

A Review Article on Global Pharmacovigilance: Meeting International Requirement for Drug Safety and Surveillance

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ABSTRACT

Global pharmacovigilance has emerged as a cornerstone of public health, ensuring the safe and effective use of medicinal products worldwide. As the pharmaceutical landscape expands, with increasing cross-border drug distribution and complex supply chains, the importance of harmonized and robust pharmacovigilance systems has never been greater. This abstract explores the evolving global frameworks and international requirements aimed at enhancing drug safety and post-marketing surveillance.

Key regulatory bodies such as the World Health Organization (WHO), the International Council for Harmonisation (ICH), the European Medicines Agency (EMA), and the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) have established rigorous pharmacovigilance standards to monitor adverse drug reactions (ADRs), detect safety signals, and minimize risks. These standards include the implementation of ICH E2E guidelines, Periodic Safety Update Reports (PSURs), Risk Management Plans (RMPs), and real-time signal detection systems. Furthermore, the increasing reliance on electronic health records, big data analytics, and artificial intelligence is revolutionizing the detection of drug-related safety issues across diverse populations. Global harmonization efforts, such as the establishment of the WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring and the use of platforms like VigiBase, are enhancing data sharing and collaboration among national regulatory authorities. However, challenges persist, including disparities in regulatory capacity, underreporting of ADRs, and the need for standardized methodologies across regions. Ultimately, achieving global drug safety requires continuous international cooperation, capacity building, and the integration of emerging technologies into pharmacovigilance practices. Strengthening these systems will protect patients, support regulatory decision-making, and foster trust in therapeutic innovations.

Keywords: Pharmacovigilance, Drug safety, Adverse Drug Reactions (ADRs), Regulatory authorities, International Council for Harmonisation (ICH), Risk Management Plans (RMPs), Electronic health records

I. INTRODUCTION

Pharmacovigilance refers to the science and activities related to the detection, assessment, understanding, and prevention of adverse drug reactions (ADRs) and other drug-related problems. Derived from the words “pharmaco” (medicine) and “vigilance” (watchfulness), pharmacovigilance emphasizes the importance of continuous monitoring of medicines after their release into the market. Although clinical trials are critical for establishing the efficacy and safety of drugs, they are limited in scope. Trials are conducted in controlled environments, typically involving a restricted patient population, and may not reveal all potential adverse effects. Once drugs are used in real-world settings, factors such as age, comorbidities, polypharmacy, and genetic diversity can lead to unexpected drug reactions or interactions. Post-marketing surveillance allows for the timely detection of such ADRs, helping to prevent patient harm, inform clinical practices, and guide regulatory decisions. In some cases, this may result in updated labeling, restricted usage, or withdrawal of drugs from the market. The overarching aim of pharmacovigilance is to optimize the benefit-risk balance of medications and uphold public health. The formalization of pharmacovigilance began in response to historical tragedies, most notably the thalidomide incident of the 1960s. Marketed as a sedative for pregnant women, thalidomide led to thousands of birth defects, exposing major gaps in drug safety systems. This led to global reforms, including the establishment of the World Health Organization’s (WHO) Programme for International Drug Monitoring (PIDM) in 1968. This initiative laid the foundation for modern pharmacovigilance by

encouraging global collaboration in ADR reporting and analysis. Subsequent decades have seen the development of structured guidelines, such as the ICH E2E guidelines in 2004, and the growing role of digital tools including electronic health records, big data analytics, and artificial intelligence. These advancements have revolutionized pharmacovigilance by enabling more rapid and accurate detection of safety signals.[1]

1.1 The Role of Pharmacovigilance in Public Health

1.1.1 Monitoring and Ensuring Drug Safety

Pharmacovigilance is essential for the identification and mitigation of ADRs after a drug enters the market. By collecting reports from healthcare professionals, patients, and pharmaceutical companies, it enables the continuous assessment of drug safety in diverse, real-world populations. Regulatory authorities may issue updated warnings, change dosage recommendations, or withdraw unsafe drugs based on these findings.

1.1.2 Promoting Rational Use of Medicines

Through data-driven analysis, pharmacovigilance promotes evidence-based medicine. It educates healthcare providers and the public about medication risks and benefits, discouraging inappropriate use. This reduces adverse outcomes, drug resistance, and treatment failures—key priorities in maintaining public health.

