burden; by professionals in the healthcare to make sure that drugs are used more safely everywhere.^[124-128]

21. Reference

1. Fulchand Pawar, S., & Limbaji Musale, V. (2020). PHARMACOVIGILANCE: A REVIEW. *International Journal of Advanced Research*, 8(1), 235–243. <https://doi.org/10.21474/ijar01/10289>
2. CSM and MCA, Pharmacovigilance: Current problems in analysis(1996). 1563-1566.
3. Talbot, J. C. C., & Nilsson, B. S. (1998). Pharmacovigilance in the pharmaceutical industry. *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 45(5), 427–431. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1365-2125.1998.00713.x>
4. SIGAR. Pharmacovigilance Education and Certification—Report on a Feasibility Survey. *Pharmacoepi & Drug Safety*. 1995. pp. 305–309.
5. Benyoucef, L., & Grabot, B. (Eds.). (2010). Artificial intelligence techniques for networked manufacturing enterprises management. Springer London. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-84996-119-6>
6. World Health Organization. (2004). Pharmacovigilance : ensuring the safe use of medicines. World Health Organization. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/68782>
7. Harmark L, Van Grootheest AC. Pharmacovigilance: Methods, recent developments and future perspectives. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2008; 64:743-52.
8. Campbell, J., Gossell-Williams, M., & Lee, M. (2015). A review of pharmacovigilance. *West Indian Medical Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.7727/wimj.2013.251>
9. Jeetu, G., & Anusha, G. (2010). Pharmacovigilance: A worldwide master key for drug safety monitoring. *Journal of Young Pharmacists*, 2(3), 315–320. <https://doi.org/10.4103/0975-1483.66802>
10. Fornasier, G., Francescon, S., Leone, R., & Baldo, P. (2018). An historical overview over Pharmacovigilance. *International Journal of Clinical Pharmacy*, 40(4), 744–747. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11096-018-0657-1>
11. Rajkumar Soni, Bikrant Kesari, A review in pharmacovigilance.(2014) 26(2). 237-241.
12. World Health Organization. The importance of pharmacovigilance – safety monitoring of medicinal products. World Health Organization, Geneva, 2002.
13. Ghosh Rupanwita, Bhatia M.S. and Bhattacharya S.K., “ Pharmacovigilance: M aster Key to Drug Safety monitoring and its Status in India”, *Delhi Psychiatry Journal*, 15, October 2012, 412-415.
14. Kulkarni M .D., Baig M .S., Chandaliya K.C., Doifode S.M ., Razvi S.U., Sidhu N.S., “Knowledge, Attitude and Practice of Pharmacovigilance among Prescribers of Government Medical College and Hospital, Aurangabad (Maharashtra), *international journal of pharmacology and therapeutics*, 3, 2013, 10-18
15. Mandal, Subhash. (2017). Evolution of Pharmacovigilance Programme: Present status in India. *Pharmatimes*. 49. 31-36.
16. World Health Organization. (2000). WHO medicines strategy : framework for action in Essential Drugs and Medicines Policy 2000-2003. World Health Organization. <https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/66503>
17. Olsson S. The role of the WHO programme on International Drug Monitoring in coordinating worldwide drug safety efforts. *Drug Saf*. 1998 Jul;19(1):1-10. doi: 10.2165/00002018-199819010-00001. PMID: 9673854.
18. Coulter DM. The New Zealand intensive medicines monitoring programme in pro-active safety surveillance. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*. 2000 Jul;9(4):273-80. doi: 10.1002/1099-1557(200007/08)9:4<273::AID-PDS512>3.0.CO;2-T. PMID: 19025828.
19. Mackay FJ. Post-marketing studies: the work of the Drug Safety Research Unit. *Drug Saf*. 1998 Nov; 19(5):343-53. doi: 10.2165/00002018-199819050-00002. PMID: 9825948.
20. Folb, P. I. (1995). Drug monitoring in developing countries: A drug regulator's perspective. *Drug Information Journal*, 29(1), 303–305. <https://doi.org/10.1177/009286159502900133>
21. Talbot JC, Nilsson BS. Pharmacovigilance in the pharmaceutical industry. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1998;45:427-31.
