Pharmacovigilance Systems in Five Asian Countries

Comparative Analysis

Nepal
Bangladesh
Thailand
Cambodia
Philippines

USAID
SIAPS
Systems for Improved Access to Pharmaceuticals and Services
Comparative Analysis of Pharmacovigilance Systems in Five Asian Countries

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SEPTEMBER 2013
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Key Words
Pharmacovigilance, medicine safety, post-marketing surveillance, quality control, quality assurance, medicine information, medication error, treatment failure, regulatory system

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Foreword

Bangladesh

Pharmacovigilance is not a new concept in Bangladesh. As known, it is not about the medicines but the value it places for health, welfare and safety of any patients in the healthcare systems; yet the importance and attention given to it by the authorities has not been significant over the years. We are thankful to MSH/SIAPS program for this assessment report which has provided us with important and valuable recommendations to identify areas and take initiatives. Taking from the recommendations; important measures have been taken to strengthen the Adverse Drug Reaction Monitoring (ADRM) cell and the Adverse Drug Reaction Advisory Committee (ADRAC), as a result of which now Bangladesh has launched the National Pharmacovigilance Program and the national regulatory authority, the Directorate General of Drug Administration (DGDA) has been recognized as the National Pharmacovigilance Center by the Ministry of Health and Family Welfare (MOHFW). This is just the beginning, we strive to learn from our experience and undertake corrective actions to improve. All these efforts could not be accomplished without the active technical assistance of MSH/SIAPS program and financial assistance from USAID.

Major General Md. Jahangir Hossain Mollik
Director General
23 SEP 2013
Directorate General of Drug Administration (DGDA)
Dhaka, Bangladesh

Cambodia

The practice of pharmacovigilance as a systematic method to ensure patient safety is relatively new for Cambodia in which most health professionals trained in Cambodia are not yet familiar with the subject and concept of PV. A national pharmacovigilance system was established in 2008, following establishment of the Cambodian PV Center in 2008, revision of the National Medicine Policy to include medicine safety statements in 2010, and introduction of the national PV guidelines in 2012 to improve medicine safety monitoring in Cambodia within both the public and private sectors, including formation of the Cambodian PV Center. This significant milestone represented an important first step to establishing a comprehensive PV system within the Cambodia health system to systematically monitor, record, and share adverse drug events (ADEs) and adverse drug reactions (ADRs) occurring in the country.

The assessment on pharmacovigilance system and its performance in Cambodia indicates that Cambodia has made important progress in introducing a system to achieve medicine safety monitoring and promote public health, but much works remain to be done. This assessment has provided important and valuable recommendations to address identified gaps and further enhance the existing PV system in Cambodia. As a result of the recommendation,
important step has been taken by the PV center to strengthen ADR reporting in both public and private health facilities and planning to revise regulation and guideline on medicinal product safety for pharmaceutical companies based on the recommendations provided. The experiences and lessons draw from other Asian countries participated in the assessment will further provide foundation and concepts of pharmacovigilance system that are useful for Cambodia to improve and strengthen our own system. This would not be possible without the support of USAID and FDA who sponsored the project.

Dr. Heng Bunheith
Director of Department of Food and Drug
Ministry of Health, Cambodia

Philippines

We are thankful for this PV report entitled Comparative Analysis of Pharmacovigilance Systems in Five Asian Countries. As PV is an evolving discipline, in the Philippines, we strive to learn from our experience and undertake corrective measures to improve. After all, PV is not about the medicines but the value it places for the health, welfare and safety of any patients under the care of health systems. Yet, ironically, the attention and importance given to PV by most authorities is low.

The key driver to improvement is in finding the champions willing to innovate and take initiative to evolve PV to the next level, and, finding the right mix of political support and administrative capacities to create a PV culture with technical proficiency.

Kenneth Y. Hartigan-Go, MD
Acting Director General
Food and Drug Administration

Nepal

In context of Nepal, we are already a member of WHO-UMC Collaborating Center for International Drug Monitoring and reporting ADR reports since 2006. Seven hospitals are participating in the system. Pharmacovigilance though a subject matter of global importance and the entire humanity, it is relatively new area even among its stakeholders so in the country. Assessment on Pharmacovigilance system and its performance has been undertaken by this department with the approval of Ministry of Health and Population. The assessment has clearly indicated the status of PV in the Asian region and the possibilities of learning from each other. Following this assessment study of PV in the country, we feel that the healthcare, medical, pharmaceuticals and other stakeholders are well sensitized. This study has created a conclusive environment for its system development in the Asian region including Nepal. I think this is the right time to strike to strengthen the PV system in the country with the solidarity of all stakeholders and the supporting agencies.
I would like to express my sincere thanks to SIAPS/MSH for supporting this study in Nepal. I take this opportunity to thank all the stakeholders involved in this study, Ms. Elisabeth Ludeman and Mr. Navin Prasad Shrestha for coordinating the study.

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Radha Raman Prasad  
Director General  
Department of Drug Administration  
Ministry of Health and Population,  
Government of Nepal  
July 2013

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**Thailand**

Pharmacovigilance system in Thailand was given establishment in 1983. The national center was established under the Food and Drug Administration with ADR monitoring program as its main focus. Starting from 176 total reports by several tertiary hospitals during the first year, the number of reports is now more than 50,000 annually with pharmacists as a major reporter. Today the scope of work has been expanded to cover all health products and to involve various stakeholders in health system including consumers, market authorization holders, as well as, health facilities, i.e., drugs stores, physician clinics, private hospitals, and all levels of public hospitals, ranging from community hospitals to tertiary hospitals to academic and research hospitals.

Although the role of the national center has been well accepted, the extent of pharmacovigilance system and functions must now be extended beyond its initial responsibilities. Collaboration among stakeholders as well as supporting their demands on patient safety becomes vital challenges influencing system effectiveness. Influx of health information due to the advancing of information technology and health products from the free trade area is another challenge to the system. Enhancing system performance requires coordination and integration of all concerned parties not only nationally but also internationally.

Knowing where we are now is the initial reference to move our system forwards. Learning from certain Asian countries with comparable resources is the next advantage for us to cooperate as well as collaborate to strengthen each own pharmacovigilance system. Thanks to USAID for the initiative to assess the pharmacovigilance system in Thailand together with other Asian countries. The information and learning experience gained from the project not only benefits the countries being studied but could also provide foundation and concepts of pharmacovigilance system for others.

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Dr. Boonchai Somboonsook  
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Ministry of Public Health, Thailand
## Acronyms and Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tr>
<td>ADR</td>
<td>adverse drug reaction</td>
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<tr>
<td>AE</td>
<td>adverse event</td>
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<td>AERS</td>
<td>adverse event reporting system</td>
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<td>AHWP</td>
<td>Asian Harmonization Working Party</td>
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<tr>
<td>AIDS</td>
<td>acquired immunodeficiency syndrome</td>
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<td>APEC</td>
<td>Asia Pacific Economic Collaboration</td>
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<td>ASEAN</td>
<td>Association of Southeast Asian Nations</td>
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<tr>
<td>BCPNN</td>
<td>Bayesian confidence propagation neural network</td>
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<tr>
<td>CRO</td>
<td>Clinical Research Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>DDF</td>
<td>Department of Drugs and Food [Cambodia]</td>
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<tr>
<td>DIC</td>
<td>Drug Information Center</td>
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<td>DSUR</td>
<td>development safety updated report</td>
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<td>DTC</td>
<td>Drug And Therapeutics Committee</td>
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<td>EMA</td>
<td>European Medicines Agency</td>
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<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
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<tr>
<td>FDA</td>
<td>US Food And Drug Administration</td>
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<td>FDAAA</td>
<td>Food And Drug Administration Amendments Act</td>
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<tr>
<td>FP</td>
<td>family planning</td>
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<tr>
<td>Global Fund</td>
<td>Global Fund To Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis And Malaria</td>
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<tr>
<td>GMP</td>
<td>Good Manufacturing Practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>HIV</td>
<td>human immunodeficiency virus</td>
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<tr>
<td>HPVC</td>
<td>Health Product Vigilance Center (Thailand)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICH</td>
<td>International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use</td>
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<tr>
<td>ICSR</td>
<td>individual case safety report</td>
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<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>Institute of Medicine [United States]</td>
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<tr>
<td>IPAT</td>
<td>Indicator-Based Pharmacovigilance Assessment Tool</td>
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<tr>
<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Standards Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>MAH</td>
<td>Marketing Authorization Holder</td>
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<td>MedDRA</td>
<td>Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities</td>
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<td>MSH</td>
<td>Management Sciences For Health</td>
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<td>NDP</td>
<td>National Drug Policy</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acronym</td>
<td>Full Form</td>
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<tr>
<td>NML</td>
<td>National Medicines Laboratory</td>
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<td>NMP</td>
<td>National Medicines Policy</td>
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<td>NRA</td>
<td>National Regulatory Authority</td>
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<td>PHP</td>
<td>Public Health Program</td>
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<td>PMA</td>
<td>post-marketing alert</td>
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<td>PPWG</td>
<td>Pharmaceutical Product Working Group</td>
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<td>PQM</td>
<td>Promoting the Quality of Medicines [USP]</td>
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<td>Pharmacovigilance Risk Assessment Committee [EMA]</td>
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<td>PSUR</td>
<td>Periodic Safety Update Report</td>
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<tr>
<td>PV</td>
<td>pharmacovigilance</td>
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<td>QA</td>
<td>quality assurance</td>
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<td>QC</td>
<td>quality control</td>
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<tr>
<td>RH</td>
<td>reproductive health</td>
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<td>RHI</td>
<td>regional harmonization initiatives</td>
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<td>RMP</td>
<td>Risk Management Plan</td>
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<tr>
<td>SOP</td>
<td>Standard Operating Procedure</td>
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<tr>
<td>SIAPS</td>
<td>Systems for Improvised Access to Pharmaceuticals and Services Program [USAID]</td>
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<tr>
<td>SMP</td>
<td>Safety Monitoring Program [Thailand]</td>
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<tr>
<td>SOP</td>
<td>standard operating procedure</td>
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<tr>
<td>SPS</td>
<td>Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems Program [USAID]</td>
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<tr>
<td>SRA</td>
<td>Stringent Regulatory Agency</td>
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<tr>
<td>STG</td>
<td>standard treatment guideline</td>
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<td>TB</td>
<td>tuberculosis</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children's Fund</td>
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<td>USAID</td>
<td>US Agency For International Development</td>
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<td>USD</td>
<td>US dollars</td>
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<td>USP</td>
<td>United States Pharmacopeia</td>
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<tr>
<td>VAERS</td>
<td>Vaccine Adverse Event Reporting System</td>
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<td>WHO</td>
<td>World Health Organization</td>
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Executive Summary

Access to medicine is improving in low- and middle-income countries (LMICs), thanks to the efforts of global health initiatives and also to the commitment of national governments. Medicines and other health commodities are required to be safe, effective, and of good quality to achieve their intended purpose. However recent history records several incidences of harm from poor quality or unsafe products. The increasing influx of these products into global supply chains can diminish the significant improvements in access and compromise the success of public health programs. The primary objective of pharmaceutical regulation is to safeguard the public from unsafe medical products. Countries can achieve that by establishing a comprehensive pharmacovigilance (PV) system. In many low and middle-income countries (LMICs), PV activities are fragmented, weak, and unable to protect the public adequately. Recognizing the importance of assisting countries protect the public from unsafe and poor quality medicines, the US Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) funded the Systems for Improved Access to Pharmaceuticals and Services (SIAPS) Program through an interagency agreement to assess PV systems’ performance in selected Asian countries. The objectives of the assessment are to benchmark national systems’ performance, identify replicable and successful experiences, map the contributions of donor agencies, and recommend options for enhancing PV and post-market surveillance systems’ capacity and performance.

Study Methods

We conducted a review of the regulatory and PV systems literature with a focus on the Asia region. A comprehensive assessment of the PV system in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Philippines, and Thailand was conducted by teams of local consultants and data collectors and detailed report developed for each country. Using primary data from the individual country assessments, we conducted comparative analysis of the five components of the PV system including Governance and Policy, Law, and Regulation; Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination; Signal Generation and Data Management; Risk Assessment and Evaluation; and Risk Management and Communication.

Current State of Pharmaceutical Market in Asia

The Asian pharmaceutical market size is estimated at 140 billion US dollars (USD), with China and Japan accounting for about 70% of the total value. Most of the market is dominated by generic medicines. Of the countries studied, Thailand has the largest pharmaceutical market size with over USD 4.4 billion and Nepal has the smallest with USD 1.4 million.
Results

Pharmacovigilance at the National Level

Governance, Policy, Law, and Regulation

Of the five Asian countries studied, Bangladesh, Philippines, Thailand have regulatory frameworks, regulatory registers and governance structures. All countries have registers for approved medical products, licensed pharmaceutical premises, and licensed pharmaceutical personnel in place. All countries assessed have national medicine laws in place that include legal provisions related to medicine safety but their PV regulatory requirements vary greatly. Cambodia and the Philippines have legal provisions mandating industry to report adverse events but only the Philippines mandates industry to conduct post-marketing surveillance of specified products based on stringent regulatory authority requirements. Generally risk assessment and evaluation and also risk management practices are not explicitly required in the countries legislations.

Systems, Structures, and Stakeholder Coordination

All countries have a national PV center. Thailand has a dedicated annual budget for PV-related activities. Cambodia and Thailand have national PV guidelines in place. Cambodia, Nepal, and Thailand have Medicines Safety Advisory Committees that meet regularly (at least once within the past year) and have documented decision-making processes, however only Thailand’s Advisory Committee has policies that address conflict of interest. Although all the five countries address elements of product quality assurance within their National Regulatory Authorities (NRAs), only the Philippines has a formal quality management system in place and only Thailand has a WHO pre-qualified quality control laboratory. Cambodia, Nepal, Philippines, and Thailand are official members of the WHO International Drug Monitoring Programme. During this assessment Bangladesh initiated plans to join the WHO program.

Signal Generation and Data Management

All countries have a standardized national adverse events (AE) form. Thailand AE forms is for all health products and collect data on suspected ADRs, product quality issues, medication error, and treatment failure. Thailand and Philippines implement consumer reporting. Availability of the AE reporting forms within service delivery points was found to be limited. Only 41% of health facilities and 21% of pharmacies sampled across five countries reported existence of AE forms within their facility. Significant underreporting was observed in all countries, with the exception of Thailand.

Risk Assessment and Evaluation

Risk assessment and evaluation was identified by the assessment as the weakest component of the PV system across all the countries. Only the NRA in Thailand reported conducting active surveillance activity in the last five years.

Risk Management and Communication

Thailand and the Philippines have medicine information processes that are functioning with a minimum of one information request received and responded to per month. Nepal and Thailand regularly publish medicines safety bulletins. All countries reported use of prequalification schemes for procurement decisions related to at least some medical products. Nepal, the Philippines, and Thailand estimated the levels of unregistered medicines in their respective markets to be less than one percent, while Cambodia estimates the levels
of unregistered medicines at 30%. Bangladesh also estimates high levels of unregistered medicines within its market. All countries studied reported that medical products were both sampled and analyzed for quality in national medicines laboratories in 2011. Encouragingly, Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand reported alerting healthcare workers and the public within three weeks of the detection of a medicine safety concern. The ASEAN post-marketing alert (PMA) mechanism for sharing information relating to defective or unsafe medicinal products seems to provide an underutilized opportunity for collaboration to safeguard the supply chain in the member countries.

Pharmacovigilance in Public Health Programs

The assessment included interviews with representatives from 19 national HIV and AIDS, malaria, and TB immunization programs. Among PHPs assessed, 84% reported having a policy document that mentions PV and product quality assurance. Thirty seven percent were found to have a PV point of contact assigned responsibility for monitoring medicine safety within the program. Forty two percent reported keeping a log or database of PV data collected. For all countries adverse events reporting in the public health programs (PHPs) were low and uncoordinated with the national PV system. However, the national immunization program in Bangladesh reported collecting 1,100 adverse events reports following immunization in 2011 against a patient population of 3.7 million children vaccinated. A review of Global Fund to Fight AIDS, Tuberculosis and Malaria (Global Fund) grants for round 10 shows that Cambodia and Thailand included activities or interventions related to PV in their disease specific or health systems strengthening grants. Though disease surveillance activities are in place, active safety surveillance of medical products was very limited. Other components of the PV system including risk management and communication were minimal or lacking in all five countries.

Pharmacovigilance at the Service Delivery Level

A total of 86 health facilities and 62 pharmacies were surveyed across the five countries. Only a quarter of the private or community pharmacies surveyed are aware that a national PV center exists in their country. Nearly half of the community pharmacies were aware of a national policy for monitoring and reporting adverse events. However, less than half of the health facilities surveyed have adverse events reporting form available. In Nepal, Thailand, and the Philippines a quarter of facilities surveyed reported that they had received medicines safety bulletins from their national PV centers.

Pharmacovigilance in the Pharmaceutical Industry

The assessment included five clinical research organizations (CROs), seven medical device companies, and 38 pharmaceutical companies, including multinational innovator, multinational generic and local innovator and generic manufacturers. Sixty-six percent of pharmaceutical companies, 57% of medical device companies, and 80% of CROs have a PV or medicine safety unit. The pharmaceutical industry PV performance is below expectation in an already weak regulatory environment. More than one third of pharmaceuticals, biotechnology and medical device companies do not submit adverse events reports in national standard forms or in E2B compliant formats. Among the companies included in the assessment, it was found that less than half of pharmaceutical companies (42%) and just more than half of medical device companies (57%) collected spontaneous adverse events reports, put them in a database, and transmitted to the local NRA. In 2011, causality was determined for only a third of the reports. Risk assessment and evaluation and risk management practices are not being implemented presumably since they are not explicitly required in country laws.
Pharmacovigilance at the Civil Society Level

Ten consumer groups, 22 professional organizations, and 21 medical and pharmacy academic institutions were surveyed in this group, members from three (30%) and eight (36%) respectively serve on the national safety advisory committee in Bangladesh, Cambodia, and the Philippines. Few respondents (20% in consumer group and 27% in professional associations) reported that consumers and members of their association were aware of the existence of a national policy for monitoring and reporting adverse events. About half of the professional associations reported having a member who is aware of the national PV center while only 20% of consumer groups reported that this knowledge exists among patients and consumers.

Capacity and Performance of PV Systems in the Studied Countries

Countries were grouped based on the systems classification; of the five countries, Bangladesh and Nepal are in group 1 with minimal organizational structures and capacity for PV, Cambodia is in group 2 with policy and legal frameworks, basic organizational structures including guidelines, SOPs, and a safety advisory committee. Philippines is in group 3 which are countries that have capacity to collect and evaluate safety data on the basis of legal and organizational structure and Thailand is in group 4 for countries that have performing PV systems to detect, evaluate, and prevent medicine safety issues.

Selected Recommendations and Options for Enhancing PV Systems

National Level

Strengthen Regulatory Policies and Framework

Based on the level of development of regulatory and PV systems, countries can develop new regulatory policies and frameworks to ensure that regulations are effective and in the public interest or revise and consolidate the existing ones. Alternatively they can review sections of existing legislation that deal with aspects of medicines quality, safety, and post-marketing surveillance, ensure that legislations are congruent with other relevant local laws.

Ensure Convergent Regional and International Regulations

Options for countries for developing regulations convergent within the Asian region—map differences and provide guidance on regulations that the country considers as equivalent to regional and international standards or develop guidance to industry to explicitly document regional equivalencies or countries can completely revise their PV legislation to make them convergent with that of stringent regulatory authorities and also consistent with the regional harmonization guidelines within the Asia Pacific region and other international guidelines.

Improve Information Sharing and Participation in Regional Harmonization Initiatives

Asian regional harmonization initiatives should consider strengthening collaboration and information sharing about product safety and security of the supply chain by ensuring active participation of the all countries in the region.
Reform Organizational Structure to Achieve Integrated Safety Surveillance

Countries can create a single vigilance center that can facilitate the integration of adverse events reporting for all health products or consolidate post-marketing surveillance department that brings together PV, product quality surveillance, routine inspections, and control of advert and promotion into a single unit.