1.2 International Pharmacovigilance Networks

1.2.1 WHO and the Role of the Uppsala Monitoring Centre (UMC)

The WHO's PIDM is the cornerstone of global pharmacovigilance. Its operational arm, the Uppsala Monitoring Centre (UMC) in Sweden, maintains a global ADR database (VigiBase) and supports over 140 countries in collecting and analyzing safety data. UMC develops methodologies for signal detection and provides training and technical resources to national regulatory authorities. Its efforts promote international cooperation, standardization, and shared vigilance in drug safety.

1.2.2 Collaboration with National Regulatory Agencies

National regulatory agencies such as the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the European Medicines Agency (EMA), and Health Canada work closely with international bodies like the WHO and ICH. These agencies gather ADR

data domestically and contribute to global databases.[2]

1.3 Pharmacovigilance Frameworks Across the Globe

1.3.1 Differences and Similarities in Regional Regulations

Although pharmacovigilance is a global concern, regional practices differ due to variations in healthcare infrastructure, legislation, and reporting capacity.

- **Europe:** The EMA governs drug safety across the EU, using a centralized system called EudraVigilance. It operates under the EU Pharmacovigilance Legislation, ensuring consistent ADR monitoring across member states.
- **United States:** The FDA manages the Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS) and the MedWatch program. These systems allow voluntary ADR reporting and play a central role in post-market safety surveillance.
- **Asia:** Practices vary by country. Japan, China, and India have established pharmacovigilance programs, but challenges like underreporting and limited resources persist in some areas.

1.3.2 International Efforts to Harmonize Standards (e.g., ICH, ICH E2E)

The International Council for Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH) has been instrumental in developing globally accepted pharmacovigilance guidelines. The ICH E2E guidance, introduced in 2004, standardized ADR reporting, risk management, and signal detection processes across regulatory jurisdictions.

Additionally, the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS) collaborates with the WHO and other stakeholders to produce pharmacovigilance methodologies and guidance, further promoting global consistency in drug safety monitoring.

2.1 Overview of Global Regulatory Bodies

Effective pharmacovigilance is underpinned by the operations of national and international regulatory bodies. These institutions are tasked with collecting ADR reports, conducting risk-benefit assessments, enforcing regulatory actions, and fostering international collaboration.

2.1.1 World Health Organization (WHO)

The WHO plays a leading role in global drug safety. In 1968, it launched the **Programme for International Drug Monitoring (PIDM)** to support countries in collecting and analyzing ADR data. The **Uppsala Monitoring Centre (UMC)** in Sweden, as the WHO's operational arm, maintains **VigiBase**, the world's largest ADR database. Through technical support, guideline development, and global coordination, the WHO strengthens national pharmacovigilance capabilities, particularly in low- and middle-income countries.[3]

2.1.2 European Medicines Agency (EMA)

The EMA oversees the safety of medicines across the European Union. Its **Pharmacovigilance Risk Assessment Committee (PRAC)** monitors the safety profile of drugs and recommends regulatory actions. The **EudraVigilance** database enables the centralized collection of ADR data from EU member states, allowing for robust signal detection and rapid response to emerging safety concerns. The EMA ensures that pharmacovigilance activities are integrated into the broader regulatory framework, including drug authorization and labeling updates.

2.1.3 Food and Drug Administration (FDA)

The FDA, through its **Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER)**, leads drug safety regulation in the United States. Its **FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS)** collects ADR data from diverse stakeholders. The FDA utilizes this data to identify safety signals and take necessary actions such as black box warnings or product withdrawals. It also provides pharmacovigilance guidance through its **Guidance for Industry** documents, supporting consistent safety monitoring across the pharmaceutical sector.[4]

2.2 International Guidelines for Drug Safety

To ensure consistency in pharmacovigilance, international organizations have established guidelines that promote harmonized drug safety practices globally. These guidelines offer standardized methodologies for ADR reporting, signal detection, and risk management.

2.3 International Conference on Harmonisation (ICH)

The ICH is a strategic partnership between regulatory authorities and the pharmaceutical industry aimed at standardizing drug development and regulatory processes across major markets, including the EU, Japan, and the U.S.