22. Moore N. The role of the clinical pharmacologist in the management of adverse drug reactions. *Drug Saf*. 2001 Jan; 24(1):1-7. doi: 10.2165/00002018-200124010-00001. PMID: 11219484.

23. Hall M, McCormack P, Arthurs N, Feely J. The spontaneous reporting of adverse drug reactions by nurses. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 1995 Aug; 40(2):173-5. doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2125.1995.tb05774.x. PMID: 8562303; PMCID: PMC1365180.
24. Hornbuckle, K., Wu, H.-H., & Fung, M. C. (1999). Evaluation of spontaneous adverse event reports by primary reporter—a 15-year review (1983 to 1997). *Drug Information Journal*, 33(4), 1117–1124. <https://doi.org/10.1177/009286159903300416>
25. Kesharwani, Vipin & Farooqui, Mohd & Kushwaha, Nikhil & Singh, Ravi & Jaiswal, Pankaj. (2018). AN OVERVIEW ON PHARMACOVIGILANCE: A KEY FOR DRUG SAFETY AND MONITORING. *Journal of Drug Delivery and Therapeutics*. 8. 130-135. 10.22270/jddt.v8i5.1970.
26. World Health Organization. (2004). Pharmacovigilance: ensuring the safe use of medicines. World Health
27. Lalita B. Patil, Swapnil S. Patil, Sarika S. Hubale, Rahul U. Mane, (2015). Pharmacovigilance -a Review, *International Journal of scientific Research in Science and Technology*; 1(3): 25-29.
28. Hosac, A. M. (2002). Drotrecogin alfa (activated): The first fda-approved treatment for severe sepsis. *Baylor University Medical Center Proceedings*, 15(2), 224 227. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08998280.2002.11927844>
29. <http://www.haiweb.org/19072009/19Jul2009IssueFactSheetPharmacovigilance>
30. Coleman JJ, Pontefract SK. Adverse drug reactions. *Clin Med (Lond)*. 2016 Oct;16(5):481-485. doi: 10.7861/clinmedicine.16-5-481. PMID: 27697815; PMCID: PMC6297296.
31. Aronson JK, Ferner RE. Clarification of terminology in drug safety. *Drug Saf*. 2005; 28(10):851-70. doi: 10.2165/00002018-200528100-00003. PMID: 16180936.
32. Rawlins MD, Thompson JW. Pathogenesis of adverse drug reactions. In: Davies DM, ed. *Textbook of adverse drug reactions*. Oxford : Oxford University Press , 1977 : 10
33. Edwards IR, Aronson JK. Adverse drug reactions: definitions, diagnosis, and management. *Lancet*. 2000 Oct 7; 356(9237):1255-9. doi: 10.1016/S0140-6736(00)02799-9. PMID: 11072960.
34. Pirmohamed M, Kitteringham NR, Park BK. The role of active metabolites in drug toxicity. *Drug Saf*. 1994 Aug; 11(2):114-44. doi: 10.2165/00002018-199411020-00006. PMID: 7945999.
35. Masubuchi N, Makino C, Murayama N. Prediction of in vivo potential for metabolic activation of drugs into chemically reactive intermediate: correlation of in vitro and in vivo generation of reactive intermediates and in vitro glutathione conjugate formation in rats and humans. *Chem Res Toxicol*. 2007 Mar; 20(3):455-64. doi: 10.1021/tx060234h. Epub 2007 Feb 20. PMID: 17309281.
36. McDowell, S.E., Coleman, J.J., Ferner, R.E., 2006. Systematic review and meta-analysis of ethnic differences in risks of adverse reactions to drugs used in cardiovascular medicine. *BMJ* 332, 1177–1181. Meigs, J.B., Shrader, P., Sullivan, L.M., McAteer, J.B., Fox, C.S., Dupuis, J., et al, 2008. Genotype score in addition to common risk factors for prediction of type 2 diabetes. *N. Engl. J. Med*. 359, 2208–2219
37. Gurwitz JH, Field TS, Harrold LR, Rothschild J, Debellis K, Seger AC, Cadoret C, Fish LS, Garber L, Kelleher M, Bates DW. Incidence and preventability of adverse drug events among older persons in the ambulatory setting. *JAMA*. 2003 Mar 5; 289(9):1107-16. doi: 10.1001/jama.289.9.1107. PMID: 12622580.