Improve Funding for PV

Countries should consider reviewing resource allocation for regulatory activities and determine an evidence-based approach for allocating adequate resources for post-marketing surveillance activities. Alternatively new sources of funding can be explored including donor funding, user fees and percentage of sales turnover.

Strengthen Spontaneous Reporting

Countries should adopt international reporting standards and explore opportunities for the use of information technologies for improving adverse events reporting. Countries should also explore opportunities to consolidate or streamline reporting forms for all health products (drugs, biologics, vaccines, and medical devices) and for reporting on all safety and quality issues.

Confront Falsified and Substandard Medicines

Donors and technical assistance providers should consolidate their support to expand WHO and regional harmonization initiatives rapid alert system as major instruments for addressing the issues of falsified and substandard products. Countries should be supported to improve their regulatory systems and enforcement capabilities for addressing fake products.

Public Health Programs Level

Strengthen Routine Collection of Information on the Tolerability of Medicines

Countries should encourage routine documentation of the reasons for treatment switches in the patient’s case file which will provide data for studying the frequency of switches and tolerability treatment regimens.

Develop Sustainable Risk Assessment and Evaluation Activities

Countries should explore opportunities for establishing sentinel sites for active surveillance by working closely with ART, TB, malaria, vaccines, and mass drug administration programs.

Include PV in Donation Programs

Donors who donate medicines and health technologies should require their programs to conduct spontaneous reporting, active surveillance, and risk management, particularly for newer medicines, vaccines, and medical devices.

Health Facilities and Services Delivery Level

Inform Health Workers on the Value of PV

Countries should expand training on PV to enable health workers appreciate the contributions of adverse events reporting in safeguarding patients and improving treatment outcomes.
Streamline Adverse Events Reporting

The current adverse events reporting system is burdensome for the busy clinicians and the system does not motivate the reporter. Countries should consult with stakeholders in open forums to discuss on the best approaches for improving the roles of health workers, the health facilities, private pharmacies, consumers, and pharmaceutical industry in adverse events reporting.

Pharmaceutical Industry

Strengthen Industry Commitment to PV

The pharmaceutical industry is not doing enough to support PV activities in the countries studied. In the absence of adequate legislation and enforcement in developing countries, due diligence and product stewardship should drive the industry to meet safety monitoring requirements locally as they do in better regulated markets.

Collaborate on Device Regulation and Vigilance

Medical device industry should collaborate with national regulatory authorities and regional harmonization initiatives to develop device vigilance systems.

Civil Societies

Improve the Visibility of PV as a Public Health Priority

Civil society’s active involvement in PV systems depends not only on awareness of the legal mandate, structures and systems for PV in the country but also on the society’s understanding of its importance and how drug safety affects their members. Civil societies should motivate their members interest in PV as part of its role as the watchdog for good governance in the pharmaceutical sector.

Conclusion

Strengthening the regulatory and PV system of the studied countries is a global imperative for preventing harm and improving outcomes in treatment and prevention programs and for protecting the global supply chain from falsified and substandard medicines. There is a strong and urgent need to strengthen medicine safety systems both within and across national borders of countries in the Asia region. Developing and developed countries are both suppliers and recipients within an increasingly complex global medical product supply chain. Public health programs, global health initiatives, and indeed, entire health systems rely on safe, effective, and good quality medicines. However, fully functional PV and regulatory systems are not yet in place in many LMICs. This report calls for concerted efforts to build regional and global coalition and leverage ongoing efforts in a consolidated manner to improve the systems and capacities required to assure patient safety and to improve health outcomes in Asia.
Introduction

Background on Asian Pharmaceutical Market

Asia has an estimated 4.2 billion inhabitants, representing nearly 60% of the world’s total population. China and India together account for 37% of the world population and 61% of Asian population, with the remaining being dispersed among the other 46 countries that make up the continent. Southern Asia and Southeast Asia constitute about 54% of the Asia population. The 5 countries in this report belong to the two regions and have a total population of 359.7 million, about 16% of the regions’ population. Asia region is characterized by vast discrepancies in wealth and development. The gross domestic product (GDP) per capita of the continent’s poorest country, Nepal, is equivalent to just 2% of Singapore’s, the continent’s wealthiest country. In the Human Development Index ratings, four Asian countries are among the top 25 countries with “very high human development” while five others are among those with “low human development.” The pharmaceutical market profiles of the five countries included in the present assessment—Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, the Philippines and Thailand—reflect some of the same diversity seen throughout the region (table 1). The populations range from 150.5 million in Bangladesh to just 14.3 million in Cambodia. All of them are considered low- or middle-income countries with Nepal on the low end with a GDP per capita of 619 US dollars (USD) as compared to Thailand, an upper middle income country, with a GDP per capita of USD 4,972.

Figure 1. Map of Asian Countries Included in Assessment
Table 1. Summary of Pharmaceutical Market in Studied Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pharmaceutical market</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (million; 2012)*</td>
<td>154.7</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>96.7</td>
<td>66.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product per capita (USD)*</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>619</td>
<td>2,370</td>
<td>4,972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>1.5 billion</td>
<td>178 million</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>2.91 billion</td>
<td>4 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2011)‡</td>
<td>174 million</td>
<td>27 million</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>297 million</td>
<td>1.11 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered (2011)‡</td>
<td>32,245</td>
<td>10,000 (est.)</td>
<td>10,316</td>
<td>32,069</td>
<td>24,087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare per capita (USD, 2010)§</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure (TPE) per capita (USD, 2006)§</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals per capita (USD, 2006)§</td>
<td>Not available</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPE as % total expenditure on healthcare per capita (2006)§</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing mechanisms for pharmaceuticals§</td>
<td>Public (11%), Private/Other (89%)</td>
<td>Public (14%), Private/Other (86%)</td>
<td>Public (19%), Private/Other (81%)</td>
<td>Public (10%), Public/Other (90%)</td>
<td>Public (88%), Private/Other (12%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

† Business Monitor International: Bangladesh Q1 2013 (January 1, 2013), Cambodia Q4 2012 (October 1, 2012), Philippines Q1 2013 (January 1, 2013), Thailand Q1 2013 (January 1, 2013)
‡ Directorate General of Drug Administration (Bangladesh); Cambodia MOH DDF; WHO Nepal Pharmaceutical Market (http://apps.who.int/medicinedocs/en/m/abstract/Js19096en/); Directorate General of Drug Administration (Philippines); Thai FDA, 2011;
§ Estimates derived from several WHO sources including World Medicines Situation 2011 Annex, Pharmaceutical Sector Country Profiles Data and Reports, and National Health Accounts.
|| WHO World Health Statistics 2012
The Asian pharmaceutical market size is estimated at USD 140 billion, with China and Japan accounting for about 70 percent of the total value. Most of the market is dominated by generic medicines, although Japan and Singapore have a strong patented medicine market, especially for chronic diseases. Of the countries studied, Thailand has the largest pharmaceutical market size with over USD 4.4 billion and Nepal has the smallest with USD 1.4 million. Vietnam has the fastest growing healthcare market in Southeast Asia, with more than 200 pharmaceutical companies registered that produce mostly generic medicines. In the Philippines, foreign drug companies account for 70 percent of the market. There are over 3500 pharmaceutical brands marketed with the main therapeutic categories including anti-infectives, antihypertensives, and analgesics.\(^1\)

Regarding burden of disease, the Southeast Asian region accounts for about 30% of the global disease burden (Dhillon et al. 2012). In Asia and the Pacific, an estimated 6.1 million people were living with the human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) in 2009, 5.9 million of whom were adults. Although the epidemic is decreasing overall, the burden of HIV and AIDS remains high, especially in some countries like Thailand, which has the highest rates of HIV and AIDS in the Asia region (UNAIDS 2010). Tuberculosis (TB) also represents a major health problem in Asia. In fact, 60% of incident cases of TB globally in 2011 were in Asia (WHO 2012a). Although the incidence of malaria has decreased in the region over the last decade, there are still an estimated 30 million cases in Asia each year. This burden is further exacerbated by increasing evidence in Southeast Asia of emerging resistance to artemisinin-based combination therapy, the recommended treatment for malaria (WHO 2012b).

**Definition and Scope of Pharmacovigilance**

The World Health Organization (WHO) defines PV as the science and activities relating to the detection, assessment, understanding, and prevention of adverse effects or any other possible drug-related problems (WHO 2004). PV systems should include all entities and

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resources that protect the public from medicines-related harm (adverse reactions, poor product quality, medication errors, and therapeutic ineffectiveness), whether in personal healthcare or public health services. The PV system safeguards the public through efficient and timely identification, collection, and assessment of medicine-related adverse events and by communicating risks and benefits to support decision making about medicines at various levels of the healthcare system. A comprehensive systems approach addresses the need for both active and passive approaches to identify medicines-related problems, effective mechanisms to communicate medicine safety information to healthcare professionals and the public, collaboration among a wide range of partners and organizations, and incorporation of PV activities at all levels of the health system (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2011). Several multinational organizations and initiatives work on defining the standards of PV.

The WHO has provided technical and normative leadership on PV since the development of the first voluntary notification scheme in 1961. The WHO International Drug Monitoring program has more than 111 countries participating as of January 2013. WHO has defined norms and guidelines for PV and allow for information sharing among the participating countries. Another WHO PV-related activity is the work of the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS) which was established jointly by WHO and UNESCO in 1949. Starting with the publication of the Suspect Adverse Reaction Report Form (CIOMS Form I) by the CIOMS working group II, other CIOMS publications have greatly shaped the direction of PV.2 CIOMS publications have also greatly influenced the development of International Conference on Harmonization of Technical requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH) E2A-E2F guidelines in drug safety. The standards for the electronic transmission of regulatory information regarding the individual case safety report (ICSR) has been changing over the last decade. The ICH adopted the E2B(R2) in February 2001 and since 2005 the E2B(R3) is being developed as the proposed harmonized international standards for health products safety reporting. This effort led by International Standards Organization (ISO) and Health Level Seven International (HL7) has led to the development of ISO/HL7 27953-1:2011. These ICH guidelines have facilitated the adoption of harmonized standards for PV activities.

In 1999, the ICH formed the Global Cooperation Group (GCG) to promote a mutual understanding of regional harmonization initiatives to harmonization process related to ICH guidelines regionally and globally, and to facilitate the capacity of drug regulatory authorities and industry to use them. Part of the result of the work of the GCG and the open availability of harmonized guidelines from the ICH, is the increasing adaptation of ICH standards in non-ICH countries.

With regards to medical devices vigilance, the Global Harmonization Task Force (GHTF) use to set the standards for their regulation. However, the GHTF activities have been taken over by the International Medical Device Regulators Forum (IMDRF) formed in 2011. The GHTF SG2 guidelines on Medical Devices Post Market Surveillance: Global Guidance for Adverse Event Reporting for Medical Devices provides harmonized standards for monitoring safety of medical devices (European Commission 2013). The EU guidelines on reporting adverse

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2 Including CIOMS II on periodic safety update reports (PSUR), CIOMS III core data sheets, CIOMS IV on benefit-risk assessments, CIOMS V on Current Challenges in Pharmacovigilance: Pragmatic Approaches, CIOMS VI on clinical trials safety data, CIOMS VII on development safety update reports (DSUR), and CIOMS VIII on Practical Aspects of Signal Detection in Pharmacovigilance.
events related to medical devices is set out by MEDDEV 2.12/1 rev.8 (European Commission 2013) and by MEDDEV 2.12/2 rev.2 (European Commission 2012) which promote a standard approach consistent with the SG2 guidelines. Table 2 below summarizes the functions of these various initiatives.

**Table 2. Functions of Select PV Initiatives**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Initiative/Program</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| WHO          | International drug monitoring program | • Defines norms and guidelines for PV and facilitates information sharing among participating countries  
• WHO Collaborating Centre for International Drug Monitoring runs the international monitoring program |
| CIOMS        | Safety requirements for the use of drugs | • Through 8 Working Groups CIOMS has defined technical standards in drug safety |
| ICH, GCG     | Pharmaceutical standards harmonization and guidelines development | • Facilitates harmonization process related to ICH guidelines regionally and globally |
| GHTF, IMDRF  | International medical device regulatory harmonization and convergence | • Harmonizes the standards for monitoring the safety of medical devices |
**Study Objectives and Methods**

**Objectives**

This study contributes to filling the gap in the understanding of the PV systems capacity in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, the Philippines and Thailand by addressing the following objectives—

Assess and analyze systems capacity and performances for PV and post-marketing surveillance

- Identify successful and replicable experiences to further enhance medicines safety and quality systems
- Map out how donor agencies and local/regional/global health efforts are contributing to PV
- Recommend options for enhancing PV and post-market surveillance systems capacity and performances

**Study Methods**

The following methods were used to conduct the study—

1. **Review of regulatory and PV systems**
2. **Individual country assessments**
3. **Comparative analysis of results from individual country studies**

1. **Review of Regulatory and PV Systems**

We conducted a detailed review of regulatory and PV systems literature using key search terms in drug regulation and PV. We also reviewed databases from WHO, ICH, and searched commercial regulatory intelligence databases from Thomson Reuters. We searched the websites of regional harmonization initiatives, and also reviewed websites of regulatory authorities from the United States, Europe, Japan, Australia, Canada, China, South Korea, Saudi Arabia, India, Malaysia, Singapore, and Indonesia, and all the five countries studied.

2. **Individual Country Assessments**

Local consultants led individual country assessments using the indicator-based PV assessment tool (IPAT) developed by the USAID-funded Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program. The IPAT allows for the systematic and longitudinal monitoring of country capacity and performance in ensuring the safety and effectiveness of health products registered in a country (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2009a). The local consultants were identified by the national regulatory authorities. Working with a team of data collectors, the local consultants conducted in depth data collection in each country between April and November 2012.
Selection of Study Countries

Not much is known about PV systems in South Asia and Southeast Asian countries and there is scant literature that compares countries’ PV systems from a regional perspective. This study included countries from the two regions. The countries were selected based on several factors including economic status, the existence of global and regional public health initiatives (i.e., the President’s Emergency Plan for AIDS Relief [PEPFR], the President’s Malaria Initiative [PMI], and the Global Fund), manufacturing capacity, the size of the pharmaceutical industry, and the existence of a National Drug Regulatory authority. Other selection criteria included the existence of WHO prequalified quality control (QC) laboratories, WHO international drug monitoring program membership, participation in initiatives to combat counterfeit and substandard products, and Management Sciences for Health presence. Using these criteria, several countries qualified for the study. From the South Asia region we excluded India since the study did not have the resources to cover a country of that size. Several countries in the two regions presented logistical challenges that could not be overcome by the available funding for the study. Five countries were eventually chosen for the study—Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, the Philippines, and Thailand and in-depth assessment of the PV systems was conducted in those countries.

The summarized version of the description of the study method is included in annex E in this document. Further details on the selection of study sites within each country, recruitment of consultants and data collectors, data entry, limitations, and results of the study are in the individual country reports (Stergachis A, Rahman Md M 2012; Men C 2012; Shresta NP 2012; Marcelo J 2013; Sakulbumrungsil R 2013).

3. Comparative Analysis of Results from Individual Country Studies

The data from the individual country assessment was collated and entered into a database developed for the purposes of the study based on the five PV components namely Governance and Policy, Law, and Regulation; Systems, Structure, Stakeholder Coordination; Signal Generation and Data Management; Risk Assessment and Evaluation; and Risk Management and Communication. A rating scale was applied to classify the performance of each component area within the study countries’ PV systems. Based on the scoring of the five components of the PV system in the data collection tool, specific strengths and gaps in each component were identified. Tables and bar charts were used to compare performance of indicators within the same component. Radar charts were used to illustrate the performance in each component. Qualitative information from the literature reviews were used to supplement the quantitative data collected through the individual country assessments.
Review of Regulatory and Pharmacovigilance Systems

As access to medicines improves, the value of strengthening PV systems is becoming increasingly recognized. However, PV systems in many countries are not well described. Most Asian drug safety literature focuses only on adverse event reporting. Books on Asian regulatory systems mainly address PV regulations in China, India, Japan, and Singapore (Klincewicz S, Yap Y 2009; Gillespie J 2009) and do not discuss the medicines safety systems in any depth. Also there is no documentation of how PV systems contribute to improved treatment outcomes. The review discusses significant medication safety events that have impacted on regulatory reforms, the importance of PV, and recent efforts at international cooperation and harmonization for sharing safety information.

Medication Mishaps Have Catalyzed Medicines Regulation

Historically, development of medicines regulation has been catalyzed by medication mishaps. Harm from the use of medicines can be a consequence of manufacturing error, product falsification, intrinsic toxicity of the product, and unsafe use (by prescribers, dispensers, and patients). The death of 107 people in 1937 from elixir of sulfanilamide contaminated with diethylene glycol, and the severe malformations, primarily phocomelia, in about 10,000 children which occurred from 1956 to 1962 in mothers who were exposed to thalidomide during pregnancy, were defining drug safety events that spurred regulatory actions. The diethylene glycol case led to the enactment of the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (1938) and in reaction to the thalidomide cases, the WHO developed the voluntary notification scheme in 1961. The fundamental reason for pharmaceutical regulation is to ensure the safety of health products and protect public health.

In Asia, medication mishaps have led to public concerns and calls for strengthening regulations. In 2005, a sophisticated investigation into fake artesunate suggested that the fake antimalarial drugs were killing millions (WHO estimates 20% of the one million malaria deaths per year is from fake products). The investigators identified two trafficking networks, one from the Thai-Myanmar border and northern Laos and the other from southern Laos, Vietnam, and Cambodia. Three people were arrested for trafficking 240,000 blister packs of fake artesunate into Myanmar (Newton et al. 2008) containing no or subtherapeutic amounts of the active antimalarial ingredient, which has led to deaths from untreated malaria, reduced confidence in this vital drug, large economic losses for legitimate manufacturers, and concerns that artemisinin resistance might be engendered.

The 2008 heparin related deaths and allergic reactions in the United States were attributed to economically-motivated adulteration of heparin with over-sulphated chondroitin sulphate from Baxter’s Chinese heparin supplier. A total of 131 heparin-related deaths were reported to US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) between January 1, 2007 and April 13, 2008.

In 2012, the then Chinese State Food and Drug Administration shut down more than 80 manufacturing lines in Zhejiang, seized more than 77 million capsules, and arrested 22 people...
in connection with chromium-laced capsules of medicines, including many antibiotics.
Medication mishaps and corruption coupled with a vision to strengthen local industry has
resulted in several changes in the Chinese regulatory systems leading to the reorganization
and consolidation of the powers of the State Food and Drug Administration into a
ministerial-level agency, the China Food and Drug Administration (CFDA). Similarly, in
India a parliamentary committee audit of the Central Drugs Standard Control Organization
(CDSCO) argued that the organization is facilitating the development of the drug industry to
the detriment of public health. The committee found that the CDSCO approved marketing
of 13 drugs including dipyrone which did not have permission for sale in any of the major
developed countries and also approved clinical trial for fixed-dose combination of aceclofenac
with drotaverine, a combination not in use in developed countries (Parliament of India 2012).
Subsequently another committee recommended that a Special Expert Committee should be
set up that should be independent of the Drug Technical Advisory Board to review all drug
formulations in the market and identify drugs which are potentially hazardous and/or of
doubtful therapeutic efficacy (Chaudhury expert committee 2013). In Pakistan, the death of
125 patients in 2012 who received a cardiac drug contaminated with an antimalarial medicine
lead to the Pakistani government quickly establishing a central Drug Regulatory Authority
in 2012. This case underlined the need to address the jurisdictional confusion created by the
passage of the amendment that decentralized public health.

Recognition of Importance and Practice of Pharmacovigilance

Adverse reactions, poor product quality, medication errors, and therapeutic ineffectiveness
waste resources and have devastating impact on the health systems by leading to treatment
failure, drug resistance, loss of confidence in the health system, and increased morbidity and
mortality. Adverse drug reactions are the fourth–sixth leading cause of death (Lazarou 1998)
and patients who experienced adverse drug events (ADEs) were hospitalized an average of 8
to 12 days longer than patients who did not suffer from ADEs and their hospitalization cost
USD 16,000 to USD 24,000 more.