The **ICH E2E Pharmacovigilance Guidelines**, introduced in 2004, provide a comprehensive framework for ADR monitoring and signal management. These guidelines outline expectations for the collection, assessment, and reporting of safety data, as well as procedures for implementing risk mitigation strategies. Importantly, they emphasize pharmacovigilance throughout the drug lifecycle—from clinical trials to post-approval monitoring—ensuring that safety data informs regulatory decisions and public health strategies.

2.4 WHO Guidelines and Good Pharmacovigilance Practices (GVP)

The WHO's **Good Pharmacovigilance Practices (GVP)** provide a foundational framework for national pharmacovigilance systems, especially in countries with developing regulatory infrastructures. Key areas covered by the WHO GVP include:

- **ADR Reporting:** Procedures for healthcare professionals, patients, and pharmaceutical companies to report suspected ADRs.
- **Signal Detection:** Tools and methodologies to identify emerging safety signals.
- **Risk Management:** Strategies to assess and minimize drug-related risks to patients.

3.1 National vs. International Pharmacovigilance Systems

3.1.1 Centralized vs. Decentralized Approaches

Pharmacovigilance systems can be broadly categorized into centralized and decentralized models:

- **Centralized Systems** feature a single national agency responsible for collecting, analyzing, and responding to ADR reports. Countries such as the United States and members of the European Union exemplify this approach through agencies like the FDA and EMA. Centralized systems offer streamlined data management and consistent decision-making.[5]
- **Decentralized Systems**, on the other hand, involve multiple agencies or institutions

handling pharmacovigilance independently. This model is common in countries with less centralized healthcare governance. In some Asian nations, for example, individual authorities collect and manage ADR data while still engaging with international partners like the WHO.

Examples of National Systems

- **FAERS (FDA, USA):** The FDA Adverse Event Reporting System collects reports from healthcare professionals, consumers, and industry. This data supports regulatory decisions, including label updates and drug withdrawals.
- **EudraVigilance (EMA, EU):** Managed by the European Medicines Agency, this system enables the collection and evaluation of ADR reports across EU member states. It also supports the analysis of clinical trial data.
- **Canada Vigilance (Health Canada):** This system collects ADR reports from various stakeholders and provides public access to safety data to promote transparency and informed decision-making.
- **TGA ADR Reporting (Australia):** The Therapeutic Goods Administration monitors ADRs through voluntary reporting and collaborates with international partners for shared learning.

3.2 Adverse Drug Reaction (ADR) Monitoring

3.2.1 Types of ADRs: Serious vs. Non-Serious

ADRs are classified based on their severity:

- **Serious ADRs** include those leading to death, life-threatening conditions, hospitalization, disability, congenital anomalies, or other medically significant events. These reactions often require immediate regulatory action.
- **Non-Serious ADRs** are milder side effects that do not significantly impact health, such as nausea or dizziness. While less critical, they still provide valuable data for long-term safety monitoring.

Methods for Detecting and Analyzing ADRs

Several complementary strategies are employed to detect and understand ADRs:

- **Spontaneous Reporting Systems:** These systems collect voluntary reports of ADRs, offering early warnings of unexpected events. Examples include FAERS and EudraVigilance.
- **Active Surveillance:** Unlike passive methods, active surveillance proactively monitors

patient data through systems like the **Sentinel Initiative** in the U.S., offering more comprehensive safety data.[6]

- **Targeted Epidemiological Studies:** These include cohort studies, case-control studies, and randomized trials aimed at investigating specific safety concerns identified during preliminary pharmacovigilance.

3.3 Signal Detection and Causality Assessment

3.3.1 Statistical Methods in Signal Detection

Signal detection helps identify potentially harmful ADR patterns that may not have been evident during clinical trials. Key techniques include:

- **Disproportionality Analysis:** This statistical method compares the observed frequency of a specific ADR for a drug with the expected frequency across the database. Common metrics include:
 - **Reporting Odds Ratio (ROR)**
 - **Proportional Reporting Ratio (PRR)**

While useful, these methods cannot establish causality and may be affected by biases in reporting.

Techniques for Establishing Causality

Establishing causality between a drug and an adverse event is crucial. Common tools include:

- **The Naranjo Algorithm:** A scoring system that uses structured clinical questions to assess the likelihood that a drug caused a reported ADR.[7]
- **Modified Koch's Postulates:** Adapted for pharmacovigilance to establish cause-effect relationships in drug safety, although traditionally used in microbiology.
- **Case Series and Cohort Studies:** Epidemiological methods offer stronger evidence by comparing ADR incidence in users versus non-users of a drug.