38. Ofotokun I, Pomeroy C. Sex differences in adverse reactions to antiretroviral drugs. *Top HIV Med*. 2003 Mar-Apr; 11(2):55-9. PMID: 12717043.
39. Duncombe D, Wertheim EH, Skouteris H, Paxton SJ, Kelly L. How well do women adapt to changes in their body size and shape across the course of pregnancy? *J Health Psychol*. 2008 May; 13(4):503-15. doi: 10.1177/1359105308088521. PMID: 18420758.
40. Brundage, S.C., 2002. Preconception health care. *Am. Fam. Physician* 65, 2507–2514.
41. Chung CH, Mirakhor B, Chan E, Le QT, Berlin J, Morse M, Murphy BA, Satinover SM, Hosen J, Mauro D, Slebos RJ, Zhou Q, Gold D, Hatley T, Hicklin DJ, Platts-Mills TA. Cetuximab-induced anaphylaxis and IgE specific for galactose-alpha-1,3-galactose. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Mar 13;358(11):1109-17. doi: 10.1056/NEJMoa074943. PMID: 18337601; PMCID: PMC2361129.
42. Yuan R, Venitz J. Effect of chronic renal failure on the disposition of highly hepatically metabolized drugs. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2000 May; 38(5):245-53. doi: 10.5414/cpp38245. PMID: 10839468.
43. Krupski A, Campbell K, Joesch JM, Lucenko BA, Roy-Byrne P. Impact of Access to Recovery services on alcohol/drug treatment outcomes. *J Subst Abuse Treat*. 2009 Dec; 37(4):435-42. doi: 10.1016/j.jsat.2009.05.007. Epub 2009 Jun 24. PMID: 19556095.

44. Grouzmann E, Livio F, Buclin T. Angiotensin-converting enzyme and dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitors: an increased risk of angioedema. *Hypertension*. 2009 Sep; 54(3):468-70. doi: 10.1161/HYPERTENSIONAHA.109.135244. Epub 2009 Jul 6. PMID: 19581503.
45. Rambhade S, Chakarborty A, Shrivastava A, Patil UK, Rambhade A. A survey on polypharmacy and use of inappropriate medications. *Toxicol Int*. 2012 Jan; 19(1):68-73. doi: 10.4103/0971-6580.94506. PMID: 22736907; PMCID: PMC3339249.
46. Hanses F, Zierhut S, Schölmerich J, Salzberger B, Wrede CE. Severe and long lasting cholestasis after high-dose co-trimoxazole treatment for *Pneumocystis pneumonia* in HIV-infected patients--a report of two cases. *Int J Infect Dis*. 2009 Nov;13 (6):e467-9. doi: 10.1016/j.ijid.2008.12.016. Epub 2009 Mar 18. PMID: 19299179.
47. Tiwari, Akhilesh & Joshi, Megha & Kamleshdashora,. (2016). Clinical Trials: A General Review. 22131-22135. 10.15520/ijerr/2016/7/12/215.
48. http://www.temple.edu/pascope/about_trials.htm
49. Available from: URL http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/clinical_trial
50. ICH Harmonized Tripartite Guideline for Good Clinical Practice 'Academy For Clinical Excellence'
51. Amery WK. Signal generation from spontaneous adverse event reports. *Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety*, 1999, 8(2):147-50.
52. Clark JA, Klinecicz SL, Stang PE. Spontaneous adverse event signalling methods: classification and use with health care treatment products. *Epidemiologic Review*, 2001, 23(2):191.
53. Clark JA, Klinecicz SL, Stang PE. Overview – spontaneous signalling. *Pharmacovigilance*, Mann RD, Andrews EB (eds) 247-271.