The overall objective of a NRA for medicinal products is to ensure that all medicines,
medical devices, vaccines, blood products, and other biologicals are of assured quality,
safety and efficacy and are accompanied by appropriate information to promote their safe
use. Regulatory authorities are responsible for making decisions regarding label changes
(dose, indication, etc.) or variation in marketing authorization, drug safety alerts, control
of unapproved claims, prescription to over-the-counter status switch and vice versa, and
product withdrawal or recalls. Though the enactment of new regulations has been the main
tool by governments and the regulators to prevent subsequent harmful occurrences and
protect public health, the understanding of how to protect the public health is still evolving.
From recognizing the need to demand safety, quality, and efficacy before medicines are
introduced in the market, national regulatory authorities also developed surveillance and
enforcement units to monitor the market and ensure that products maintain their quality
and safety after approval. However, efforts to secure the market have not been completely
successful with the continued availability of substandard and falsified medicines in the
supply chain of most countries. The development of PV and post-marketing surveillance
systems is a strategy that could be used to supplement information gathered prior to
market authorization. According to the US Institute of Medicine (IOM), preapproval
clinical trials do not obviate continuing formal evaluation after approval (IOM 2007).
Clinical trials for the authorization of new medicines usually focus on determining
efficacy of the product in limited number of persons, typically with narrowly defined
characteristics, for a short duration of time. Like in developed countries the importance
of PV is well recognized amongst the regulatory authorities in the Asia region. Most of the countries regulatory organizations have maintained a post-marketing surveillance or PV unit as a part of their agency’s structure. Countries in the region are participating in the WHO international drug monitoring program. The table below shows the current membership status for Asia.

Table 3. WHO-UMC Membership Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Official member</th>
<th>Associate member</th>
<th>Non-member</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brunei Darussalam (2005)</td>
<td>Bhutan</td>
<td>Afghanistan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia (2012)</td>
<td>Mongolia</td>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China (1998)</td>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Korea, Dem. Republic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India (1998)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Lao PDR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia (1990)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Myanmar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan (1972)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea, Rep. (1992)</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Nepal (2006)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Philippines (1995)</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Singapore (1993)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka (2000)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand (1984)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam (1999)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Early members of the WHO drug monitoring program like Japan, Thailand, Indonesia, and Korea have well developed spontaneous reporting systems. Korea and Thailand are in the top 10 countries in the WHO Global ICSR database (Uppsala Monitoring Center 2013). Many of the official members have more developed regulatory systems with surveillance and enforcement units, newer members and non-member countries are beginning to put these structures in place. Notwithstanding PV practices in the region vary tremendously. A review of the regulatory requirements shows different reporting timelines and different reporting forms and requirements for electronic submission, PV inspections and audits, etc. Sharing of information on regulatory decisions vary as well. While many NRAs in the region barely communicate their regulatory action, Singapore HSA in 2011 issued more than 280 decisions related to safety of medicines and Indonesia Badan Pom and Malaysia National Pharmaceutical Control Bureau provides opportunities for consumers to report health products complaints online. In their quest to protect the public and also answer tough questions on the products they allow on the market, regulators are challenged to develop strategies for improving the safety of products. Several strategies additional to spontaneous reporting systems have been incorporated including requirements for the conduct of risk management, post-authorization studies, and review of the benefit-risk throughout the product life-cycle. These practices are not very common among regulatory authorities in the region.

International Collaboration and Harmonization

Securing the supply chain from unsafe products in any country is a challenge no regulatory authority can now confront alone. To help PV achieve its intended purpose, international collaboration and information sharing is required. International collaboration in regulatory activities can help to reduce duplicative testing of products, clinical trials, and inspections. Timely information sharing between regulatory authorities can be helpful in addressing outbreaks of substandard, falsified, and unsafe medicines, and is a condition for securing
the global supply chain. With growing globalization of drug development, complexity of the products, and global economic challenges, the need for harmonization or at least some convergence of standards and requirements is increasingly being recognized. Thus, the International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use (ICH) was launched in 1990 to develop technical guidelines for product registration to harmonize standards and reduce duplication. The ICH has developed over 50 guidelines including the guidelines that cover the reporting and evaluation of data on safety and efficacy of pharmaceutical products in pre- and post-approval periods (drug safety guidelines E2A to E2F). Also supporting ICH work are the M2 guidelines that facilitate the electronic standards for the transfer of regulatory information (ESTRI), the Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities (MedDRA) terminology, and the Common Technical Document. Besides Japan, a founding member of the ICH, Asia regulators are at different stages of adoption of international standards and guidelines developed by the ICH. The need for sharing of regulatory information is recognized and the adoption of common standards is improving.

Comparison of Pharmacovigilance Practices of Stringent Regulatory Authorities and Asia Reference Authorities

The European Medicines Authority (EMA) is the authority responsible for coordinating PV systems in the European Union (EU). Regulation EC 726/2004 calls for intensive supervision of undesirable effects of medicinal products within the framework of community PV activities and rapid withdrawal of products presenting a negative risk-benefit balance under normal conditions of use. In the United States, the reporting of adverse events is mandated by law for the product sponsors. The regulations governing drug safety are covered by Title 21 of the Code of Federal Regulations. Title IX of the Food and Drug Administration Amendments Act (FDAAA) of 2007 provided FDA with enhanced authorities regarding post-market safety of drugs.

PV activities in the EU and United States have continued to change and evolve as the public asks for greater transparency and protection (Health Action International 2008; Wolfe 2006). The EMA posts the European Public Assessment Report (EPAR) in their website, the FDA posts the products approval package on its website Drugs@FDA, and the Japan PMDA posts the review reports for approved products on its website. Provided in the table 4 below is some comparison of key features of the drug safety system across the stringent regulatory authorities (SRAs) of EU, United States, and Japan alongside the practices in China, India, and Singapore.

Regional Harmonization Initiatives in Asia

The Asia Pacific Economic Collaboration (APEC) set up the Regulatory Harmonization Steering Committee (RHSC) with the aim to promote a more strategic, effective, and sustainable approach to regulatory convergence by proactively identifying and prioritizing projects of greatest value to regulators and the regulated industry. One of RHSC’s harmonization topics is on PV—the Korea FDA is the lead agency. Through this work group, the steering committee strives to address regulatory harmonization in PV. The roadmap for strengthening PV systems is currently being developed. The Asian Harmonization Working Party (AHWP) activities are focused on the medical devices. The AHWP was established to study and recommend ways to harmonize medical device regulations in Asia and other regions and to work in coordination with the Global Harmonization Task Force, APEC, and other related international organizations (Asian Harmonization Working Party 2010).
## Table 4. Comparison of Drug Safety Systems Across SRAs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regulatory requirements</th>
<th>Stringent NRAs</th>
<th>Asian competent/reference NRAs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EMA</td>
<td>US FDA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandatory industry reporting of serious ADRs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical trials register exists?</td>
<td>Yes (EudraCT)</td>
<td>Yes (clinicaltrials.gov)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring period for new drugs required</td>
<td>Yes (5 years)*</td>
<td>Yes (5 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expedited reporting of serious ADRs for marketed drugs required</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV Inspections and audits required</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk management plans (RMP) mandated</td>
<td>Yes (RMP)</td>
<td>Yes (REMS)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spontaneous reporting database exists</td>
<td>Eudra-Vigilance</td>
<td>FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS), VAERS database</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodic safety update reports required (frequency)</td>
<td>Yes (every 6 months for the first 2 years)</td>
<td>Yes (every 3 months for first 3 years)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active surveillance initiative</td>
<td>EU-ADR project, ENCePP, PROTECT</td>
<td>Sentinel system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified person responsible for PV mandated†</td>
<td>Yes (QPPV)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The EMA has a black triangle scheme that will come into effect in the last quarter of 2013. The scheme requires that black inverted triangle should be displayed in the package leaflet of new medicines and denotes that the medicine is under intense additional monitoring.

† Industry is mandated to have someone responsible for PV. An example is the Qualified Person for Pharmacovigilance (QPPV) in Europe.

ENCePP - European Network of Centres for Pharmacopidemiology and Pharmacovigilance
MIHARI - Medical Information for Risk Assessment Initiative
PMR - Administrative measures for monitoring and reporting of ADRs, 2004
QPPV - Qualified Person in Pharmacovigilance
PROTECT - Pharmacoepidemiological Research on Outcomes of Therapeutics by a European Consortium
Seventeen member economies including Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand are AHWP members. Recently, the AHWP was accepted as a member of the International Medical Devices Regulators Forum.

Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand are also members of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) Blueprint identifies standards and conformance as one of the technical areas for harmonization. The blueprint includes the objective to strengthen post market surveillance systems to ensure the successful implementation of the harmonized technical regulations (AEC 2008). One of ASEAN's working groups is the Pharmaceutical Product Working Group that serves as the regional harmonization initiative. The initiative aims to develop ASEAN member countries harmonization schemes of pharmaceutical regulations to complement and facilitate the objectives of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA), particularly the elimination of technical barriers to trade posed by regulations without compromising product quality, efficacy, and safety. To facilitate this regional harmonization effort, the Pharmaceutical Product Working Group has identified mutual technical areas including GMP inspection, bioavailability and bioequivalence standards, and post-marketing surveillance. ASEAN countries participate in a post-marketing alert (PMA) system. The objective of the PMA system is for ASEAN member countries to share information relating to defective or unsafe cosmetics, health supplements, traditional medicines, and pharmaceutical medicinal products. In the event of a major safety concern that results in a recall or withdrawal, the PMA system can be used to notify the various regulatory agencies in a timely manner (Rahman E 2008).

A similar PMA framework has also been developed for medical devices. Some of the region’s countries have limited capacity for medical device regulation. In the absence of adequate regulation, adverse events are not reported and when products cause harm, there is little in the way of corrective action and product recalls. So implementing the PMA for medical devices can help address some of these gaps in those countries that have limited device regulatory capacity. Under the PMA arrangement, the countries are harmonizing terminologies, standards, and reporting timelines; they also are developing systems for the use of common reporting forms and the sharing of information on quality and safety of products in the ASEAN market. In a report on the activities of the system it was identified that non-steroidal anti-inflammatory agents were the most commonly reported adulterants (45.8%). Most of the anti-inflammatory agents could have been manufactured by countries within the region or members of the regional harmonization initiative thereby providing an opportunity to deal with the problem from a regional level. An analysis of the Cambodia national medicines register showed that 89% of registered products (table 5) are manufactured in countries from the region.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Countries of Manufacture of Cambodia Registered Products</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total # of products in the Cambodia national register 10,636</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country of manufacture of products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparative Analysis of Pharmacovigilance Systems in Five Asian Countries
Bangladesh and Nepal are members of the eight member group, the South Asia Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC). Working on strategies for the establishment of common standards or harmonization of regulatory requirements for pharmaceuticals has not been discussed by this group. However, during the 2005 SAARC Third Ministerial Conference on Health, attendees requested the Technical Committee on Health and Population to prepare a plan of action in the areas of medical expertise and pharmaceuticals, harmonization of standards and certification procedures; and increased production of affordable medicines as well as traditional medicines. It is not clear how things have progressed in the work of this technical committee since then.

SAARC members established the South Asian Regional Standards Organization to develop harmonized standards to facilitate intra-regional trade and to have access to the global market. Its Sectoral Technical Committee collaborates on harmonization in the areas of food and agricultural products, textiles, and quality management (Spanta RD, Chowdhury IH, Tshering U, Mukherjee P, Shahid A, Mahat RS, Qureshi MSM 2008). Pharmaceutical-related issues have never been addressed and could be a potential area to bring the members together to set standards on medicines regulatory harmonization. The lessons learned from the other regional harmonization groups like APEC and ASEAN in building the infrastructure for achieving convergence of standards, mutual recognitions, and sharing of regulatory information are important for the SAARC as well. Table 6 provides the regional harmonization initiatives, whether they work on pharmaceuticals and medical devices or not, and the countries that are members.

Table 6. Regional Harmonization Initiatives Member Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym of the RHI</th>
<th>APEC</th>
<th>APEC</th>
<th>ASEAN</th>
<th>SAARC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Working group/committee</td>
<td>RHSC</td>
<td>AHWP</td>
<td>PPWG</td>
<td>SARSO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceuticals/medical devices part of harmonization</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participates in GCG</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Country membership

- Bangladesh
- Cambodia ✓ ✓
- Nepal ✓
- Philippines ✓ ✓
- Thailand ✓ ✓ ✓

**Poor Quality Products**

Poor quality products constitute major public health concern in the Asia region. Of 1437 samples of drugs in five classes from seven countries in Southeast Asia, 497 (35%) failed chemical analysis, 423 (46%) of 919 failed packaging analysis, and 450 (36%) of 1260 were classified as falsified (Nayyar et al. 2012). When substandard, adulterated, or falsified medicines are used treatments fail, drug resistance can occur (in the case of anti-infectives), and patients can be directly harmed from the products toxic effects. In many low and middle-income countries the need to protect the public from the adverse events associated with sub-
standard and falsified products by eliminating them from the supply chain is a major concern among health officials as well as consumers. Detection of product quality problems, harm from the use of unsafe products and actions taken by governments to extract substandard and falsified products from the market and punish offenders have been reported in developing countries across all regions (Promoting the Quality of Medicines Program 2013; Dorlo et al. 2012). In the region China and India have been mentioned as sources of poor quality products, though a government sponsored report in 2009 put the level of spurious drug in retail pharmacy in India at only 0.046% (CDSCO 2009). An IOM report suggests that information such as the number of doctor’s appointments repeated because of falsified and substandard drugs, the number of hospital beds occupied by victims of pharmaceutical crimes, premature deaths from untreated disease, and productive years lost to society from medicine poisoning can be generated by PV. When PV systems detect problems related to the safety, efficacy and quality of medicines, the opportunity exists for these signals to be followed up more thoroughly. In-depth investigations can eventually produce data on the specific consequences, including magnitude and cost, of falsified and substandard medicines (Institute of Medicine 2013).

Countries need a comprehensive and sustainable quality assurance system that prevents, detects, and responds to the presence of substandard pharmaceutical products in circulation. A quality assurance system is comprised of the structures, functions and processes, including both managerial and technical activities that monitor the quality of pharmaceuticals throughout all stages of the product cycle, from production to use. PV is part of such a system, but alone is not sufficient. Quality assurance includes inspections for compliance with GMP, assessment of documentation on product quality submitted by manufacturers for registration as well as procurement, sampling and testing of pharmaceutical products from the market and other entry points and systematic evaluation of reported product quality problems through the PV system (Alghabban 2004). Many international, regional and national efforts have been launched to address the issue of substandard and falsified products through improved information sharing and are yielding good results for the benefit of patients. On the international level, WHO-UMC regularly publishes a document called SIGNAL, which contains medicine safety signals representing varying levels of suspicions, including suspected product quality concerns, based on the Center’s analysis of the data submitted by countries worldwide into the WHO Global Individual Case Safety Reports database. Another initiative that can advance product quality information sharing in the region is the WHO Western Pacific Region (WPRO) rapid alert system as a vehicle for addressing the issues of falsified and substandard products. Regionally in Southeast Asia, the use of the PMA system by the ASEAN pharmaceutical product working group has been noted above. Individual countries can benefit greatly from information sharing on product quality issues at the international and regional levels, if they use information that is deemed relevant and applicable to the pharmaceuticals in their market to make regulatory decisions and take appropriate actions. Through information sharing, problems can be prevented or detected early, which not only saves money but also has the potential to save lives.

Challenges for Pharmacovigilance Systems in Asia

The lack of harmonized regulatory approach and differences in safety reporting requirements in the region is one of the major obstacles to PV in Asia. Another challenge is the inability of the current regulatory system to safeguard public health from incidences of falsified and substandard products in the market in the region. When the functions and operations of the regulatory authorities are reviewed or audited by government accountability offices, often the
central question is to determine the regulatory impact and effectiveness of the strategies in place for safeguarding public health. Other challenges for regulatory and PV systems in the region include how to generate and share reliable data that can be used for timely benefit and risk decision making. The ability to collect data on real-life effectiveness will contribute to efforts to understand the benefits and risks of medicines. Inability to take timely regulatory decisions to protect public health is a challenge across developing countries. Products that are withdrawn by SRAs are available in the region. In most cases the NRAs have not reviewed the continued usefulness of the products nor provided reasons lack of regulatory action. Advocates for improved access to medicines in LMICs countries use a metric called drug lag—to indicate how long it takes before an essential medicine licensed by SRAs is introduced by developing countries (Wardell 1973, Andersson 1992, Olson 2013). At the other end of the drug lag is the safety lag—how long it takes for developing countries to react to a regulatory action taken by SRAs for a product that is also marketed in their country. One of the new challenges of PV is to reduce safety lag globally. The harmonization of standards, use of common terminologies, and sharing information can help reduce safety lag and reduce continued exposure to harmful products. PV in the Asia region has to prove its utility and return on investment, for instance, reduction in medicines-related mortality and morbidity. Asia can also use PV data to determine therapeutic gaps and define goals for new medicines. Using data on real-life safety and effectiveness will make it possible to define the limitations of existing medicines in terms of therapeutic failure, toxicities, adherence challenges, inconvenient formulations, and abuse potential, and use this information to define what is required of the ideal medicine for that indication.

The lack of a harmonized regulatory approach and differences in safety reporting requirements is one of the major obstacles to PV in Asia.
Comparative Analysis of Results of Assessment of Pharmacovigilance Systems

Pharmacovigilance at the National Level

The comparative analysis of the results of the PV systems in Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, the Philippines and Thailand is presented in this section of the report. At each of the five key stakeholder groupings — national level (including the ministry of health and NRAs); public health programs (HIV and AIDS, TB, malaria, vaccine and immunization program, and mass drug administration); health facilities and service delivery level; pharmaceutical industry; and civil societies level, we reviewed and compared countries performance using the relevant indicators from the five components of a comprehensive PV system (1. Governance, Policy, Law, and Regulation, 2. System, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination, 3. Signal Generation and Data Management, 4. Risk Assessment and Evaluation, and 5. Risk Management and Communication).
Governance, Policy, Law, and Regulation

Governance

Countries were regarded as performing well in the area of governance if the following indicators were addressed—

- Existence of regulatory framework
- Existence of regulatory registries
- Governance structures mandated by the legislation/regulations and in practice

Existence of Regulatory Framework

All countries assessed were found to have at least some description of their regulatory framework. These were either defined by the national pharmaceutical policies or the pharmaceuticals sector strategic plans. The frameworks typically describe means for achieving objectives mandated by pharmaceutical legislation and regulations. For Cambodia and Nepal, the regulatory framework is not explicitly described.

Existence of Regulatory Registries

All countries have registers for products, licensed pharmaceutical premises, and licensed pharmaceutical personnel in place. Bangladesh, Cambodia, Nepal, Philippines, and Thailand have their product registers readily available through the NRA website, though some of these were only available in the local language, outdated, or only available in a database format that cannot be easily downloaded or tabulated. Investing in maintenance of record-keeping systems allows regulatory authorities to streamline workload and improve governance and transparency by making up-to-date information on medical products and regulatory activities more readily accessible to stakeholders.

Governance Structures Mandated by Regulations and in Practice

According to WHO, governance is a process of decision making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented); it involves ensuring that there is a strategic policy framework, effective oversight, coalition-building, regulation, attention to system-design, and accountability and the recognition that governments should operate in a transparent and accountable manner with high regard for rule of law (Anello 2008; WHO 2009). All countries have at least some governance structures within the pharmaceutical system that were mandated by legislation and regulations, including systems for accountability, transparency, and legislative enforcement. The assessment measured the extent to which these governance structures were implemented and in practice as mandated. Bangladesh, the Philippines, and Thailand reported having had an evaluation of regulatory systems within the past five years and a government accountability audit conducted within the last one year. Both Nepal and Cambodia reported existence of governance structures; however, neither has had an audit or evaluation to determine the extent to which they are
implemented and enforced. Of the five Asian countries, three (Bangladesh, Philippines, and Thailand) were found to have key attributes of a functioning governance system in place, including the existence of a regulatory framework, regulatory registries, and governance structures (table 7).