3.4 Post-Market Surveillance and Risk Management

3.4.1 Risk-Benefit Analysis After Market Approval

Post-market surveillance ensures that drugs remain safe and effective. **Risk-benefit analysis** involves:

1. **Monitoring ADR Frequency:** Ongoing collection of safety data through reporting systems and clinical follow-up.
2. **Identifying Risk Groups:** Recognizing populations more vulnerable to ADRs (e.g., elderly, pregnant women).

3. **Reevaluating Efficacy:** Periodically reviewing the therapeutic benefits to ensure they still justify the risks.

If the risks are found to outweigh the benefits, regulatory actions may include label revisions, usage restrictions, or product withdrawals.[8]

3.4.2 Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategies (REMS)

The FDA's **REMS program** ensures that high-risk drugs are used safely. REMS tools may include:

- **Restricted Distribution:** Limiting dispensing to certain certified pharmacies or hospitals.
- **Ongoing Monitoring:** Requiring periodic testing or follow-up for patients.
- **Patient Education:** Providing safety guides and consent forms to help patients understand potential risks.

4.1. Data Collection and Reporting Challenges

4.1.1 Underreporting and Reporting Biases

Underreporting of adverse drug reactions (ADRs) remains a major limitation in pharmacovigilance. Most ADRs go unreported, especially in voluntary reporting systems where healthcare professionals, patients, and companies are encouraged—but not required—to submit information.[9]

Key factors contributing to underreporting include:

- **Lack of awareness:** Healthcare providers may not recognize ADRs or may undervalue their significance.
- **Time constraints:** Physicians often lack the time to report every suspected ADR in busy clinical settings.
- **Fear of litigation:** Legal liability concerns may discourage providers from reporting serious ADRs.
- **Perceived triviality:** Mild ADRs, such as headaches or minor gastrointestinal issues, may not be reported despite their potential importance.
- **Patient reluctance:** Patients may fail to report symptoms, especially if they don't associate them with their medications or are unaware of reporting channels.[10]

4.1.2 Variability in Global Reporting Practices

International differences in pharmacovigilance reporting standards create inconsistencies in the quality and completeness of global safety data. While some countries mandate ADR reporting, others rely on voluntary submissions. Additionally, standards for what qualifies as a "serious" ADR and the required timelines for reporting vary significantly.

Contributing factors to variability include:

- Inadequate infrastructure or technology, particularly in low-income countries.
- Lack of trained personnel or awareness of pharmacovigilance systems.
- Cultural barriers and mistrust of healthcare institutions that may discourage patient reporting.[11]

5.1 Regulatory and Compliance Barriers

5.1.1 Divergent Regulatory Standards

A major barrier to effective global pharmacovigilance is the lack of harmonization in drug safety regulations across countries. For instance, the U.S. FDA and the European Medicines Agency (EMA) have differing definitions and timelines for reporting ADRs, even for the same pharmaceutical product. These discrepancies create **administrative complexity and increased costs** for pharmaceutical companies operating in multiple jurisdictions. Despite efforts by the **International Council for Harmonisation (ICH)** to standardize regulatory expectations, true global alignment remains out of reach.

5.1.2 Compliance Gaps in Low-Resource Settings

In many low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), the lack of infrastructure and trained personnel poses a serious challenge to pharmacovigilance compliance. These countries often struggle with:

- Inadequate or non-existent ADR reporting systems.
- Poor internet and telecommunications infrastructure.
- Limited funding and government support.[12]

6.1 Global Harmonization Efforts and Their Limitations

6.1.1 Difficulties in Aligning International Safety Standards

Efforts to harmonize pharmacovigilance standards have made progress, but challenges persist. The ICH and the WHO's Programme for International Drug Monitoring promote unified reporting systems and safety criteria. However, adoption is inconsistent due to differences in healthcare systems, legal frameworks, and public health priorities. Countries such as China, India, and Brazil have their own regulatory agencies and often operate semi-independently of ICH guidance. This leads to **fragmented surveillance**, where safety data is siloed and difficult to integrate at the global level.[13]

6.1.2 Regulatory Conflicts Between Regions

Conflicts between national and regional regulatory agencies further complicate pharmacovigilance. There have been notable instances where regulatory decisions about a drug's safety diverge—for example, one agency withdraws a drug while another allows its continued use. These inconsistencies:

- Erode public trust in drug safety oversight.
- Confuse healthcare providers and patients.
- Complicate compliance for multinational pharmaceutical companies.