54. Begaud B et al. False positives in spontaneous reporting: should we worry about them? *British Journal of Clinical Pharmacology*, 1994, 38(5):401-4.
55. Hauben M, Horn S, Reich L. Potential utility of data mining algorithms for the detection of “surprise” adverse drug reactions. *Drug Safety*, 2007, 30(2):143-155.
56. Bright RA, Nelson RC. Automated support for pharmacovigilance: a proposed system. *Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety*, 2002, 11(2):121-5.
57. Report of CIOMS Working Group V. Current challenges in pharmacovigilance: pragmatic approaches. Geneva, CIOMS, 2001.
58. Hauben M, Aronson JK. Gold standards in pharmacovigilance: the use of definitive anecdotal reports of adverse drug reactions as pure gold and high grade ore. *Drug Safety*, 2007, 30(8):645-55.
59. Klepper MJ. The periodic safety report as a pharmacovigilance tool. *Drug Safety*, 2004, 27(8):569-78.
60. Venulet J. Possible strategies for early recognition of potential drug safety problems. *Adverse Drug React. Ac. Pois. Rev*, 1988; 1:39-47
61. ICH E2E Guideline: Pharmacovigilance Planning. 2004.
62. Parker, T., & Haynes, J. H. (1973). Renault 8 and 10 1962-1972/079. Motorbooks Intl.Baggs J et al. Safety profile of smallpox vaccine: Insights from the laboratory worker smallpox vaccination program. *Clinical Infectious Diseases*, 2005, 40(8):1133-1140.
63. Hoffman MA et al. Multijurisdictional approach to biosurveillance, Kansas City. *Emerg Infect Dis*, 2003, 9(10):1281-1286.
64. Ferreira G. Prescription-event monitoring: developments in signal detection. *Drug Safety*, 2007, 30(7):639-641
65. Oosterhuis, Ingrid & Harmark, Linda & van Puijenbroek, Eugene & Grootheest, Kees. (2007). Lareb Intensive Monitoring: An Interim Analysis. *Drug safety : an international journal of medical toxicology and drug experience*. 30. 1021. 10.2165/00002018-200730100-00112.
66. Davis RL, Kolczak M, Lewis E, Nordin J, Goodman M, Shay DK, Platt R, Black S, Shinefield H, Chen RT. Active surveillance of vaccine safety: a system to detect early signs of adverse events. *Epidemiology*. 2005 May; 16(3):336-41. doi: 10.1097/01.ede.0000155506.05636.a4. PMID: 15824549.
67. Brown, J. S., Kulldorff, M., Chan, K. A., Davis, R. L., Graham, D., Pettus, P. T., Andrade, S. E., Raebel, M. A., Herrinton, L., Roblin, D., Boudreau, D., Smith, D., Gurwitz, J. H., Gunter, M. J., & Platt, R. (2007). Early detection of adverse drug events within population-based health networks: Application of sequential testing methods. *Pharmacoepidemiology and Drug Safety*, 16(12), 1275–1284. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pds.1509>

68. Chang, D.F. & Campbell, J.R. J Cataract Refract Surg 31: 664-673, (2005).
69. MCA/CSM Current Problems in Pharmacovigilance. 29: 5, (2003).
70. MCA/CSM Current Problems in Pharmacovigilance. 28: 7, (2002).
71. CA/CSM Current Problems in Pharmacovigilance. 24: 5, (1998).
72. MHRA/CSM Current Problems in Pharmacovigilance. 30:1-2, (2004).
73. Singh, Nouratan. (2015). CURRENT PROBLEMS AND FUTURE PROSPECTIVE OF PHARMACOVIGILANCE IN INDIA. WORLD JOURNAL OF PHARMACY AND PHARMACEUTICAL SCIENCES. 5. 479-489.
74. WHO, Safety monitoring of medicinal products. : Guidelines for good Clinical Practice (GCP) for trials on pharmaceutical products, Geneva, WHO 1995.