Table 7. PV Governance at the National Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regulatory framework</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>*</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regulatory register</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Governance structures mandated and in practice</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Exists but not assessed or fully in place

**Policy, Law, and Regulation**

**Essential Statements on PV or Medicines Safety in National Policy**

All countries surveyed have a National Medicines Policy (NMP) that address medicine safety. The NMPs contain requirements for ensuring product quality assurance (QA) (at a minimum Good Manufacturing Practices [GMP] inspection) and provisions for the control of medical product advertising and promotion. The Philippines has a specific national PV policy.

**Legal Provision for PV in the National Medicines Legislation**

All countries assessed have national medicine laws in place that include legal provisions broadly related to medicine safety. However, the regulatory requirements for pre- and post-marketing surveillance activities are found in different laws and are not always aligned with each other. The Philippines has a detailed inventory of its food and drug laws and regulations including the National Policy and Program on Pharmacovigilance (“Food and Drug Administration Philippines”). Cambodia specifically mentions PV in the legislation. Laws and regulations provide the legal basis for conducting medicines safety activities in a country, with regulations guiding implementation and enforcement of the law.

**Provisions That Mandate Market Authorization Holders to Conduct Post-Marketing Surveillance**

Cambodia, the Philippines, and Thailand, were found to have legal provisions mandating pharmaceutical industry to report suspected adverse events to the National PV Center. However, the PV requirements, where they exist, are not always consistent with international standards and vary greatly across the countries. Only the Philippines mandates that industry conduct post-marketing surveillance of specified products based on stringent regulatory authority requirements. The Philippines also requires a three-year initial registration prior to being eligible for application and approval for general use. This program is regarded as monitored release of a new medicine. In Thailand, the Safety Monitoring Program (SMP) mandates that the industry monitor the safety of new medicines for two years.
Table 8. Content Analysis of PV Regulatory Requirements for the Pharmaceutical Industry in Two Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regulation</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sections of laws and regulations related to safety of medicines†</td>
<td>Republic Act section 2 of 3720; Republic Act No. 7394; FDA Circular No. 201 3-003</td>
<td>Drug Act B.E. 2510 (1967) Section 86, 91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry reporting of serious ADEs mandated (expedited reporting required)</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reporting timelines for marketed products (serious)</td>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>24 hours (for fatal outcomes), 7 days (unexpected with fatal outcome) and 15 days (other serious AEFI/ADR)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reporting timelines for marketed products (non-serious)</td>
<td>Quarterly, 30th of first month</td>
<td>60 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Periodic safety update reports required</td>
<td>✓ every 6 months</td>
<td>✓ (for selected products)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reporting timelines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reporting timelines for clinical trials (SUSAR)</td>
<td>7 days</td>
<td>7/15 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Fatal/life threatening</td>
<td></td>
<td>24 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitoring period for new medicines required</td>
<td>✓ 3 years</td>
<td>✓ 2 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

✓ Checkmark denotes that the regulation is required in the country
† For Philippines, this is specified in the FDA Circular No. 201 3-003, not specified for Thailand

Legal Provision for Product Quality Assurance

All countries were found to have at least minimum legal provisions for the quality assurance of medicines in their national laws and regulations (table 9). To ensure the quality of products, legal provisions in a country should address product quality standards relating to manufacturing, importing, exporting, wholesale, distribution, storage, dispensing, and retail sales.

Table 9. Content Analysis of Pharmaceutical Legislation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legal provisions for product quality assurance</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal (imports)</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Laws/regulations that require GMP inspection</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO prequalification and Certificate of Pharmaceutical Product (CPP) referenced during the registration</td>
<td>Not mandatory</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Requirement that a GMP certificate is issued to manufacturers of pharmaceutical products</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Not mandatory</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laws/regulations to ensure that donated products are registered and inspected</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidelines for Good Distribution Practices in place</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Drafting</td>
<td>Drafting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Case Study 1. The Safety Monitoring Program (SMP) in Thailand

Post-marketing surveillance is particularly relevant for medicines identified as high-risk or with unknown or incomplete safety profiles among the general population or in certain high-risk groups such as pregnant women, children, the immune-compromised, and the elderly. The safety profile of new medicines at the point of market introduction is incomplete. In 1991, Thailand’s Food and Drug Administration (FDA) began implementing the Safety Monitoring Program (SMP) to monitor the safety of new medicines. SMP is intended to confirm the safety of new medicines in Thai patients by generating earlier safety signals and gathering more safety information before granting unconditional registration approval. It monitors all new medicines, including products with new chemical entities, new indications, new combinations, and new delivery systems. Under SMP, the Thai FDA grants conditional approval for registration of new medicines for a period of two years. Products with conditional status must have a blue triangular emblem displayed on the product packaging and can only be distributed through hospitals or healthcare facilities under the close supervision of physicians. During the two-year safety monitoring period, reporting of adverse drug reactions is mandatory for the pharmaceutical companies seeking full marketing authorization (Wibulpolprasert 1999). At the end of the two years, pharmaceutical companies must submit comprehensive summary reports to the Thai FDA, which may include reports of adverse drug reactions (ADRs), drug consumption, and detailed drug experiences from other countries where the product has been used. Drug products with no evidence of serious adverse events or with benefits that outweigh its risks will receive unconditional approval. The market authorization holders are then allowed to distribute the approved products through regular channels (Amrumpai et al. 2007).

Legal Provision for Control of Promotion and Advertisement

All countries in the assessment were found to have laws in place controlling the promotion and advertisement of medicines (table 10). The actual content of the legislation or the degree of their enforcement was not determined, however. NRAs should have legal provisions and guidelines to ensure that statements made about medical products through advertising and promotional activities are accurate and correspond to approve product information, including clinical indication and use. NRAs are responsible for providing independent, non-promotional information on medicines to the public and healthcare providers. Authority should be granted to NRAs to take regulatory action against industry found to be in violation of the legal provisions, recognizing the risk to patient safety posed by incomplete or misleading information and the potential for such information to strongly influence the way that medicines are purchased and used. NRAs should have ethical guidelines in place that adhere to the WHO Ethical Criteria for Medicinal Drug Promotion guidelines and serve as authoritative sources (HAI Global 2010).

Discussion

Governance involves ensuring that there is a strategic policy framework, effective oversight, coalition-building, regulation, attention to system design, and accountability and the recognition that governments should operate in a transparent and responsible manner with high regard for rule of law (Anello 2008; WHO 2009). The existence of governance systems and structures that promote transparency and accountability within national regulatory authorities, including policies, laws and regulations, provide a fundamental platform for effectively regulating the safety, quality, and effectiveness of health products, safeguarding public health, and promoting pharmaceutical sector trade and economic growth. Regulatory
frameworks define countries’ pharmaceutical regulation and governance, and include legislation, policies, guidance documents, and other governance instruments that collectively define how pharmaceuticals are regulated. Establishing regulatory registers is the first step in the process to define what is allowed in the market. The registers, depending on type (product register or list of registered pharmacies, premises, etc.) should contain minimum sets of information. For instance, WHO recommends that minimum information should include generic name, dosage form, strength, trade name, marketing authorization holder, authorization number, indications, status (new chemical entity [NCE] or non-NCE [WHO 2011]). Registers can facilitate information sharing and increases transparency if publically available (WHO 2010a).

One of the most important elements in the regulatory framework is pharmaceutical legislation, which includes statutory laws and regulations to guide enforcement activities. The framework for most countries also defines and delineates the mission and strategic objectives of the regulating authorities, their functions, the scope of products they regulate, and the outcome of their activities, typically measured in terms of promoting access and protecting public health. Many regulatory bodies have challenges in meeting the public expectations and defining stakeholders’ roles in advancing access while avoiding medical mishaps. For instance, the legal requirements for the industry should be clearly stated in the law. International standards, such as the ICH guidelines (International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use) and practices of stringent regulatory authorities including the European Medicines Agency (European Medicines Agency 2012) and US FDA, require MAH to report serious adverse events wherever their products are marketed. They also may require post-marketing surveillance or risk mitigation activities for products with significant unresolved safety concerns or for high-risk medicines. Without the necessary legal provisions in place, the safety of medicines cannot be adequately monitored; laws and regulations provide the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV or medicines safety policy</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV or medicine safety in national medicines legislation</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAH mandated by law to report serious adverse drug reactions to NRA</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAH required to conduct post-market surveillance per stringent regulatory authority standards</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal provision for product quality assurance</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Legal provision for promotion and advertisement</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* SMP mandatory requires the industry to monitor the safety of new medicines for 2 years
legal foundation for conducting and enforcing a country’s medicines safety activities with regulations guiding how laws are implemented.

According to WHO, NMP should contain several elements relating to medicine safety, including requirements for establishing PV systems and developing legislation and regulations for monitoring the safety of medicines (WHO 2004). Additionally, NMPs should include provisions related to product quality assurance and control of promotion and advertising. Such essential statements on PV may also appear in other documents, including public health program (PHP) policies or treatment guidelines. An approved national PV or medicines safety policy is the guiding document that provides the authority and mandate to monitor medicine safety and take appropriate regulatory action. To complement the policy, PV guidelines provide operational direction and standards for implementing activities, such as spontaneous reporting of adverse drug reactions (ADRs), active surveillance, provision of medicine information, and delineation and coordination of stakeholder roles and responsibilities.
PV Center or Unit with a Clear Mandate, Structure, Roles, and Responsibilities

All countries had a national PV center or unit in place operating under the Ministry of Health's medicines regulatory authority and a staff member dedicated to PV within their centers. The national PV centers in Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand had clear and documented mandates, structures, and scopes of work in terms of roles and responsibilities; whereas in Bangladesh and Nepal, the mission, vision, and function were not explicitly documented. Nepal has plans to update its NRA organizational structure to include the national and regional PV centers. Further review of the structure of the PV centers showed that the mandate, structure, and scope of activities varies across the countries and opportunities for leveraging expertise and resources throughout the NRA for safety monitoring are not exploited. The Thailand Health Product Vigilance Center (HPVC) has expanded its mandate to monitor the safety of all health products.

Budget for PV

Thailand reported having a dedicated annual budget for PV-related activities (table 11) and receives dedicated annual funding to cover its operations.

Table 11. Funding for PV Activities in Five Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dedicated budget available for PV-related activities</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Annual budgetary allocation for PV activities or PV center</td>
<td></td>
<td>Limited*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funds provided by MoH or donors toward PV activities in 2011</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Limited*</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* WHO-UMC dues only

Part of the PV funding that is available for countries is from the Global Fund. A review of Global Fund grants for round 10 shows that Cambodia and Thailand, have included activities or interventions related to PV in their disease specific or health systems strengthening (HSS) grants (table 12).
Table 12. Grants to Support PV

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Global Fund grants for PV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quality Control Lab (or Unit) with Clear Mandate, Structure, and Functions

All five countries have quality control laboratories; however, only Thailand (WHO 2013a) has WHO pre-qualified quality control laboratory facilities (table 13).

Table 13. Availability of Quality Control Lab Services in Five Asian Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existence of quality control lab (or unit) with clear mandate, structure and functions</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand†</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>QC lab (or unit) under the NRA or affiliated with the NRA</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Functions of QC lab include?</td>
<td>a, b, c, d, e</td>
<td>a, c, d, e</td>
<td>a, c, d, e</td>
<td>a, b, c, d, e</td>
<td>a, b, c, e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC lab have a documented quality management system*</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Drafted</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC lab is prequalified by the WHO</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC lab has been audited in the past five years</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a. Testing of pharmaceuticals (non-biological products)  
b. Testing of biological products such as vaccines  
c. Participation in registration activities  
d. Inspection of industry quality control labs  
e. Collaboration with the Inspectorate to test collected samples  
* based on ISO 17025  
† Accessed the WHO Public Inspection Report of the BDN http://apps.who.int/prequal/WHOPIR/pq_whopir.htm

National PV Guideline/National Standard Operating Procedures for PV and QC

Cambodia and Thailand have national PV guidelines in place. In the Philippines, the national PV policy also serves as the guidelines. The Philippines and Thailand both reported existence of standard operating procedures (SOPs) for PV and QC, though a document was not available for verification. Bangladesh and Nepal had neither guidelines nor SOPs for PV or QC. Further content review showed that national guidelines are limited to the notification system for passive reporting of suspected adverse drug reactions. Typically, the existing guidelines did not cover other PV methods like active surveillance and did not address other PMS activities like product quality surveillance, risk management, and control of advertisement and promotion.
Medicines Safety Advisory Committee and Quality Control Advisory Committee

All but one of the countries, Thailand, reported the existence of a Medicines Safety Advisory committee that meets regularly (at least once within the past year) and has a documented decision-making process. The Philippines’ 2011 PV policy calls for an advisory committee; however, the committee has not yet been formed. Only Thailand has a Medicines Safety Advisory Committee with policies addressing conflict of interest and a mandate for reviewing safety concerns associated with clinical trials. Both Thailand and Cambodia reported existence of fully functional Quality Control Committees that have met at least once in the last year.

PV Medicines Information Service

All countries report that the PV center addresses medicines safety inquiries.

Core Communication Technologies for PV/Core PV Reference Material in PV Unit/Drug Information Center

The assessment found that with the exception of Bangladesh, all countries reported the presence of basic communication technologies for medicine safety including phone, fax, internet, e-mail, computers, and software for databases that record regulatory activities like information requests received and addressed, safety alerts released, and newsletters planned and published. Except for Bangladesh and Cambodia other countries have basic medicine safety reference materials on hand within the national PV center to address medicine safety requests.

Core PV Topics in Pre-Service Training Curricula

The assessment found that, within each of the countries studied, at least one of the academic institutions sampled is providing instruction on PV topics.

PV Stakeholder Coordination Mechanism

All countries listed the national PV center as the recognized and established mechanism responsible for coordinating PV stakeholders in their country, except for Bangladesh where the PV center had been established but has limited capacity to coordinate. The assessment found that the PV centers had limited success connecting with all relevant stakeholders and engaging them to participate fully in medicine safety and prevention activities, as evidenced by the absence of adequate representation in committees; relatively low rates of AE reporting by healthcare providers, industry and consumers; and, the limited reach of medicine information communication strategies.

WHO International Drug Monitoring Programme Membership

Cambodia, Nepal, the Philippines, and Thailand are official members of the WHO International Drug Monitoring Programme. Thailand joined as an official member in 1984, followed by the Philippines in 1995, Nepal in 2006, and Cambodia in 2012 (WHO 2013b). Bangladesh intends to apply for associate membership to the Programme in 2013.3

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3 Personal communication with the Bangladesh Directorate General of Drug Administration, November 2012.
Quality Management System for PV and Quality Assurance

The assessment found that, although all countries address quality management issues within their NRAs, only the Philippines have a formal quality management system in place addressing PV and quality assurance. The Philippines FDA also has an agency-wide quality management system (QMS). Inspectors conduct PV inspections and as of the time of assessment have conducted 41,030 audits. However, the QMS may not be adequate for performing PV and quality assurance activities. As noted previously, Thailand has a QMS based on ISO 17025 for their quality control laboratory.

Thailand introduced a Performance Management and Quality Assurance system within national-level agencies, including the Thai FDA that monitors quality through key performance indicators (World Bank 2012), though the assessment found that the system is not focused specifically on medicine safety and PV within the Thai FDA or Thailand’s HPVC. Below is a summary of the country assessments for the PV component of systems, structure, and stakeholder coordination (table 14).

Discussion

National PV centers can serve as the coordination point for conducting PV activities in a country. However, the current structure of those centers fragments the related post-market surveillance and overall safety monitoring functions. Across all the countries assessed, the current system does not exploit opportunities for leveraging expertise and resources. PV centers function optimally with a dedicated budget, at least one full-time staff member (WHO recommends at least one part-time staff member (WHO)), a clear mandate and organizational structure, and well-articulated roles, responsibilities, and reporting requirements. Countries that lack PV center and basic infrastructure and capacity will not be able to reach timely informed decisions to protect their populations from the untoward and harmful effects of medications.

National quality control laboratories serve an important role in ensuring quality testing and detection of falsified and substandard medicines. Without these systems, patients and communities may be exposed to ineffective and toxic products that can lead to undesirable or even fatal consequences. However, countries do not seem to consider quality and safety issues in whole but rather across the different units of the regulatory authority and close collaboration between the regulatory units was not evident. Countries need medicine quality control laboratories in place to ensure appropriate testing and examination of products (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2009b). Moreover, countries should aim at obtaining the WHO prequalification for their national labs, which means that the laboratory is in conformity with the standards recommended by the WHO for medicines quality control (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2009b). Also for adequate functioning of national PV and quality assurance activities there is a need for guidelines and SOPs. National guidelines serve as the basis for structured and coordinated actions, according to established standards, by the various stakeholders within a PV system. They explain and support compliance with existing medicine safety laws, regulations, and policies in a country. In all the countries studied, the PV guidelines contain only basic information on the passive surveillance notification system and nothing on active surveillance. The guidelines addressed identification of spontaneously reported adverse drug reactions and do not include other sources of product-related harm, such as poor product quality, medication error, inappropriate advert and promotion. They also do not articulate the roles of all stakeholders and the need for collaborated efforts at addressing issues related
Table 14. System, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination at the National Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>System, structure, and stakeholder coordination</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV center or unit</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV center/unit has clear mandate, structure, function</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC lab/unit with clear mandate, structure, function</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV information service</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated staff for PV</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Budget for PV</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Up-to-date National Guidelines for PV</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOPs for PV and quality control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine safety advisory committee</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality control committee</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core communication technologies for PV</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core PV reference material in PV center/drug information center</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core PV topics present in the pre-service training curricula</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare workers trained on PV and medicine safety</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV stakeholder coordination mechanism</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring Membership</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality management system for PV and quality assurance</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Indicator is met by the country
* Exists but not assessed/audited or fully in place
† SOP for QC only.
Blank cells denote that the assessment was unable to confirm the status of the indicator

To product safety. SOPs help stakeholders to implement guidelines and to standardize medicine safety functions operations within the regulatory authority. Thus, it is crucial that all countries develop and implement comprehensive guidelines and SOPs for PV activities.

To support national PV centers in meeting their mandate, multidisciplinary advisory committees are required. WHO recommends that medicines advisory committees include members from related scientific disciplines, including general medicine, clinical pharmacology, toxicology, epidemiology, pathology, drug regulation and quality assurance, and drug information (WHO 2000). The committees support PV centers and NRAs with the collection and assessment of medicine safety data, evaluation of risk, and communication of medicine safety decisions and information. There is also movement to have consumers represented on advisory committees through inclusion of patient groups or civil societies active in promoting access and safe use of pharmaceuticals. Consumer representation on medicine safety advisory committees is advised as a means of fully addressing and engaging patients in the national PV system.
The responsibility for PV should be shared among multiple stakeholders within a country, including drug regulators, the pharmaceutical industry, PHPs, health service delivery providers, civil society, international technical institutions (such as WHO), regional cooperation bodies, donor organizations and the public. Many countries have had limited and fragmented interactions and coordination efforts among stakeholders. Yet, a coordination mechanism is needed to know exactly what is happening where and when and who is doing what. This will allow an efficient use of resources and avoid duplication. Regular mapping of stakeholders, meetings with representative stakeholders, and defining pathways of collaboration between parties involved can contribute to this coordination. The WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring is a global network that provides a mechanism for members to collaborate and build their capacity in PV so that early signs of medicine safety issues can be identified, information about them can be effectively shared, and appropriate actions can be taken on a global level. Membership in the program gives countries access to a database of worldwide medicine safety information, early information about potential safety hazards, data tools, and technical resources for PV (support, trainings, and guidelines). The membership requires that country must be a WHO member state; country must have a program for collection of ICSRs in place; country must have a national PV center recognized by the MoH; country has to demonstrate that it is capable of submitting data in the required format; a sample of at least 20 ICSRs collected in the national PV program should be submitted to the UMC (WHO 2010b).

Except for Bangladesh, all countries studied reported that they have core communication technologies to support their PV activities. Investments in communication technology and medicine safety reference materials within NRAs is necessary for national PV centers to receive, collate, and disseminate locally relevant medicine information and safety reporting to healthcare providers, consumers, industry, and other stakeholders.