7.1 Emerging Issues in Pharmacovigilance

7.1.1 The Rise of Personalized Medicine

Personalized medicine is transforming healthcare by tailoring treatments to individual genetic and biological profiles. While promising, this approach presents new pharmacovigilance challenges:

- **Genetic variability:** Patients metabolize drugs differently, increasing variability in ADR types and frequencies.
- **Small patient populations:** Many personalized treatments are used by niche populations, making it harder to detect rare ADRs in clinical trials.
- **Drug-drug interactions:** Personalized therapies often involve multiple concurrent treatments, raising the risk of unanticipated interactions.

7.1.2 Monitoring Biologics and Biosimilars

Biologics and biosimilars add complexity to pharmacovigilance due to their intricate manufacturing processes and potential for immunogenicity—adverse immune responses not typically seen with traditional small-molecule drugs.[14]

Challenges include:

- Detecting subtle differences between biosimilars and reference biologics.
- Monitoring for immune-related ADRs that may manifest only after long-term use.
- Tracking patients switching between products, which can obscure the source of an ADR.

8.1 Technological Advances in Drug Safety Surveillance

8.1.1 AI, Machine Learning, and Big Data in Pharmacovigilance

Emerging technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML), and big data analytics are revolutionizing pharmacovigilance by offering new ways to detect, analyze, and respond to adverse drug reactions (ADRs). Traditional methods, which depend heavily on manual analysis of case reports and retrospective data, often fall short in identifying early safety signals, especially in an age of personalized and biologic therapies. Big data platforms further enhance pharmacovigilance by integrating diverse sources—including EHRs, clinical trials, insurance claims, and patient-generated data from wearables. Predictive analytics can forecast potential ADRs before they become widespread, enabling proactive risk mitigation.[15]

8.1.2 Leveraging Electronic Health Records (EHRs) for Real-Time Monitoring

Electronic health records (EHRs) are becoming a vital tool in real-time pharmacovigilance. With their ability to provide comprehensive, longitudinal clinical data, EHRs allow regulators and healthcare professionals to monitor drug safety across diverse patient populations. Despite these advantages, interoperability remains a significant hurdle. The variation in EHR systems across countries and healthcare institutions makes data integration challenging. Ensuring patient privacy and obtaining informed consent for data use will also be critical moving forward.[16]

II. CONCLUSION

Global pharmacovigilance is increasingly vital to safeguarding public health, ensuring that the therapeutic advantages of medicines continue to outweigh potential risks. As the pharmaceutical industry becomes more globalized and healthcare systems interlinked, the demand for unified, high-functioning pharmacovigilance frameworks that align with international safety standards has never been greater. Effective drug safety monitoring

depends on the combined efforts of regulatory authorities, healthcare professionals, the pharmaceutical industry, and patients through timely adverse event reporting, data interpretation, and collaborative decision-making.

However, persistent challenges—such as the underreporting of adverse drug reactions, varying regulatory requirements across regions, and limited surveillance infrastructure in developing nations—continue to obstruct progress. Overcoming these barriers requires harmonization of reporting systems, investment in training and infrastructure, and the active involvement of patients in safety initiatives. Advanced technologies like AI, big data, and machine learning are increasingly instrumental in enhancing the speed and accuracy of detecting drug-related risks across diverse populations. The COVID-19 pandemic emphasized the urgent need for flexible, resilient pharmacovigilance mechanisms that can respond rapidly during public health crises. It showcased the benefits of international cooperation, real-time surveillance systems, and transparent communication with the public. Moving forward, the success of global pharmacovigilance will depend on greater cross-border cooperation, integration of advanced digital tools, and a stronger emphasis on patient engagement. Harmonizing global policies and strengthening surveillance capabilities are essential not only for regulatory compliance but also for ensuring the continued safety and wellbeing of populations around the world.

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