75. Olsson S. Pharmacovigilance training with focus on India. Indian J Pharmacol. 2008 Feb;40(Suppl 1):S28-30. PMID: 21369410; PMCID: PMC3038526.
76. WHO., (2006). WHO The Safety of Medicines in Public Health Programmes: Pharmacovigilance an essential tool Geneva 2006. The Safety of Medicines in Public Health Programmes: Pharmacovigilance an essential tool. 61.
77. World Health Organization. (2004). Pharmacovigilance: ensuring the safe use of medicines. World Health Organization.
78. Lu Z. Information technology in pharmacovigilance: Benefits, challenges, and future directions from industry perspectives. Drug Healthc Patient Saf. 2009;1: 35-45. doi: 10.2147/dhps.s7180. Epub 2009 Oct 15. PMID: 21701609; PMCID: PMC3108683.
79. Ioannidis JP, Lau J. Completeness of safety reporting in randomized trials: An evaluation of 7 medical areas. JAMA. 2001; 285: 437-43.
80. van Grootheest K, Olsson S, Couper M, de Jong-van den Berg L. Pharmacists' role in reporting adverse drug reactions in an international perspective. Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf. 2004 Jul; 13(7):457-64. doi: 10.1002/pds.897. PMID: 15269929.
81. van Grootheest K, de Jong-van den Berg L. Patients' role in reporting adverse drug reactions. Expert Opin Drug Saf. 2004 Jul; 3(4):363-8. doi: 10.1517/14740338.3.4.363. PMID: 15268652.
82. Edwards IR. Spontaneous reporting--of what? Clinical concerns about drugs. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 1999 Aug; 48(2):138-41. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2125.1999.00000.x.
83. Hazell L, Shakir SA. Under-reporting of adverse drug reactions: a systematic review. Drug Saf. 2006; 29(5):385-96. doi: 10.2165/00002018-200629050-00003. PMID: 16689555.
84. Eland IA, Belton KJ, van Grootheest AC, Meiners AP, Rawlins MD, Stricker BH. Attitudinal survey of voluntary reporting of adverse drug reactions. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 1999 Oct; 48(4):623-7. doi: 10.1046/j.1365-2125.1999.00060.x. PMID: 10583035; PMCID: PMC2014371.
85. Van Grootheest AC, Passier JL, van Puijenbroek EP. Meldingen van bijwerkingen rechtstreeks door patiënten: gunstige ervaringen van het eerste jaar [Direct reporting of side effects by the patient: favourable experience in the first year]. Ned Tijdschr Geneesk. 2005 Mar 5; 149(10):529-33. Dutch. PMID: 15782689.
86. Shakir SAW (2007) PEM in the UK. In: Mann R, Andrews E (eds) Pharmacovigilance, 2nd edn. Wiley, Chichester
87. European Commission Enterprise and Industry Directorate-general (2007) Strategy to better protect public health by strengthening and rationalising EU pharmacovigilance. European Commission Enterprise and Industry, Brussels.
88. Domínguez Carrillo, L. G., & Domínguez Gasca, L. G. (2021). Síndrome del tendón Del peroneo largo por lesión del Os peroneum. Acta Médica Grupo Ángeles, 19(1), 128-129. <https://doi.org/10.35366/98583>
89. Maria Delaney, Improving pharmacovigilance through direct patient reporting, Cancerworld, March / April 2017. 77:28-32.
90. Barton L. Cobert, MD. (2007). Manual of Drug Safety and Pharmacovigilance. Massachusetts: Jones and Bartlett.
91. Sultana, J., Cutroneo, P. M., Crisafulli, S., Puglisi, G., Caramori, G., and Trifirò, G. (2020b). Azithromycin in COVID-19 Patients: Pharmacological Mechanism, Clinical Evidence and Prescribing Guidelines. Drug Saf. 43 (8), 691-698. doi:10.1007/s40264-020-00976-7
92. Crisafulli S, Ientile V, L'Abbate L, Fontana A, Linguiti C, Manna S, Mercaldo M, Pagliaro C, Vezzaro M, Santacà K, Lora R, Moretti U, Reno C, Fantini MP, Corrao S, Barbato D, Tari M, Trifirò G, The Ita-Covid Cov-Out Group. COVID-19 Patient Management in Outpatient Setting: A

- Population-Based Study from Southern Italy. *J Clin Med*. 2021 Dec 23;11(1):51. doi: 10.3390/jcm11010051. PMID: 35011810; PMCID: PMC8745524.