Basic medicine safety reference materials help ensure that national PV centers have access to and can make full use of current and accurate medicine safety information to address medicine safety inquiries or generate safety communication materials and alerts. Countries may use the list of recommended core reference material for PV to benchmark their medicine safety information resources (annex F). The assessed countries are all doing well in ensuring that core PV topics are taught in pre-service programs and that health worker are trained in PV. The integration of locally relevant and contextualized PV topics into pre-service and in-service education for healthcare providers is vital to prepare them and refresh their knowledge and skills.

Because PV is a cross-cutting issue that touches on many disciplines, components of PV can be integrated into various existing courses and training programs. Public education on responsible and informed medicine use and attention to medicine safety are equally vital for a comprehensive approach to supporting the medicine safety system. Countries may refer to the list of PV topics to develop training materials for current and future healthcare professionals (annex F).
Signal Generation and Data Management

Systems for Coordination and Collation of PV Data from all Sources within a Country

With the exception of Bangladesh, all countries surveyed have a national database in place for collating ADR data and transmitting data to the WHO International Drug Monitoring Programme (table 15).

Table 15. PV Data Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Existence of a system for coordination and collation of PV data from all sources in the country</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Local database system for collating PV data from all sources</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method by which reporting forms are typically collected and transmitted to PV center or unit</td>
<td>Post</td>
<td>Electronic</td>
<td>Electronic*</td>
<td>Post/in person, electronic</td>
<td>Post, electronic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV data transmission comply with E2B format</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard dictionaries and terminologies used to transcribe reported events (i.e., WHO-ART, MedDRA)</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
<td>✓*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Via VigiFlow, the WHO-UMC ICSR management system; blank cells denote that the indicator is not met in that country

The system for the collation of PV data should enable a country to review submitted reports, identify missing data, and generate basic aggregate reports. The assessment also reviewed the data mining methods used by the different countries (table 16).
Table 16. Data Mining Methods Used in the Study Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Method used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Not available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>BCPNN*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>BCPNN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>BCPNN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>ROR†</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* BCPNN: Bayesian confidence propagation neural network (this is the WHO method and countries rely on the analysis done by the WHO)  
† ROR: reporting odds ratio

Though four countries have database systems for collating PV data from all sources, none had a centralized data warehouse for storing adverse events reports from all sources including spontaneous reports through the passive surveillance system, active surveillance data or reports, periodic safety update reports (PSURs), and development safety update reports (DSURs). Bangladesh has not fully adopted ICH E2B format or the CIOMS I form for the reporting of adverse events.

Existence of a Form for Reporting Suspected ADRs

All countries surveyed were found to have a standardized national AE or suspected ADR reporting form that is designed to collect basic adverse event information. However, these forms were limited in their availability within service delivery points. Only 35 of 86 health facilities (41%) and 13 of 62 pharmacies (21%) sampled across five countries reported existence of an ADR form within their facility. Availability of ADR forms within industry was also limited: the assessment found that 23 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (61%), 4 of 7 medical device companies (57%), and 2 of 5 clinical research organizations (40%) studied had an ADR form available.

Low rates of ADR reporting are a serious challenge in Nepal, Cambodia, and Bangladesh. The contents, format, and transmission requirement of the reporting forms vary greatly across the countries; some require the reporter to determine seriousness, causality, and electronic transmission.

The assessment found that Thailand and Philippines both have national ADR reporting forms that collect data on product quality issues, and medication error, and treatment failure.

Table 17. Signal Generation and Data Management at the National Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National PV data collation system</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer reporting form</td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspected ADR reporting form</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality reporting form</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medication error reporting form</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment failure reporting form</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td></td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
<td>✔</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Thailand has a consolidated form for the reporting of all suspected adverse events and for all health products.

Both Thailand and the Philippines have a separate and simplified consumer reporting form for suspected ADRs. Dissemination of the consumer reporting form to the service delivery level remains a challenge, particularly in Thailand, where none of the health facilities and pharmacies sampled was found to have the reporting form available. In the Philippines, only 3 of the 20 pharmacies studied (15%) had the form available, although it was found in almost half of the health facilities (11 of 23, 48%).

Discussion

The generation of safety signals is critical to detecting potentially harmful medical products, and taking appropriate regulatory action. Detecting and reporting of adverse events is the first step in a comprehensive and continuous PV monitoring process. WHO defines a medicine safety signal as “reported information on a possible causal relationship between an adverse event and a drug, the relationship being unknown or incompletely documented previously” (WHO 2000). Managing data once it is generated is equally important to allow safety risks to be evaluated, causality to be determined, and regulatory action to be taken in a timely manner. When a signal arises from one or more sources, particularly a potential signal that has significant public health importance, it should be further investigated. This process is essential both to ensure that harmful medical products are avoided and that safe and effective products remain in use.

Although countries had reporting forms available for ADR, optimal safety data reporting was affected by the low availability of reporting forms in points of service, the lack of forms to report medication error, deficient product quality, and treatment failure, and underreporting of adverse events by health professionals. Except for Thailand, in the other countries the reporting system for ADRs and product quality are separated and so is the reporting system for medical devices and vaccines separated from those of other health products.

Case Study 2. One Form for All Events in Thailand

In Thailand, the HPVC has developed one reporting form for suspected adverse events to all health products including medicines, drug/narcotics and psychotropic substance, food, cosmetic, medical device, and hazardous substance. The scope of adverse events covered by the form is adverse reactions, product quality, medication error, and treatment failure. The form is also a very good example of using a single form for spontaneous, intensive, and clinical trial reporting. While being consistent with international ICH E2B standards, the form’s checklist format promotes adverse events reporting by requiring minimal written information which facilitates easy reporting.

The use of a consolidated form for the reporting of all suspected adverse events of health products is an emerging idea at the international level. This effort led by ISO and HL7 has led to the development of ISO/HL7 27953-1:2011 as an ISO standard for data exchange and information sharing.1

The opportunities for the development of this consolidated form in Thailand may not be unconnected to the overarching mandate of its HPVC to monitor the safety of all health products.

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PHARMACOVIGILANCE SYSTEMS IN FIVE ASIAN COUNTRIES
Risk Assessment and Evaluation

**Number of Spontaneous Reports**

Significant underreporting was observed in all countries, with the exception of Thailand. Table 18 provides the number of reports received by country in 2011.

**Table 18. Actual ADR Reporting versus Expected**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>No. of ADR reports (2011)</th>
<th>Population (million, 2011)*</th>
<th>Expected (200 ADR reports per million population)†</th>
<th>% of Expected</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>150.5</td>
<td>30,100</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>2,861</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>6,097</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>3,351</td>
<td>94.9</td>
<td>18,970</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>57,573</td>
<td>69.5</td>
<td>13,904</td>
<td>414</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


† The WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring recommends that in relation to ADR reporting, the optimal National Pharmacovigilance Centre should send over 200 reports per million inhabitants per year http://who-umc.org/DynPage.aspx?id=108476&nn1=7347&nn2=7252&nn3=7322&nn4=7558

Only Thailand met and exceeded the WHO requirement for optimal National Pharmacovigilance Centre to produce 200 reports per million population (WHO). Practices that may have contributed to this success include the adoption of the number of ICSRs as a performance indicator for health facilities by the Thailand National Health Security Office, the PV promoting activities of the Adverse Drug Reaction’s Community of Pharmacy Practice (ADCoPT) which have provided a platform for reinforcing the need for reporting among pharmacists, and the Thai FDA implementation of the SMP.

Cambodia and Thailand conducted causality assessments on more than half of the adverse events reports generated through passive surveillance activities. This allowed for the further assessment and evaluation of signals that were likely to have a causal link with the associated medicine.

Active surveillance activities were found to be particularly limited among study countries (table 19). Only the NRAs in Thailand reported conducting active medicine safety surveillance in the last five years. Academia, including higher education institutions and organizations, in all countries reported conducting active surveillance activities with the exception of Cambodia. The University of Science and Technology in Bangladesh reported conducting active surveillance studies for an anti-epileptic medication, diabetic medication, and oncology medication. Industry and health facilities also reported conducting active surveillance activities in Bangladesh, Philippines, and Thailand.

Bangladesh, Cambodia, and Thailand reported conduct of product quality surveys and inspections by the NRA. None of the countries conducted studies in 2011 to quantify medication errors.
Table 19. Risk Assessment and Evaluation at the National Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spontaneous reporting ≥ expected</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICSRs with causality assessed (≥50%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality survey and inspections planned and conducted</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medication errors studied</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine utilization studies</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active surveillance activities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Medicine safety risks are typically identified within a country through signal generation activities, which require further investigation to protect patients and safeguard public health. The periodic review of suspected ADRs reported through passive surveillance and evaluation of potentially important safety signals detected through active surveillance are fundamental to any comprehensive PV and medicine safety system. A spontaneous report of a suspected ADR generates a qualitative safety signal that may warrant further investigation if the data is sufficiently complete and a causal relationship with a medical product is likely. In contrast, active surveillance generates quantitative information that provides information on the incidence (frequency) of safety events observed through various methods, including cohort event monitoring, product exposure registry, sentinel-site cohort studies, large simple trials, and other types of epidemiological studies (case-control study, cross-sectional study) (European Medicines Agency 2005; Meyboom et al. 1997). Active surveillance is particularly valuable for PHPs, such as HIV and AIDS, TB, immunization, and malaria control programs, and can provide useful information for making evidence-based decisions involving the selection of new medicines or revision of standard treatment guidelines. Study countries represent a range of capacity related to the assessment and evaluation of medical products safety signals. Risk assessment is essential in PV for it can provide the critical information needed for prompt decision making. Countries need to increase their capacities for causality assessment. Surveys on the quality of circulating medicines and related products as well as studies on medication errors are also informative PV interventions.

The five countries have their PV system as a distinct unit that does not have much interaction with the other units, particularly those involved in post-marketing surveillance for product quality, inspection, and enforcement. For example, the quality control laboratory relationship with the PV unit is weak and therefore opportunities for using the adverse events reporting form for product quality and medication error surveillance is not being exploited. Product quality surveillance generally occurs when the inspectors are out in the field to collect samples for testing. Control of advertising and promotion is also handled separately and complaints form for bogus promotional activities are nonexistent. Data collected from serious and unexpected adverse reactions during clinical trials of investigational drugs are not shared with the PV unit. Also, data from phase IV studies that have safety and effectiveness as outcome of interest is not in the national PV databases.
Risk Management and Communication

Medicine Safety Information Requests Received and Addressed in the Last Year

The assessment found that Thailand and Philippines have medicine information processes that are in place and functioning with a minimum of one information request received and responded to per month. Medicine information offices are also in place in Nepal and recently established in Cambodia, although information requests are not yet routinely received or addressed.

The assessment found that Nepal and Thailand regularly publish medicines safety bulletins. However, the countries appear to still face challenges in the dissemination of medicine safety information, including bulletins, to PV stakeholders. In Thailand, 10 of 12 (83%) health facilities sampled reported receipt of the national medicines safety bulletin in 2011, but only 14 of 62 (23%) community pharmacies received the bulletin. In Nepal, 3 of 17 (18%) health facilities and 1 of 15 pharmacies (7%) sampled reported receipt of the national medicine safety bulletin in 2011.

All countries reported use of prequalification schemes, such as the WHO Prequalification Programme, for procurement decisions related to at least some medical products, most notably the national vaccine program. In the Philippines, for example, the government considers WHO Prequalification in vaccine procurement decisions, though conducts its own local prequalification practices for procurement of other medical products, such as generic medicines.

Nepal, the Philippines, and Thailand estimated the levels of unregistered medicines in their respective markets to be less than 1%. The assessment also found that Cambodia, which closely monitors the quality of its medicines in part to proactively combat the emergence of drug resistance, estimates the levels of unregistered medicines at 30%. Bangladesh also estimates high levels of unregistered medicines within its market (Business Monitor International 2013) and, as a result, its government has been vocal and proactive in recognizing the need to address this threat to medicines quality and public health.

All countries studied reported that medical products were both sampled and analyzed for quality in national medicines laboratories in 2011 (table 20).

NRAs in Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand reported risk mitigation plans for high-risk medicines. The assessment found that of the 5 countries sampled, 10 of 19 (53%) national public health programs, 14 of 62 (23%) pharmacies, 17 of 86 (20%) health facilities, 8 of 38 (21%) pharmaceutical manufacturers, 0 of 7 medical device manufacturers, and 3 of 5 (60%) clinical research organizations have risk mitigation plans for high-risk products in place within their facilities. However, follow-up review indicated that countries have not adopted risk-based approaches as standard practice. Formal risk-based regulation is an efficient way
to focus limited resources on high-risk products and reduce regulatory burden on low-risk medicines. None of the countries have international risk management standards similar to the ISO 31000:2009 (ISO).

The Philippines and Thailand reported identification of medicine safety issues from outside sources such as other regulatory authorities including the US FDA, the EMA, and WHO. All countries reported taking at least one medicine safety action other than ADR reporting, such as issuance of safety alerts, recall of products, or withdraw of licenses within the last year. National PV centers reported that at the health facilities level, medicine safety action may be initiated by Drug and Therapeutic Committees (DTCs). All countries, with the exception of Bangladesh, were found to have at least one DTC in place that took medicine safety action to protect patient safety in 2011.

The assessment found some evidence of rapid communication methods for dissemination of medicine safety information, including posting of medicines safety alerts on NRA websites in Nepal, the Philippines, and Thailand. In Cambodia, the PV unit has an organized reporting system whereby PV focal point persons in each provincial health department and operational department are notified immediately by e-mail. Safety signals are then transmitted to health workers and the public by phone, fax, and official MoH correspondence. Encouragingly, Cambodia, the Philippines and Thailand reported alerting healthcare workers and the public of medicine safety alerts within three weeks of the detection. Through a literature review we identified that opportunities for regional information sharing on the safety and quality of products are available through the countries participation in the regional harmonization initiatives (RHIs). The PMA system of the ASEAN member countries can be used to notify the various regulatory agencies in a timely manner about defective or unsafe health products. However, at the time of the study, none of the ASEAN member countries studied was actively sharing information through the PMA system.

### Table 20. Number of Medical Products Sampled and Analyzed for Quality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Medicines sampled that were analyzed for product quality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. sampled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>3,720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>1,837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>4,298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>2,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blank denotes no data

### Table 21. Public Communication Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Public or community education activities related to medicine safety carried out in the last year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>None through NRA; training and communication through pharmacist association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Media spots in newspaper; publication of drug bulletin; training on Good Dispensing Practice through Nepal Pharmacist association.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Publicly available trainings through Philippines FDA Academy; training and communication through professional associations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Public meeting on GMP; BE/BA 3-5 times per year; training and communication through professional associations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The PV centers in Nepal, Philippines, and Thailand reported conducting patient education activities related to medicine safety monitoring in 2011. In those three countries, as well as Bangladesh, professional associations were also involved in education activities, namely training and communication (table 21).

The assessment found that all of the countries surveyed had taken regulatory actions of some kind in addition to ADR reporting in 2011 (tables 22 and 23). The most common actions taken were changes to the EML, medicine formulary, or STGs; and issuances of safety alerts (or Dear Doctor letter/Dear Healthcare Professional letter). In only a few countries were products recalled, product licenses withdrawn, or marketing authorizations suspended—actions generally only taken in extreme cases. In comparison, Singapore Health Sciences Authority in 2011 issued 229 label changes, 23 product safety alerts, 6 product recalls, and 29 Dear Healthcare Professional letters.

Table 22. Other Medicine Safety Regulatory Actions Taken Besides ADR Reporting in 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NRA action taken</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Label or package insert changes/boxed warning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment guidelines, medicine formulary, or EML changes</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoH memo or circular referencing safety data</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product recalls</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Withdrawal of product license</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspension of marketing authorization</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk management activities recommended due to safety data</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dear Dr. Letters or safety alerts issued</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blank cell denotes that no action was taken.
Table 23. Risk Management and Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medicine safety information requests addressed</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regularly published medicines safety bulletins</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prequalification schemes used in procurement decisions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unregistered medicines in pharmaceutical market &lt;3%</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicines sampled and analyzed for product quality &gt;95%</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk mitigation plans for high-risk medicines</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine safety issues identified from external sources and acted on</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time from ADR signal generation to communication to healthcare workers and public &lt;3 weeks</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public or community education activities on PV</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine safety action taken other than ADR reporting</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drug and therapeutic committees addressed medicine safety issues</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blank denotes that the indicator is not achieved.
Product Quality Surveillance

This section consolidates the findings and analysis of the situation with monitoring the quality of products at the national level. There are opportunities for addressing product quality at each stage of the pharmaceutical management cycle. At the procurement stage, the use of prequalified suppliers, including medicines prequalified under the WHO Prequalification of Medicines Programme, and mandatory product registration help to prevent substandard and falsified products from entering the supply system. The study found that all five of the countries used prequalification schemes in some capacity in medicine procurement decisions. With respect to product registration, all of the countries required product registration with three of the five reporting that unregistered products represented less than 3% of the products in the pharmaceutical market. During distribution and storage, product quality surveillance monitoring includes shipment inspections, facility inspections and routine sampling and testing. Only 2 countries have good distribution practices (GDP) guidelines, while 2 others say the GDP is in draft. The study found that Bangladesh, Cambodia and Thailand reported both planning and conducting product quality surveys and inspections.

Although active quality surveillance activities can effectively prevent many unsafe medicines from making their way through the various levels of the supply chain to the service delivery points and the patients themselves, a comprehensive quality assurance system must also have mechanisms in place to detect problems at the point of use through the voluntary reporting of healthcare workers, patients and consumers. A voluntary reporting system, which represents the passive approach to product quality surveillance, can empower health workers and consumers to report products of suspected poor quality (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2011). It is especially important for countries to implement, and maximize the benefits of the passive approach to product quality surveillance, particularly when their active quality surveillance activities are weak or limited in scope. The study found that only two of the countries—the Philippines and Thailand—have a standardized product quality reporting form, which health workers and consumers can use to report directly to the national PV program. Although some health facilities surveyed in all of the countries responded that they have a product quality reporting form for health workers, it was not confirmed if those reports were submitted to the national PV program or remained within the facility. Product quality reporting forms from pharmaceutical companies, which presumably are submitted directly to the companies rather than to the national PV program, are reportedly more common in the five countries. Although the results of the study suggest product quality reporting to the national PV programs in the five countries needs to be improved across all groups, consumer reporting appears to be the weakest. Reports of outbreaks of serious adverse events, which are suspected of being related to product quality, will typically require an investigation of causality and attribution of the adverse events to the suspected product. These investigations include product quality analysis by national medicines quality control activities.
laboratories and other qualified laboratories—at times working in collaboration with technical partners, such as the USP/PQM program—that have the capacity to conduct the necessary tests. All five of the countries in the study have a national quality control laboratory or unit for product quality testing; however, only two of the countries’ labs had verifiable capacity and performance: the Philippines and Thailand. The labs in those two countries reportedly have quality management systems in place for QA/QC and have been audited within the past five years. They also reported analyzing more than 95% of the samples they received, as did Cambodia’s national lab. The labs in Bangladesh and Nepal analyzed 69% and 83% of samples, respectively.

After a quality problem is confirmed by a qualified laboratory, safety concerns related to the product quality still need to be evaluated using epidemiological studies to confirm attribution, quantify incidence and establish possible risk factors. Functional medicine safety systems need to have the capacity and resources to conduct, or outsource, both laboratory and epidemiological investigations in order to fully understand signals generated from adverse events so that the necessary alerts can be communicated and shared. In developing countries, where the national PV systems and regulatory authorities may not be adequately staffed and resources are limited, academic or research institutions in the country with the relevant skills and expertise may be enlisted to conduct the epidemiological studies. In developing countries a majority of ADRs are in fact related to product quality issue. It is important that coordination between PV centers and QC labs should be strong and both should share information. In reality in countries with good PV systems, it’s often the PV center who should that communicates information to QC lab which is responsible for analyzing the quality of products. The QC labs usually receive medicines from different sources; usually – Pre-market authorization, post-market surveillance, routine inspections, and complains. Many health programs such also run quality monitoring programs (e.g., those receiving support from donors like USAID, or under obligation from the Global Fund), so in reality quality monitoring is not only limited to post-market surveillance, so the reporting mechanism between PV center and QC lab should be going both ways. This is also to say that without having quality control capacity in developing countries, most AEs will not be assessed effectively because a big majority of AEs are linked to product quality. PV should be considered as part of quality assurance pillars in developing countries. Select indicators related to product quality assurance in the five countries assessed are provided in the table below.

**Discussion**

Regulatory authorities are expected to receive and respond to medicine information requests from the PV stakeholders in their country. Half of the countries assessed had functioning drug information systems. NRAs should be equipped and staffed accordingly to provide medicine information to the public. It is also important for the NRA to publicize the availability of medicine information service to ensure its optimal use by the public. A key tool for medicine safety communication is the regular publication and distribution of medicine safety alerts and newsletters, particularly medicine safety information and alerts of local relevance. The alerts may be detected within the country through safety surveillance, published in the WHO Pharmaceuticals Newsletter or released by regional regulatory authorities and stringent regulatory authorities, such as the EMA and US FDA. Newsletters should be regularly published in print as well as electronically and distributed via the NRA or PV Center’s website; electronic methods, such as e-mail list serves; and, more traditional methods, such as mailings. The assessment findings suggest that current efforts to publish
and disseminate the national medicines safety bulletins are reaching some stakeholders within the PV system but not all, representing missed opportunities to communicate medicine safety information to the point of care, particularly within community pharmacies.

Countries should safeguard their market by ensuring that unregistered medicines are not in circulation and that registered medicines in the country's supply chain are analyzed and are of good quality. Measuring the volume of products analyzed together with the percentage of analyzed samples that failed quality standards can indicate the extent of product quality problems among the medicines circulating in the country. When tracked longitudinally, countries can determine whether the problem has increased or decreased over time. National medicines laboratories should not only test medicines submitted for analysis but also actively sample medicines from the market for testing.

Medicine safety events can be either minimized or prevented when clear plans exist for avoiding serious known risks of medicines, at both the NRA and health facility level. Some medicines are considered high risk because they are known to cause significant adverse events when prescribed incorrectly or used in error (Institute for Safe Medication Practices).

**Table 24. Summary of Indicators related to Product Quality Assurance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal provisions for product quality assurance</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prequalification schemes used in medicine procurement decisions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unregistered medicines in pharmaceutical market &lt; 3%</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality reporting form</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existence of a quality control laboratory (or unit) with clear mandate, structure and functions</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality Control Advisory Committee</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality management system for QA/QC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidelines for Good Distribution Practices in place</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>Drafting</td>
<td>Drafting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality survey and inspections planned and conducted</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicines sampled and analyzed for product quality (&gt;95%)</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine safety issues identified from external sources and acted on</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blank cell denotes that no action was taken.
Risk mitigation plans are used to prevent and manage ADRs by averting serious known risks of medicines. Such plans allow for targeted, resource-efficient approaches to managing known risks associated with medicines in which therapeutic benefit outweighs known risks, such as certain oncology medications. Using limited PV resources for high-risk medicines can improve the ability of the countries to efficiently safeguard public health.

Tracking external safety alerts from stringent PV systems such as US FDA and EMA is a cost-effective approach to reach life-saving regulatory decisions. Equally important is the rapid communication of relevant safety information to stakeholders from the national PV centers, which should be established as an authoritative source of information. Medicine safety information is only effective in safeguarding the public’s health if appropriate regulatory actions are taken in response to safety threats. Regulatory actions, other than ADR reporting, may include label or package insert changes; revisions to the EML, medicine formulary, or standard treatment guidelines; circulation of MOH memos referencing safety data; product recalls; withdrawals of product licenses; suspension of marketing authorizations; adoption of risk management activities; and, dissemination of safety alerts.

**Case Study 3. Cambodia’s Success in Containing Unregistered Medicines**

Controlling the sale of unregistered drugs on the market is a challenge for all countries, particularly those operating in resource-constrained settings. In Cambodia, the Department of Drugs and Food reports having capacity to identify the number of unregistered medicine in retail outlets, pharmacies and drug stores. Faced with the emergence of resistance to drugs such as antimalarials, the country has been proactive in closely monitoring the quality of medicines. Thanks to these efforts, the proportion of unregistered drugs has fallen sharply from 30%* to 3%.**

** MoH, DDF 2012
PV Capacity at the National Level

Figure 3 represents the current situation and capacity of the PV systems at the national level by countries as demonstrated by the assessment findings, which measured the degree to which the countries had the key elements of a comprehensive PV system within each of the five main components. Stronger capacity is depicted by distance further from the center of the diagram, on a scale of 0 to 100%. As illustrated in the chart, Thailand has the greatest capacity, achieving 100% in three of the five PV components and over three-quarters in the other two. The Philippines also demonstrates strong capacity in four of the five areas; however, its capacity in risk assessment and evaluation is negligible, pointing to a suggested priority for their future efforts to strengthen the overall system. Although Bangladesh scores low in four of the five PV components, the strength of its capacity in policy, law, regulation, and governance provides a foundation and starting point for building up the other components of its PV system.

Figure 3. National PV Systems Capacity in Five Asian Countries
Options for Strengthening Pharmacovigilance at the National Level

Based on the findings from the individual country assessments and the review of the PV systems in the Asia region, we have provided options to be considered for addressing the limitations across the studied countries and in the region. In determining the most appropriate options, the level of development of the regulatory and PV system in the country should be considered.

**Strengthening Regulatory Policies and Framework**

Regulatory policy should articulate government’s vision, principles, and practices for ensuring quality and safety of products. It should include governance clauses to ensure improved transparency of the functioning of the advisory committees, the participation of civil societies, protection for adverse event reporters, performance metrics for the regulatory authority to be held accountable, and evaluation of the impact of regulations. The regulatory frameworks of the countries studied were not explicitly stated by the NRAs. The Philippines has a National Policy and Program on Pharmacovigilance, which is a place to start but an overarching pharmaceutical regulatory policy may still be needed. With regards to the legislation, some aspects of the regulatory requirements for pre- and post-marketing surveillance activities are either very dated or nonexistent. These findings are consistent with the view expressed by a recent IOM report that some resource-constrained countries have no laws governing product safety; others have laws that are confusing and contradictory (Institute of Medicine 2012).

The studied countries have the following options based on the level of development of their regulatory and PV systems for strengthening their regulatory policy and framework—

- Develop new pharmaceutical regulatory policies and frameworks to ensure that regulations are effective and in the public interest or revise and consolidate the existing ones.
- Streamline sections of existing legislation that deal with aspects of medicines quality, safety, and post-marketing surveillance. Ensure that legislations are congruent with other relevant local laws or embark on regulatory reform and the development of entirely new legislations that will address emerging challenges for ensuring safety of health products.

**Ensuring Convergent Regional and International Regulations**

PV regulatory requirements among the countries vary a great deal. For instance, countries do not consistently require industry reporting of serious adverse events and the timelines for reporting these varies. Requirements for the submission of periodic safety update reports are
also varied. PV regulations that are not similar with those of stringent regulatory authorities (SRAs) or other competent regulatory authorities and are too demanding to meet can be an impediment to access to medicines. Conversely regulations that are too lax can expose patients to harm (Lebega O, Nwokike J 2012).

Options for countries for developing regulations convergent within the Asian region—

- Map differences and provide guidance on regulations that the country considers as equivalent to regional and international standards or develop guidance to industry to explicitly document regional equivalencies.

- Alternatively, countries can completely revise their PV legislation to make them convergent with that of stringent regulatory authorities and also consistent with the regional harmonization guidelines within the Asia Pacific region and other international guidelines. Some requirements countries could consider for convergence with SRA requirements and consistency within the region include timelines for reporting serious adverse events, PSURs, safety reporting during clinical trials, medical device vigilance regulations, use of the common technical document for registration application, requirements for PV plans and risk management plans, requirement for industry to conduct post-authorization studies, PV inspections and audits, and methods for benefit and risk assessments.

**Improving Information Sharing and Participation in Regional Harmonization Initiatives**

The globalization of pharmaceutical production and distribution activities and the increasing complexities of the products make the need for collaboration among regulatory authorities critical. When individual regulatory authorities repeatedly inspect manufacturers already inspected by others and fail to learn from the experiences of other regulators, there is duplication and lost resources. Mutual recognition, criteria-based prescreening or prequalification, and confidentiality agreements for regulatory information sharing are efficient strategies to avoid duplicative activities. These strategies are part of the objectives of regional harmonization initiatives. The ASEAN pharmaceutical product working group allows participants to coordinate their regulatory requirements and information sharing on the safety and quality of pharmaceutical products. However, countries seem to only participate in these initiatives including the mutual recognition agreement on GMP inspections and PMA system on a limited basis. The PMA presents an excellent opportunity for collaboration to safeguard the supply chain in the member countries. When safety concern that results in a recall or withdrawal happens, the system is used to notify the various regulatory agencies through the focal persons appointed by each country.

Options for improving participation in regional harmonization initiatives—

- The ASEAN pharmaceutical product working group should consider strengthening the PMA for collaboration and information sharing about product security in the supply chain by ensuring active participation and/or expand the program to cover the entire Southeast Asia region. The PMA should review its current functions, identifying opportunities for improvement and the participation of member countries. The review will help in setting up procedures and protocols. To improve its system, the ASEAN working group can review the functioning of the pharmaceutical Inspection Co-Operation Scheme Procedure for Handling Rapid Alerts and Recalls Arising from Quality Defects (PIC/S 2011) the WHO drug safety alert system, and the United...
Reforming Organizational Structure to Achieve Integrated Safety Surveillance

Regulatory efficiency can be gained by restructuring the current operations of the post-marketing surveillance activities within the regulatory system. Countries should explore opportunities to review the structure for post-marketing regulatory activities. Across all the countries assessed, the current system is fragmented and opportunities for leveraging expertise and resources are not exploited.

Options for countries may include—

- Create a single vigilance center that can facilitate the integration of adverse events reporting for all health products. This has been implemented by Thailand through its HPVC. Also the Singapore Health Sciences Authority in 2009 renamed the Pharmacovigilance Branch as the Vigilance Branch. The Singapore authority said that this was important because the Vigilance Branch has expanded scope of safety monitoring of all health products since the same underlying principles of safety monitoring and risk management/mitigation applied to drugs are also applied to the other health products (Health Sciences Authority). This option, however, does not guarantee that all units involved in post-marketing monitoring will collaborate.

- Consolidate post-marketing surveillance department that brings together PV, product quality surveillance, routine inspections, and control of advert and promotion into a single unit. This will ensure that the different regulatory units dealing with these issues are placed under the same department.

- Enhance safety information sharing that may ensure that all regulatory units have systems in place to share databases and regulatory intelligence. Whatever option is preferred, restructuring should aim at developing an integrated surveillance system that is efficient and that supports the consolidation of all information about the safety of a product.

Ensuring Efficient Safety Surveillance and Reduction of Regulatory Burden

Some of the assessed countries’ laws are redundant or too overreaching and the countries do not have the capacity to enforce them. When regulations are not enforced, it weakens the motivation for compliance. Countries can reduce regulatory burden and achieve efficiency through risk-based and risk proportionate regulations by adapting international risk
management standards like the ISO 31000:2009. In an effort to reduce administrative burden, the United Kingdom MHRA introduced a system of self-certification by the industry for low-risk medicines license variations (National Audit Office 2008). The authority also has a risk-based approach to PV inspections (Medicines and Healthcare Products Regulatory Authority 2013). The Australian Therapeutic Goods Administration introduced a risk-based approach for regulating over-the-counter medicines. Countries should also reform their systems to consolidate reporting requirements on the industry. Fewer forms lead to a reduction in administrative and regulatory burden.

Possible options for countries to ensure efficient safety surveillance include—

- Explore opportunities for incorporating regulatory impact analysis as part of their regulatory system. This will ensure that the economic impact of new regulations and the determination of the cost-benefit of regulatory requirements are made part of the regulatory practice.
- Identify the most efficient ways to protect the population from unsafe products with minimal regulatory burden and using the limited resources available.
- Develop systems to ensure that PV regulations and enforcement efforts are risk proportionate or implement risk-based approaches using relevant criteria which may include the country of manufacture, falsification profile, storage and stability of the product, inspection history, and regulatory intelligence from other NRAs.

**Improving Funding for PV**

The assessment found that funding for PV is very limited. With limited budgets, regulatory authorities should revisit how they use the existing resources to achieve their mission to safeguard the public. Many countries have lopsided way of allocating their resources favoring registration over enforcement and post-marketing surveillance activities. In the United States, the US IOM committee on assessment of the US drug safety system found an imbalance in the regulatory attention and resources available before and after approval. Staff and resources devoted to pre-approval functions are substantially greater. Less than 10% of products many regulatory authorities in LMICs register are new medicines that have never been registered elsewhere and therefore require full reviews. If countries reduce the need for duplicative reviews and inspections, they may have more resources for monitoring the safety and effectiveness of the products and enforcing regulatory actions.

Typically this is seen in terms of lack of dedicated budget for PV or the lack of staff dedicated to drug safety. Only Thailand confirmed that they have dedicated budgets available for PV activities. However, the consensus is that there is the need to develop innovative and rational means for funding regulatory and drug safety activities.

Options to countries for improving funding for PV include—

- Review resource allocation and use to determine the value for money for regulation and determine an evidence-based approach to resource allocation to regulatory function.
- Consider improving allocation to PMS including in-country product quality surveillance, licensing, in-country inspection, and enforcement activities.

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- Identify other sources of funding. Options that exist include full public funding of PV or user fees charged to the industry, or some blending of these approaches. Germany and France use the full public funding option for all their regulatory activities, France case may be related to the benfluorex case of increased risk of heart valve diseases. In the EU, the introduction of the new legislations Directive 2010/84/EU and Regulation 1235/2010 requires the EMA to charge user fees for its PV services. The proposed fees include yearly service fee per product; fees for PSUR and post authorization safety studies (PASS), and referrals assessments. From the third reauthorization of the US Prescription Drug User Fee Act in 2002, the FDA is empowered to spend part of the fee on drug safety activities. The act versions IV and V have expanded the FDA’s drug safety responsibilities and also the resources allocated. Funding PV through user fees charged on the industry is controversial because of concerns about potential conflicts of interest (HAI Europe 2012).

- Use of percentage of sales turnover. This method has been used in drug relief funds in Taiwan and Japan. To address the issue of additional funding for PV activities, a first step could be for governments in the studied countries to meet with stakeholders and discuss options.

**Developing Comprehensive PV Guidelines**

Countries should revise their PV national guidelines to make them more encompassing and address all issues related to safety and quality of medical products. Comprehensive national PV guidelines should address therapeutic ineffectiveness, medication errors, medical device vigilance, monitoring safety of blood products, control of promotional activities, and other emerging issues. The guidelines should also provide for the use of other epidemiological methods including active surveillance and large simple studies to complement passive surveillance. The national guidelines discuss the role of civil societies, conflict of interest, declaration of assets, and confidential financial disclosure by safety advisory committee members. The guidelines should also, prescribe procedures for meetings and contacts between the NRA and the regulated industries, dissemination of NRA deliberations/freedom of information, ombudsman, and existence of transparency measures and indicators.

Options for developing the guidelines may include—countries could revise existing guidelines or develop government circulars to address areas not included in the current guidelines. Alternatively, new comprehensive national PV guidelines could be developed by engaging the participation of all stakeholders and ensuring adequate buy-in from the regulated industry and government commitment to safeguard the safety of everyone exposed to all health products.

**Strengthening Spontaneous Reporting**

The assessment found that countries have approved national ADR forms, but their availability at the health facilities is limited. Only Thailand achieved the number of reports recommended by WHO. Several strategies can be used to strengthen reporting to facilitates signal generation and evaluation. Generated signals allow risk management to prevent further harm from the product. With the increasing diffusion of modern information technology it is clearly within reach to set up integrated health products surveillance system that will help improve understanding of medicines’ safety and effectiveness during real-life use and also monitor quality of products in the supply chain.
Possible options for strengthening spontaneous reporting include—

- Use of information technologies for improving reporting include the adoption of online reporting forms, interactive PDF forms, reporting through electronic medical records, and cell phone text messaging. Cell phones are widely deployed in the countries studied, measured in terms of mobile cellular subscriptions per 100 inhabitants in 2010, except for Nepal (30.69). Philippines (85.7), and Thailand (100.8), have high cell phone diffusion that can be a good tool for post-marketing safety surveillance activities. Consumers can send reports of adverse events they think are related to medicines they used or report products with suspicious quality. These reports can be sent through prepaid lines. This type of system is currently being implemented in other countries (mPedigree).

- Adopt international standards for reporting. Assessed countries have not fully adopted ICH E2B format or the CIOMS I forms for the reporting of adverse events. The international safety reporting standard used by the SRAs and WHO for ICSRs is the ICH E2B standard.

- Explore opportunities to consolidate or streamline reporting forms for all health products (drugs, biologics, vaccines, and medical devices) and for reporting on safety and quality issues. The Thai FDA HPVC has a single form for reporting events related to all health products. Countries should also strengthen their data management capabilities to be able to consolidate or at least have easy access to pre- and post-authorization safety data on key products. This will allow for the construction of a more comprehensive safety profile for those medicines. Data from development safety update reports, spontaneous reporting system, and PSURs should be made easily available for review for taking regulatory decisions. A pre-registration clinical trial safety database can be a useful reference for flagging safety concerns that should be prioritized for post-marketing studies, thereby using the complementary roles of the pre-market and post-market safety data (O’Neill 1998). The HPVC single form for all events is also used for adverse events reporting in clinical trials.

- Develop online database for managing reports. The EMA has the EudraVigilance which is a data processing network and management system for reporting and evaluating suspected adverse reactions (EudraVigilance). The EU recently launched the European database of suspected ADR reports. The database is in most of the EU languages and provides immediate reports on reported suspected ADRs of medicines and several other reports that can be viewed through an interactive online PDF.

- Develop regional PV centers. Adverse events reporting can be improved by designating regional PV centers, particularly in university hospitals where there is access to qualified physicians, pharmacists, and nurses. In South Korea, the adverse events reporting pattern was dramatically improved with the expansion of the regional PV centers (Kimura et al. 2011). Other options include raising public awareness of medicines safety and adverse events reporting among professional and consumers associations. This option can be beneficial in countries where the associations are already engaged in PV activities like the Thailand Adverse Drug Reaction's Community of Pharmacy Practice.

- Countries should consider adapting the Thailand Safety Monitoring Program or related programs to ensure the safety of new medicines introduced in their countries. Although the SMP has not been evaluated since it was established in 1991; anecdotal
reports indicate that the program has helped to improve adverse events reporting for new medicines and improved watchfulness for better understanding of the safety profile of the new medicine. Similar schemes by other regulatory authorities include the EMA black triangle, Japan Early Post-Marketing Phase Vigilance, and the China SFDA requirement for a five-year monitoring period for new medicines. These programs are specifically for new chemical entities or new routes and new indications for existing medicines. Re-examination or re-evaluation after such intensive monitoring provides opportunities to review the safety profile of the product again before allowing it to be used more widely.