93. Sultana J, Crisafulli S, Gabbay F, Lynn E, Shakir S and Trifirò G (2020) Challenges for Drug Repurposing in the COVID-19 Pandemic Era. *Front. Pharmacol*. 11:588654. doi: 10.3389/fphar.2020.588654
 94. World Health Organization (2020). Risk Communication and Community Engagement Readiness and Response to Coronavirus Disease (COVID-19). Available at: <file:///C:/Users/Farmacologia/Downloads/WHO-2019-nCoVRCCE-2020.2-eng.pdf>.
 95. Liu M, Caputi TL, Dredze M, Kesselheim AS, Ayers JW. Internet Searches for Unproven COVID-19 Therapies in the United States. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2020 Aug 1;180(8):1116-1118. doi: 10.1001/jamainternmed.2020.1764. PMID: 32347895; PMCID: PMC7191468.
 96. Wong, A., Plasek, J. M., Montecalvo, S. P., and Zhou, L. (2018). Natural Language Processing and its Implications for the Future of Medication Safety: A Narrative Review of Recent Advances and Challenges. *Pharmacotherapy* 38 (8), 822–841. doi:10.1002/phar.2151
 97. Basile, A. O., Yah, A., and Tatonetti, N. P. (2019). Artificial Intelligence for Drug Toxicity and Safety. *Trends Pharmacol. Sci*. 40 (9), 624–635. doi:10.1016/j.tips. 2019.07.005
 98. Bate, A., and Hobbiger, S. F. (2021). Artificial Intelligence, Real-World Automation and the Safety of Medicines. *Drug Saf*. 44 (2), 125–132. doi:10.1007/s40264-020-01001-7
 99. Holm G, Snape JR, Murray-Smith R, Talbot J, Taylor D, Sörme P. Implementing ecopharmacovigilance in practice: challenges and potential opportunities. *Drug Saf*. 2013 Jul;36(7):533-46. doi: 10.1007/s40264-013-0049-3.
 100. Wang J, He B, Yan D, Hu X. Implementing ecopharmacovigilance (EPV) from a pharmacy perspective: A focus on non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs. *Sci Total Environ*. 2017 Dec 15;603-604:772-784. doi: 10.1016/j.scitotenv.2017.02.209. Epub 2017 Apr 6.
 101. Velo, G., Moretti, U. Ecopharmacovigilance for Better Health. *Drug-Safety* 33, 963–968 (2010). <https://doi.org/10.2165/11539380-000000000-00000>
 102. Trifirò G and Crisafulli S (2022) A New Era of Pharmacovigilance: Future Challenges and Opportunities. *Front. Drug. Saf. Regul*. 2:866898. doi: 10.3389/fdsfr.2022.866898
 103. Pirmohamed M, Park BK (2001) Genetic susceptibility to adverse drug reactions. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 22:298–305.
 104. Härmark, L., van Grootheest, A.C. Pharmacovigilance: methods, recent developments and future perspectives. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 64, 743–752 (2008). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00228-008-0475-9>
 105. Sleath B, Svarstad B, Roter D. Physician motivation for non-scientific drug prescribing. *Soc Sci Med* 1997;44:541-8.
 106. Vaccine safety. Vaccine Safety Advisory Committee. *Wkly Epidemiol Rec* 1999;74:337-40.
 107. Pandemic pharmacovigilance weekly update Status. 2009. Available from: <http://www.ema.europa.eu/pdfs/influenza/78468109en.pdf>.