**Confronting Falsified and Substandard Products**

Both passive and active methods are required for confronting the public health challenges of falsified and substandard medicines and health products. Passive method enables the reporting of products of suspected poor quality through the use of adverse events form by both health workers and consumers. The active approach to quality surveillance includes pre- and post-marketing activities that are conducted during production, procurement, distribution and storage of pharmaceutical products, before they reach the point of use. Pre-marketing activities include chemistry, manufacturing and control (CMC) management and GMP inspections of pharmaceutical manufacturers to identify potential quality problems during the production phase. At the procurement stage, the use of prequalified suppliers, including medicines prequalified under the WHO Prequalification of Medicines Programme, and mandatory product registration help to prevent substandard and falsified products from entering the supply system. Options for improving the monitoring of product quality include:

- National PV systems have traditionally focused on ADR reporting while product quality monitoring programs have been implemented in parallel, with limited coordination or integration of the two. This separation in the reporting and management of adverse events and product quality issues represents a missed opportunity, which limits the effectiveness and efficiency of a quality assurance system. PV systems are an optimal platform for the implementation and management of reporting of suspected product quality problems by health workers, patients and consumers as part of countries’ overall quality assurance efforts. Many countries, including the United States, use their adverse events reporting system for the reporting of suspected product quality issues, including the use of the same form for both reports. Consolidating reporting within PV systems in this respect can be beneficial to developing countries, particularly to the extent that it makes the system more efficient and contributes to increase reporting. For the PV system, the integration of the two reporting mechanisms, including the use of a single standardized form, reduces the number of forms that need to be designed, implemented and managed and facilitates cross-referencing of report information related to the same product, but generated through the two different types of reports. For health workers, patients and consumers, a single form designated for their particular use and a single reporting procedure facilitates the process for them and reduces confusion, which might otherwise discourage them from reporting. It can also help with the leveraging of resources for both investigation and enforcement on the part of the regulatory authority. In the Philippines and Thailand which have product quality reporting forms for health workers and consumers to report directly to the PV program, the forms are integrated into, or are a subset of, the adverse events reporting form, as recommended here.
Donors and SRAs should consolidate their support to expand the activities of the WHO rapid alert system as a vehicle for addressing the issues of falsified and substandard products. Cambodia and the Philippines are already participating in this program. A recent IOM report recommends that consistent use of the rapid alert form and eventually linking it to national PV systems would advance international discourse and give a more nuanced understanding of the extent and type of falsified, substandard, and unregistered medicines that circulate around the world (Institute of Medicine 2013).

Donors and SRAs should provide support to NRAs of the studied countries to improve their regulatory systems and enforcement capabilities for addressing false products. The NRAs should also be supported to develop new legislations that can positively support efforts in this direction including the requirement for traceability for pharmaceutical products. The industry could be required to implement barcoding and other strategies to track and trace products. Barcoding can also facilitate product recalls and improve patient safety. A couple of LMICs regulatory authorities recently required barcoding of pharmaceutical products. Countries should empower consumers to be watchful vanguard for product quality. The assessment identified the key use of the reporting platform of PV to support product quality reporting. As more consumers become more familiar with these reporting tools, they should be empowered to be the watchdog for fake products.
PV Results in Public Health Programs

The assessment included interviews with representatives from 19 national HIV and AIDS, malaria, TB, and immunization programs across five countries.

Policy, Law, and Regulation

Among public health programs assessed, 16 of 19 (84%) reported having a policy document for PV or medicine safety and a policy document for product quality assurance.

Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination

Among public health programs analyzed, 37% were found to have a PV group or unit assigned responsibility for monitoring medicine safety within the program. And all but one of those reported that the PV unit had an official document with clear mandate, organizational structure, roles, responsibilities, and reporting lines. Two PHPs additionally reported having at least one dedicated staff member responsible for PV or medicine safety activities, for a total of 47%. Fifty three percent reported existence of a unit that provides query response service on ADRs and medicine safety information.

Funding for PV-related activities was found to be limited among PHPs within the five countries studied, with only 26% found to have dedicated funds available. Several PHPs reported having SOPs (53%) and guidelines (58%) in place that addressed elements of PV. In Cambodia and Thailand, where a national PV guideline exists, the assessment found that only 43% of PHPs reported having knowledge of their national PV guidelines. Two PHPs in Cambodia and one PHP in Nepal (16%) reported having a safety advisory committee or unit that is responsible for monitoring and discussing medicine safety related issues within the program that met at least once in 2011, has clear guidelines for decision making, and a guideline on conflict of interested related to decision making. Nearly all of the PHPs sampled were reported having basic communication technologies available to improve access to safety reporting and provide medicine information (84%) and a third have core medicine safety reference materials available and in use (63%). In all countries, healthcare providers such as physicians, pharmacists, and nurses within PHPs were trained on PV and medicine safety in 2011, for a total of 58%. Most (79%) were familiar with the national PV center as the coordinating body for PV within the countries studied and saw a role for their program in ensuring medicine safety within their program (table 25).

Signal Generation and Data Management

Less than half of the PHPs studied (42%) reported keeping a log or database of PV data collected and transmitting data to the national PV center. In some cases, PHPs were found to be conducting signal generation activities, yet failing to submit the ADR reports to the national PV center for analysis and regulatory decision making. Of the PHPs assessed, 58% had a national ADR form on hand within their program at the time of the assessment. Very
Table 25. Results of System, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination in Public Health Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Responses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV unit in place</td>
<td>7/19 (37%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least one staff member responsible for PV activities</td>
<td>9/19 (47%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit that provides query response service on ADRs</td>
<td>10/19 (53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Funding available</td>
<td>5/18 (26%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOPs that address elements of PV</td>
<td>10/19 (53%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guidelines that address elements of PV</td>
<td>11/19 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic communication technologies available</td>
<td>16/19 (84%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine safety reference materials available</td>
<td>12/19 (63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare providers trained on PV activities</td>
<td>11/19 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare providers familiar with national PV center</td>
<td>15/19 (79%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Few (29%) collected information on product quality, medication errors (0%), or treatment failure (21%), in large part because of the lack of ADR national collection forms (table 26).

**Risk Assessment and Evaluation**

None of the PHPs studied were found to collect spontaneous ADR reports at expected levels—100 reports per million of the PHP’s patient population—and also report those ADRs to the national PV center. The national immunization program in Bangladesh reported collecting 1,100 adverse events following immunization reports in 2011 against a patient population of 3.7 million children vaccinated, for example, though none of the reports were transmitted to the national PV unit. Two PHPs in Thailand documented adverse events within more than 1% of their patient population or more in 2011.

Risk assessment and evaluation activities in the PHPs studied were minimal. In 2011, three conducted product quality surveys, one conducted a medication error survey, and four conducted medicine utilization surveys. Half of the PHPs (8 of 16) reported active surveillance activities, though some activities were potentially targeted to disease instead of medicines safety surveillance.

**Risk Management and Communication**

Very few PHPs reported receiving at least one request per month for medicine safety information in 2011 (11%). In Thailand and Nepal, where the PV centers regularly publishes a medicine safety newsletter, only three of eight PHPs received the bulletin. Nearly all PHPs (89%) reported considering prequalification schemes such as the WHO prequalification or the Pharmaceutical Inspection Cooperative Scheme when making medicines procurement decisions, frequently linked to the procurement of products through donor mechanisms requiring such controls. Only about one-third of PHPs studied submit medicines for quality testing. In some countries, including Nepal, standard QC testing was not conducted prior to products’ distribution in country when products were provided by reputable donors including the Global Fund because of an assumption that the quality of such products are already assured and medicine safety surveillance is therefore not necessary or beneficial to the program. Risk management plans are currently in place that is targeted at high-risk medicines in (53%) programs (table 27).
Table 26. Results of Signal Generation and Data Management in Public Health Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Responses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Database of PV data</td>
<td>8/19 (42%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National ADR form</td>
<td>11/19 (58%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect information on product quality</td>
<td>4/14 (29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect information on medication error</td>
<td>0/14 (0%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collect information on treatment failure</td>
<td>3/14 (21%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27. Results of Risk Management and Communication in Public Health Programs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Responses (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received at least one request per month for medicine safety information</td>
<td>2/19 (11%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported consideration of prequalification schemes when making medicines procurement decisions</td>
<td>17/19 (89%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submit medicines for quality testing</td>
<td>1/3 (33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk management plans in place</td>
<td>10/19 (53%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Limitations were found among PHPs related to managing medicine safety information. Only one PHP reported identifying medicine safety issues of local relevance from outside sources such as the WHO, EMA, FDA, or other relevant Asian sources in 2011. Better communication channels were found to be in place between PHPs and healthcare workers and the public. More than half of the PHPs studied (10 of 19 [53%]) reported less than three weeks between identification of a significant safety issue such as a serious adverse event and communication to healthcare workers and the public. Eleven conducted training related to medicine safety or PV in 2011. Medicine safety action other than ADR reporting was found to be limited within PHPs because of their role outside of national regulatory systems. However, almost half reported taking some action such as distributing medicine safety alerts received from the national PV center.

**PV Capacity at the PHP Level**

As evidenced by Figure 4, Nepal has the weakest PV system at the PHP level, while Bangladesh and the Philippines have the strongest. Almost all of the countries achieved 80-100% fulfillment in policy, law, and regulation.

**Discussion**

Policy documents that address the recognition of the need for the monitoring of the safety and quality of products are essential in the public health programs that deal with the entire population of a country. The results indicate that PHPs have challenges in establishing funding and structures for PV within their programs. These challenges limit the opportunities for using PV to inform treatment guidelines changes and for improving treatment outcomes. The PHP programs in most countries are equipped to collect clinical level data on patients. At the program level, the majority also routinely collects indicators for monitoring programs’ performance. However, adverse events reporting are weak at the PHP.
Collecting data on real-life safety and effectiveness of medicines used on those programs and using the information will contribute to improving treatment outcomes. Doctor’s notes on every patient on PHP whose treatment was switched most times indicate why the treatment was changed either the product was ineffective or patients could not tolerate the product. Both events are reportable adverse events. The reporting of medication errors is almost non-existent in the PHPs. Medication errors, for instance, the use of medicines when they are contraindicated, contributes to poor outcomes in HIV and AIDS programs. Substitution due to ARV toxicity can account for as much as 45.5% of treatment modification (Bouille et al. 2007). PV is particularly important for antiretroviral therapy programs because some patients will remain on antiretrovirals for their whole life, some of the long-term toxicity of the products has not been completely defined, and the effectiveness of treatment program can be compromised by problems related to toxicity. Monitoring long-term toxicity is therefore necessary and of value to the treatment programs (Bisson et al. 2003).

Public confidence on the efficacy of ARVs was part of the reasons why most patients agreed to seek care; safety concerns can negatively impact treatment continuation. Loss of confidence in the safety of ARVs could lead to poor adherence and the emergence of drug resistance, reduced demand for therapy, or inappropriate switching to more toxic or expensive medicines. All the countries studied are currently implementing public health programs (including vaccine programs, HIV and AIDS, TB, and malaria). Pharmacogenomics can be useful in understanding ARV-related hypersensitivity reactions that are human leukocyte antigen-associated. The work of the Thailand Pharmacogenomics Network and others can contribute in that direction. The cost for setting up and running safety studies can be prohibitive for developing countries, and many developing countries lack the systems to systematically review and translate the findings into practice. Conversely, routine surveillance can be less-prohibitive and the findings have more opportunities to be fed into quality improvement practices. LMICs could benefit more from leveraging existing surveillance systems for safety monitoring than relying only on ad hoc studies.
Options for Strengthening PV Systems at the PHP Level

Strengthening Routine Collection of information on the Tolerability of Medicines

Countries PHPs have several options they can adopt to improve adverse events data collection. They can encourage routine documentation of the reasons for treatment switches in the patient's case file, which can later be transcribed and processed as a report. Countries can also develop a system to transcribe patient records periodically and study the frequency of switches and tolerability of the medicines use. Data obtained should be shared with the PV center.

Improve PV Funding for within the Program

PHPS do not necessarily need to establish their own PV center, but they will benefit from identifying a staff responsible for PV who can collaborate with the national PV center. Having in place a medication safety or quality assurance staff member and providing specific funding for PV activities will improve patient safety within the program. Alternatively, PHPs also have the option to fund the national PV center with dedicated funds to study priority safety issues of interest to the program.

Develop Sustainable Risk Assessment and Evaluation Activities

In many of the countries studied, the PHPs have existing data collection systems for disease surveillance activities. Though typically fragmented, they have cohorts that can be used to study adverse events; therefore product safety surveillance can piggy-back on these systems. Countries should exploit these opportunities and develop an integrated safety surveillance system to support their public health programs. Countries should define their priorities in the areas of risk evaluation. The first step will be to have a formal process to determine research priorities on safety and quality of health products and identifying the need for post-authorization safety and effectiveness studies. Countries should explore opportunities for establishing sentinel sites for active surveillance, such as working with ART or TB programs to set up cohort event monitoring and then develop steps on how to use the information from safety studies to make decisions. Alternatively, PHPs can collaborate with their regulatory authorities, stringent regulatory authorities, and donors to form surveillance networks. There is a need for more collaboration and networking that can reuse existing infrastructure to conduct longitudinal studies. Such networks will enable countries to participate in cohort event monitoring collaborations. Observational cohorts based at health facilities are potentially valuable sources of information regarding medicine use, treatment effectiveness, adverse events, treatment discontinuations, program-based/systems-based treatment availability (or alternatively, stock-outs), and drug resistance (Miller, Nwokike, and Stergachis 2012) An example of a HIV cohort collaboration that includes safety surveillance is the US National Institutes of Health-sponsored International Epidemiologic Database to Evaluate HIV/AIDS cohort network. Also the Antiretroviral Pregnancy Exposure Registry, an ongoing surveillance on pregnancy outcomes for women receiving ARV medicines is another example of a collaboration of many stakeholders. The EMA developed the European Network of Centres for Pharmacoepidemiology and Pharmacovigilance to strengthen post-authorization monitoring of medicinal products in Europe. These experiences can be reviewed to guide donor and SRAs in supporting the countries to set up similar cohort collaboration for the surveillance of safety of key products.
Include PV in Donation Programs

Donors and technical institutions that support providing medicines and health technologies should require their programs to conduct spontaneous reporting, active surveillance, and risk management, particularly for newer medicines, vaccines, and medical devices. Many countries receiving donated products for their public health programs from donors have limited capacity for post-marketing surveillance. The support from donors in making these medicines available has saved lives. Some of the donations from the global health initiatives such as PEPFAR and Global Fund have provided a life-line for the transforming the health system of those countries. After the initial focus on emergency provision of health interventions to those most in need, some of these global health initiatives are now focusing on the need for health systems strengthening. PEPFAR should do more to support PV systems in countries. This will become important as data for treatment guidelines revisions are increasingly needed and as patients remain longer on treatment, highlighting the need for data on long-term toxicity of the products. The launch of new medicines may provide opportunity and new challenges for PV as shown by the recent registration of bedaquiline by the USFDA with post-marketing surveillance conditions. The Global Fund has also recognized the need for supporting PV. A recent panel that reviewed the fiduciary controls and oversight mechanisms of the Global Fund recommended that the principal recipients be required to systematically invest more of grant budgets in PV programs that monitor the quality, usage, and efficacy of the drugs it buys, and that can track adverse events among patients and other post-marketing product defects.
PV Results at the Service Delivery Level

The assessment surveyed a total of 86 health facilities in the five countries. We defined health facilities as clinics and hospitals in both the public and private sector. A breakdown of the number and types of health facilities (public versus private) is presented in the table 28 below.

Table 28. Number of Health Facilities Surveyed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, 62 private or community pharmacies in the five countries were surveyed for the assessment. Community pharmacies in developing countries are often the first point of contact for patients seeking medicines. Thus, although physicians (and industry where mandated) have historically been the primary sources of adverse event reporting within countries, pharmacy workers also play an important role within PV systems, given their accessibility within communities and direct contact with consumers. Pharmacies also may serve a critical role within comprehensive PV systems as one of the primary sources of information for the general public regarding the use of medicines.

Policy, Law, and Regulation

An awareness of the policies, laws and regulations related to the monitoring and reporting of adverse events is important for private or community pharmacies to understand their role and responsibilities in the PV system. The assessment found that nearly half (47%) of the community pharmacies were aware of a national policy for monitoring and reporting adverse events; just over a third (37%) were also aware of the law and regulations related to the same.

Systems, Structure, Stakeholder Coordination

The assessment findings indicate that the majority of health facilities do not have internal systems and structures for PV that extend beyond those offered through the national system. Less than half of the public and private health facilities surveyed in the five countries have a PV center or unit, or designated staff for PV-related activities, within their facility (table 29). We defined a designated staff as someone who has PV-related functions in their job description irrespective of their primary roles. Such staff may be the medication safety
officer, quality assurance staff, pharmacists, nurse in charge of quality improvement, etc. Even fewer health facilities have a dedicated budget available for PV-related activities. Fifteen percent have a DTC at their facility. A quarter of the facilities reported having a copy of the national PV guidelines that have been updated within the last five years, all of which were in Thailand and the Philippines, while nearly a third reported having SOPs for PV-related activities, including ADR reporting. Twenty percent of all of the countries indicated that their healthcare workers had been trained on PV and medicine safety in the last year. For the provision of medicine information, 38% of the facilities have a medicine information or PV service that can address ADR and medicine safety-related questions and nearly half reportedly have core reference materials on medicine safety available at their facility. Over three-quarters have at least the minimum communication technologies to provide medicine information and access to medicine safety reporting. Although the majority of health facilities did not have strong systems and structures in place to manage medicine safety reporting and information provision in a centralized manner, a few of the respondents in the assessment noted that those matters were typically handled on the individual provider-level and in the patient-provider interaction.

A quarter of the private or community pharmacies surveyed are aware that a national PV center exists in their country (table 30). Nearly a third reported that they are aware of and have used a service to ask questions related to ADRs and medicine safety information. Our findings suggest that community pharmacies may also use services offered by sources other than just the national PV center, such as pharmaceutical companies. Eighty percent of pharmacies reported a role for pharmacies as PV stakeholders in ensuring medicine safety. Ten percent (n = 6), all of which were in Thailand and the Philippines, reported awareness of national guidelines for PV or PV policy equivalent.

Table 29. Results of Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination at Service Delivery Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV unit in place or designated staff for PV activities</td>
<td>~40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated budget for PV-related activities</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DTC at facility</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National PV guidelines available and updated within last 5 years</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOPs for PV related activities including ADRs</td>
<td>~33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare providers trained on PV activities</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine information or PV service that can address ADR-related questions</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Core reference materials on medicine safety at facility</td>
<td>~50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum communication technologies to provide medicine information and access to safety reporting</td>
<td>&gt;75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 30. Results of PV Related Activities Among Private Pharmacies Surveyed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aware that national PV center exists in country</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of and used a service to ask ADR related questions</td>
<td>~33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported role for pharmacies as PV stakeholders in ensuring medicine safety</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported awareness of national guidelines for PV</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Signal Generation and Data Management

Although the ADR reporting form was the most commonly available PV-related form at the health facility level, less than half of the health facilities surveyed in the five countries had an ADR reporting form available at their health facility at the time of the assessment (table 31). Approximately a quarter of facilities had a form for reporting medication errors, less than a fifth had a product quality reporting form, and only 6% had a form for reporting treatment failures. The forms available included those provided by the national PV system and forms provided by individual public health programs and pharmaceutical companies. Adverse events may be more commonly reported in patients’ files rather than recorded centrally or in the provided forms, which allows for individual assessment and action, but does not allow for trend analysis and risk assessment. A fifth of the health facilities surveyed had a consumer reporting form available for patients (table 31). Consumer reporting of suspected ADRs and other related medicine safety concerns seem to occur more often through personal communication between patients and medical staff, which puts the onus on healthcare providers to report the event and any other medicine-related problems through the formal forms and channels, where they exist.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADR reporting form available at health facility</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form for reporting medication errors</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality reporting form</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Form for reporting treatment failures</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer reporting form</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to generating safety signals, health facilities can collect relevant medicine safety information not only from the ADR and other medicine-related reports submitted within their facility but also from other in-country sources, including medicine safety bulletins and alerts from regulatory authorities, PSURs, and additional published safety data generated from clinical trials, active surveillance activities, medicine utilization surveys, and product quality surveys. Medicine information centers within health facilities typically have the responsibility to collect and distribute such information. A quarter of the health facilities reported having an information system or database within their facility for collecting, collating, and managing PV data and other relevant medicine information from their facility, in-country sources, or international sources, such as WHO.