 108. Medical Tribunal of New South Wales Archived 20 September 2009 at the Wayback Machine.
 109. Dr. McBride hails end of the affair –“The Australian”.
 110. Carol Ballentine, Sulfanilamide Disaster, *FDA Consumer magazine*, June 1981 Issue.
 111. Lazarou J, Pomeranz BH, Corey PN. Incidence of adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients: a meta-analysis of prospective studies. *JAMA*. 1998;279:1200–1205.
 112. Gyllenstein H, Hakkarainen KM, Hägg S, et al. Economic impact of adverse drug events—a retrospective population-based cohort study of 4970 adults. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:e92061.
 113. Türkiye İlaç ve Tıbbi Cihaz Kurumu Türkiye Farmakovijilans Merkezi internet sayfası [Turkish Medicines and Medical Devices Agency Turkish Pharmacovigilance Center. web page] [April 2018].
 114. Santosh KC, Tragulpiankit P, Gorsanan S, et al. Attitudes among healthcare professionals to the reporting of adverse drug reactions in Nepal. *BMC Pharmacol Toxicol*. 2013;14:16.
 115. Evans SJ Waller PC, Davis S. Use of proportional reporting ratios (PRRs) for signal generation from spontaneous adverse drug reaction reports. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2001;10:483–6. doi:10.1002/pds.677
 116. Formica D, Sultana J, Cutroneo PM, Lucchesi S, Angelica R, Crisafulli S, *et al*. The economic burden of preventable adverse drug reactions: A systematic review of observational studies. *Expert Opin Drug Saf* 2018;17:681-95.

117. Fernandes SD, Anoop NV, Castelino LJ, Charyulu RN. A national approach to pharmacovigilance: The case of India as a growing hub of global clinical trials. *Res Social Adm Pharm* 2019;15:109-13.
118. Pierce CE, de Vries ST, Bodin-Parssinen S, Härmark L, Tregunno P, Lewis DJ, *et al.* Recommendations on the use of mobile applications for the collection and communication of pharmaceutical product safety information: Lessons from IMI WEB-RADR. *Drug Saf* 2019;42:477-89.
119. Panda A, Pradhan S, Mohapatra G, Mohapatra J. Drug-related problems associated with self-medication and medication guided by prescription: A pharmacy-based survey. *Indian J Pharmacol* 2016;48:515-21.
120. Fernandes SD, Anoop NV, Castelino LJ, Charyulu RN. A national approach to pharmacovigilance: The case of India as a growing hub of global clinical trials. *Res Social Adm Pharm* 2019;15:109-13.
121. Reported adverse drug reactions in women and men: aggregated evidence from globally collected individual case reports during half a century. *EClinicalMedicine*. 2019; 17100188
122. Guidelines for Good Pharmacoeconomics, , International Society for Pharmacoeconomics, 2004 (http://www.pharmacoeconomics.org/resources/guidelines_08027.cfm)
123. Strom BL (ed), 2000, *Pharmacoeconomics*, 3rd edition, Chichester: John Wiley and Sons, Ltd; Hartzema AG, Porta M, and Tilson HH (eds), 1998, *Pharmacoeconomics: An Introduction*, 3rd edition, Cincinnati, OH: Harvey Whitney Books.
124. Ioannidis JP, Lau J. Completeness of safety reporting in randomized trials: An evaluation of 7 medical areas. *JAMA* 2001;285:437-43.
125. Waller PC, Wood SM, Langman MJ, Breckenridge AM, Rawlins MD. Review of company postmarketing surveillance studies. *BMJ* 1992;304:1470-2.
126. U.S. FDA, Guidance for Industry Good Pharmacovigilance Practices. and Pharmacoeconomic Assessment, Center for Drug Evaluation and Research and Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research, Rockville, MD, March 2005.
127. Phillips KA, Veenstra DL, Oren E, Potential role of pharmacogenomics in reducing adverse drug reactions: A systematic review, *JAMA*, 2001, 4:2270-2279.
128. Mandal, S. C.; Mandal, M. Evolution of Pharmacovigilance Programme : Present Status in India Evolution of Pharmacovigilance Programme : Present Status in India. 2017, No. June.