Given that pharmacies are a primary source of medicines and have direct contact with patients, they have an important role to play in generating signals for the PV system. The assessment found that 20% of private pharmacies have some kind of ADR reporting form available, 20% have a product quality reporting form, and 20% have a medication error reporting form (table 32). In many cases, the available data are from pharmaceutical companies or suppliers, rather than from the national PV center or MoH. To engage consumers in reporting suspected adverse events, product quality issues’ and medication errors, reporting forms should be available at all service delivery points, including private pharmacies. Only 6% of the pharmacies surveyed had a consumer reporting form available at the time of the assessment. Substantial opportunity exists to improve the availability of these forms at the pharmacy level.
**Table 32. Summary of Results among Private Pharmacies Surveyed**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADR reporting form</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality reporting form</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medication error reporting form</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumer reporting form</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Risk Assessment and Evaluation**

Less than a third (26%) of the health facilities surveyed in the five countries for this assessment had received an adverse event form. However we could not determine how many of these reports were submitted to the national PV program (or a pharmaceutical company) in the last year. In Bangladesh and Nepal, none of the health facilities indicated that they had reported a suspected ADR to the national level, although in some cases they may have reported to a sub-national level, which would have then been responsible for reporting to the national level. Twenty-two of 84 facilities (25%) had submitted 100 spontaneous reports per million population served at their facility (or fraction thereof) in accordance with the WHO recommendation. Those that met the WHO target were from Thailand and the Philippines.

Assessing risk requires information not only on ADRs but also on product quality, medication errors, and medicine use. In 2011, the last full year preceding the assessment, product quality surveys had been conducted at one-fifth of the health facilities, medication error studies at one-quarter, and medicine utilization studies at one-fifth (table 33). The health facilities that carried out these surveys and studies were mainly in Thailand and the Philippines. The health facilities in Cambodia had not conducted any surveys or studies.

Approximately a quarter of the health facilities in the assessment in Thailand and the Philippines reported active surveillance activities that are currently on-going or have been carried out in the last five years.

All of the private pharmacies that reported collecting and submitting ADR reports were in Thailand, with the exception of one in Nepal. Two of the Thailand pharmacies have met the recommended threshold of spontaneous reports (i.e., more than 100 reports per million population served—6,952 reports in 2011). No private pharmacies in Bangladesh, Cambodia, or the Philippines reported collecting or submitting any ADR reports in the previous year (2011).

**Table 33. Results of Risk Assessment and Evaluation at Service Delivery Level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality surveys</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medication error studies</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine utilization studies</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Active surveillance activities (e.g., cohort studies)</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Risk Management and Communication**

The assessment found that over 33% of the health facilities use prequalification schemes in medicine procurement decision-making—in many cases because of the country’s procurement policies, which mandate procurement of prequalified medicines when possible—to prevent the occurrence of adverse events related to poor quality products. Sixteen percent of the health facilities reported having sampled and analyzed > 95% of medicines for product quality in the previous year by sending samples to quality laboratories. Twenty percent have risk mitigation plans currently in place.

Twenty-four facilities (slightly above 25% to assessed facilities in study) in Nepal, Thailand, and the Philippines reported that they had received medicines safety bulletins from their national PV centers. Health facilities in all countries had received medicine bulletins of some kind, if not from the national PV center, then from the MoH, NGOs, or pharmaceutical companies. Whether the ADR signal generation came from the facility, the national PV center or another source, almost a third of the health facilities indicated that the average time from ADR signal generation to communication to HCWs and the public was less than three weeks. Just over 20% of the facilities had conducted at least one training or patient education program related to medicine safety in the last year. Fourteen percent had received and addressed at least one medicine safety information request per month in the previous year.

As indication of health facilities effectiveness in addressing medicine safety issues at the level of service delivery beyond basic reporting, approximately one-fourth of the total facilities reported that they had taken medicine safety action (other than reporting the ADR) in the last one year to inform clinical management, guideline revisions, regulatory decisions, or health worker and patient education. Eight facilities (9%) had identified medicine safety issues of local relevance from outside sources and acted on them locally in the last year (table 34).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use prequalification schemes in medicine procurement</td>
<td>&gt;33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampled and analyzed &gt;95% of medicines for product quality</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have risk mitigation plans in place for high risk ADR medicines</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received medicines safety bulletins from national PV centers</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indicated average time from ADR signal generation to communication to HCWs &lt; 3 weeks</td>
<td>~33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducted training or patient education programs</td>
<td>~20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received and addressed at least one medicine safety information per month in previous year</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported taken medicine safety action (other than reporting ADR) to inform clinical management</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified medicine safety issues of local relevance from outside sources</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pharmacists’ role in the community and direct interaction with patients makes pharmacies an important source of information for patients. It is therefore important that they receive all pertinent medicine safety information, from the national PV center or MoH as well as from industry, so that they can act and inform patients accordingly. Only three private pharmacies in the assessment (5%) reported that they had received and addressed at least
one medicine safety information request per month last year. Nearly a quarter (27%) received medicine safety bulletin (from the PV center or any other stakeholder, including industry) in the past year.

The same percentage of pharmacies was aware of strategies or plans (such as a medication guide) being implemented to mitigate and restrict the use of high-risk medicines due to safety concerns. Although the pharmacies’ awareness of any public and community education activities on ADRs and medicine safety topics was 27%, nearly two-thirds (63%) who acknowledged to have received safety alerts, were aware of at least one medicine safety action other than ADR reporting, such as those taken by the regulatory authority or government institution as well as by pharmaceutical companies. The assessment findings indicate that private pharmacies’ role in the national PV system has not been adequately realized in any of the five countries and that tremendous opportunity exists to engage them more fully and actively and maximize the benefits of their face-to-face interactions with patients, not only in terms of reporting but also in terms of disseminating information and educating the public.

Table 35. Results in Private Pharmacies Surveyed at Service Delivery Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Received and addressed at least one medicine safety information request per month last year</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received medicine safety bulletin in past year</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacies aware of strategies or plans being implemented to mitigate and restrict use of high risk medicines</td>
<td>~25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacies awareness of public and community education activities on ADRs</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacies aware of at least one medicine safety action other than ADR reporting to inform clinical management</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PV Capacity at the Health Facility Level

Figure 5 below illustrates not only the overall deficiencies in the functioning and capacity of health facilities within the PV systems assessed but also the substantial differences between countries. Although Thailand’s health facilities have some shortcomings, they are currently functioning, and have the capacity to function at a notably higher level than the health facilities in the other countries. The health facilities in both Bangladesh and Nepal are contributing only minimally to the PV systems in their respective countries. It is notable that the strongest component of the PV system at the health facilities in all the countries was the systems, structure, and coordination component. This suggests that they have some of the means to improve the other components. Figure 6 depicts the PV system in private and community pharmacies in the five countries. Performance across all components of the PV system is weak however Philippines (awareness of existence of policy and regulations) and Thailand (risk assessment and evaluation) perform better than other countries.

Discussion

PV activities at the health services delivery points is very weak across all countries studied. From poor availability of adverse events reporting forms to lack of budget for PV-related activities, non-functional DTCs, no trainings, and lack of medicine safety information, it appears that PV is failing at the point where it is required the most—the interface between the health providers and patients. Clearly ensuring medicines safety to protect the patient
and ensure optimal treatment outcomes is merely receiving adequate attention. The implications are that patients are exposed to preventable harm. Many high-risk medicines are in the national register of all the countries studied. For instance, biologics medicines (including abatacept, adalimumab, infliximab, rituximab, tocilizumab that are indicated for rheumatic diseases and trastuzumab and bevacizumab indicated for cancers) are in countries’ national registers and used in some of the health facilities. Yet these facilities do not have guidelines for managing high-risk medicines and some do not have a medication safety or quality assurance staff. The use of medicines utilization reviews, risk management, and risk communication to the patient can help to make PV contributions to improvements in health outcomes more easily recognized. The successes achieved in establishing PV systems at the national levels should be followed through to the services delivery levels.
Options for Improving PV at the Service Delivery Level (Health Facilities and Community Pharmacies)

Inform Health Workers on the Value of PV

Healthcare providers are the bedrock for the identification of new concerns on the safety and effectiveness of medicines. Most of the important observations that led to the removal of harmful products from the market, including the case of thalidomide came from case reports from diligent physicians and other health workers. If health workers are trained to appreciate the contributions adverse events reporting can make to safeguard the patients, it may help to stimulate interest in PV.

Streamline Adverse Events Reporting

Unfortunately, the current spontaneous reporting system is laden with systematic and logistical challenges that need to be reformed to ensure health worker participation. The current reporting system is burdensome for the busy clinicians and the system does not motivate the reporter. A reporter who has taken the time to observe and send reports on an event is presumably interested in knowing about the outcome of the investigations and the next cause of action. Also in the medical records in most countries, the reasons for the switching or stopping of therapies are often noted. Health workers should be informed of the dual actions required when adverse events occur in clinical care; recognize and manage the event (clinical PV), and report the events (regulatory PV). Countries should consult with health workers in open forums to discuss on the best approaches for improving the roles of the staff, the health facilities, and their committees in PV.

Develop In-Service Training Curriculum on PV

Countries should consider options for developing in-service PV curriculum and incorporate it into health workers’ regular trainings.

Transcribe Data from Patient Files

The study found that in many health facilities adverse events may be more commonly reported in patients’ files as justification for treatment switches. Health facilities should collaborate with the national PV program to transcribe these events from the patient records and submit them to the PV center.

Strengthen DTCs

In most of the countries medicines utilization reviews are rarely conducted—a key role for the DTCs. Countries should consider options for strengthening the DTCs including making the committee’s activities part of the performance indicators for doctors, pharmacists, and nurses.
PV Results in the Pharmaceutical Industry

The assessment included five clinical research organizations, seven medical device companies, and 38 pharmaceutical companies, including multinational innovator, multinational generic, and local innovator and generic manufacturers.

Policy, Law, and Regulation

Legal provisions and policy statements at the national level dictate the medicine safety regulations to which the pharmaceutical industry is required to adhere. Pharmaceutical industries are therefore encouraged to develop policies and procedures that define how they plan to ensure compliance to the national laws and policies. The assessment found that 29 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (76%), 5 of 7 medical device companies (71%), and 5 of 5 clinical research organizations (CROs) (100%) have updated internal policy statements on PV or medicine safety within the last five years. Fewer industry reported procedures to ensure compliance with national laws, as only 23 of 38 pharmaceutical company (61%), 4 of 7 medical device company (57%), and 1 of 5 CRO (20%) have SOPs to address PV and medicine safety in the quality system of the company, procedures that mention legal provisions for PV/medicines safety, and the submission of PSURs as required in country. Only Cambodia and the Philippines were found to have laws requiring market authorization holders to report serious ADRs to the NRA, and only Philippines and, to a limited extent, Thailand require post-market surveillance.

Whereas only Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand (through the SMP program) has mandatory reporting requirements for the industry, the assessment found that 25 of 35 pharmaceutical companies (71%), 7 of 7 medical device companies (100%), and 3 of 5 CROs (60%) studied had mandatory reporting requirements for ADRs within the company. Another 28 of 35 pharmaceutical companies (80%), 3 of 7 medical device companies (43%), and 2 of 5 CROs (20%) reported mandatory requirements to conduct post-marketing surveillance. This discrepancy is likely due to global reporting requirements among multinational respondents who are required by SRAs to mandatorily report ADRs in countries where they market the product. All but two of the industry respondents reported procedures for addressing product quality assurance. Most have procedures for addressing PV or medicine safety information in advertising and promotional materials (32 of 38 pharmaceutical companies [84%] and 6 of 7 medical device companies [86%]).

Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination

Among industry representatives studied, 25 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (66%), 4 of 7 medical device companies (57%), and 4 of 5 CROs (80%) have a PV or medicine safety unit, either as a stand-alone unit or a subset, assigned responsibility for monitoring medicines safety. Of those, roughly half within pharmaceutical and medical device companies were found to be fully operational with a clear mandate, structure, delineation of roles and
responsibilities; have implemented PV-related activities in 2011; PV inspections conducted within the last five years and reports generated; and procedures for PV audits and inspections in the companies’ quality systems. Industry representatives that reported having at least one staff member designated responsibilities for PV and medicines safety came from 30 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (79%) and 5 of 7 medical device companies (71%).

Nevertheless, funding for PV within industry sampled was found to be limited. Only 19 of 37 pharmaceutical companies (51%) and 3 of 7 medical device companies (43%) had dedicated funds available for PV-related activities in 2011. Less than half of the pharmaceutical and device companies reported having SOPs for PV and medicine safety both in place and followed (18 of 38 pharmaceutical companies [47%] and 3 of 7 medical device companies [43%]), though 4 of 5 (90%) of CROs reported have such SOPs in place. Quality control units were found to be present and functional in 24 of 37 pharmaceutical companies (65%) and 6 of 7 medical device companies (86%) studied.

Communication technologies for PV and provision of medicine information was found to be available and functional in nearly all industry respondents (36 of 38 pharmaceutical company [95%], 6 of 7 medical device company [86%], 5 of 5 CROs [100%]) and core reference materials for PV or safety were found to be available in most (28 of 38 pharmaceutical company [74%] and 6 of 7 medical device company [86%]). In 2011, staff members were trained on PV and medicine safety in 28 of 38 pharmaceutical company (74%), 6 of 7 medical device companies (86%), and 4 of 5 CROs (80%). When asked if they have a system for preparing for PV inspections and if they have had an audit of the PV quality management system in the past 5 years, 63% of companies answered yes.

Table 36. Results of Policy, Law and Regulation in the Pharmaceutical Industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pharmaceutical companies, %</th>
<th>Medical device companies, %</th>
<th>Clinical research organizations, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Updated internal policy statements on PV</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV procedures</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandatory reporting requirements for ADRs</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandatory requirements to conduct post-marking surveillance</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedures for advertisements</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 37. Results of Systems, Structures, and Stakeholder Coordination in Pharmaceutical Industries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pharmaceutical companies, %</th>
<th>Medical device companies, %</th>
<th>Clinical research organizations, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV unit</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At least 1 staff member designated responsibilities for PV</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dedicated funds available for PV</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SOPs for PV in place</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality control units</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have functional communication technologies for PV</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have core reference materials</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Staff trained on PV</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Signal Generation and Data Management

Among industry representatives studied, 16 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (42%), 4 of 7 medical device companies (57%), and 2 of 5 CROs (20%) reported being fully engaged in the generation of medicines safety signals. This includes a system for archiving and storage of medicine safety-related documents with transmitted data, a system that is ICH E2B compliant and tracks activities and workload; sufficient capacity for electronic submission of ADR reports to the NRA, and databases that use standard terminologies (i.e., MedDRA). The assessment found significant deficiency regarding use of the national ADR form. Although the national ADR form is readily available within each country, 15 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (39%), 3 of 7 medical device companies (43%), and 3 of 5 CROs (80%) did not have AE reporting forms available. Twenty-seven out of thirty-eight pharmaceutical companies [71%], 2 of 5 CROs [40%]), medical device error (1 of 7 medical device companies [14%]) has product quality reporting forms. For lack of efficacy (17 of 38 pharmaceutical companies [45%]) have reporting forms and none of the CROs have treatment failure forms (0 of 5 CROs).

Table 38. Availability of Forms in Pharmaceutical Industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pharmaceutical companies, %</th>
<th>Medical device companies, %</th>
<th>Clinical research organizations, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product quality</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical device error</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of efficacy</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment failure</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Risk Assessment and Evaluation

Industry contributes to the risk assessment and evaluation of medical products by detecting safety signals for further evaluation and conducting studies such as Phase IV post-marketing surveillance studies, in the event that product safety profiles are incomplete or otherwise require further assessment and evaluation. Among the companies included in the assessment, it was found that less than half of pharmaceutical companies (16 of 38 pharmaceutical companies [42%]) and just more than half of medical device companies (4 of 7 medical device companies [57%]) and CROs (3 of 5 CROs [60%]) collected spontaneous ADR reports, put them in a database, and transmitted to the local NRA. In 2011, causality was determined for the majority of the records in the database in only a third (13 of 38) of pharmaceutical companies surveyed.

Pharmaceutical industry plays an important role in validating medicine safety signals of concern through post-marketing surveillance and product quality assurance activities. However, only a small percentage of industry conducted these types of activities in 2011. Two of 38 pharmaceutical companies (5%) and 2 of 7 medical device companies (29%) conducted product quality surveys; none and 3 of 7 medical device companies (4%) but none of the 38 pharmaceutical companies conducted surveys of medication/device errors, and, 6 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (16%) and none of the medical device companies conducted medicine/device utilization reviews. Within the last five years, active surveillance activities were reported to be conducted in 15 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (39%), 4 of 7 medical device companies (57%), and 1 of 5 CROs (20%) sampled (table 39).
Table 39. Results of Risk Assessment and Evaluation in Pharmaceutical Industry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Pharmaceutical companies, %</th>
<th>Medical device companies, %</th>
<th>Clinical research organizations, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collect spontaneous ADR reports</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct product quality surveys</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct medication/device error surveys</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct medication/device utilization reviews</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conduct active surveillance activities</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n/a denotes not applicable and that the indicator was not assessed

Risk Management and Communication

The assessment found that industry was an important source of medicine safety information among healthcare providers, pharmacists, and consumers. Medicine/device safety information requests were received and addressed at least once per month in 2011 in 12 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (32%), 2 of 7 medical device companies (29%), and 2 of 5 CROs (20%). A fifth of the pharmaceutical companies surveyed (8 of 38; 21%) reported the publication of medicine safety alerts in 2011.

Locally implemented risk mitigation plans that require EU or United States mitigation strategies to control distribution and use of high-risk medicines because of safety concerns was reported in 8 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (21%), and 3 of 5 CROs (60%); none of the 7 medical device companies issued reports. Medicine and medical device safety issues of local relevance were identified from outside sources and acted on locally in 2011 in 7 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (18%), 1 of 7 medical device companies (14%) and 2 of 5 CRO (2%). Medicine safety information was reported to have been communicated promptly to healthcare workers and the public by nearly half of the pharmaceutical companies sampled (18 of 37; 49%), 2 of 7 medical device companies (29%) and 2 of 5 CROs (20%). Industry was aware of medicine safety action taken by the NRA (e.g., dear doctor letters) to inform clinical management, guideline revisions, regulatory decisions or health worker and patient education in 22 of 38 pharmaceutical companies (58%), 7 of 7 medical device companies (100%), and 2 of 5 CROs (20%).

Discussion

In the countries assessed, the pharmaceutical industry’s engagement in medicine safety and product quality activities and involvement in their respective national PV systems are limited and do not fulfill the full potential of industry’s role in ensuring the safety of pharmaceutical products and devices for patients. As the pictorial depictions of PV capacity in the pharmaceutical industry demonstrate (figures 7-9), industry performance across the five countries differ considerably, with Nepal showing the least capacity and Bangladesh, the Philippines, and Thailand showing comparably higher levels of capacity. Across all five countries and all three types of industry representatives—pharmaceutical companies, medical device companies and CROs—the lowest levels of capacity in the pharmaceutical industry are in the areas of risk assessment and evaluation and risk management and communication.

The pharmaceutical industry’s limited involvement in PV activities is partly due to the inadequacies of national policies, laws, and regulations. Some laws and regulations do
### Table 40. Industry PV Capacity and Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PV-related capacity and activities</th>
<th>Multinational innovator (n = 12)</th>
<th>Multinational generic (n = 12)</th>
<th>Local manufacturer (n = 14)</th>
<th>Total (N = 38) N, %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PV unit or staff</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV SOP</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt; 5% of staff trained on PV in 2011</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverse event reporting form</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product quality reporting form</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treatment failure reporting form</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collected ADR reports in 2011</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sent ADR reports to regulatory authority in 2011</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carried out post-marketing / active surveillance in 2011</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responded to PV information requests in 2011</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Published and distributed medicine safety bulletins in 2011</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Submitted and implemented risk management plans locally</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicated AEs to HCW and public in &lt; 3 weeks</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changed labels, package inserts, or box warnings in 2011</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Figure 7. PV Capacity in Pharmaceutical Companies

![PV Capacity in Pharmaceutical Companies](image-url)
not require the industries to play a more active role through mandatory post-marketing surveillance, AE reporting, and product quality reporting and quality management, or the regulations are not effectively enforced. In the absence of legal provisions for safety and quality monitoring in some countries, industry is in a position to determine which PV-related activities serve their best interests, which tend to be more profit-driven and less public health-driven. To the extent that the pharmaceutical and medical device companies and CROs included in this study are implementing PV activities, the activities appear to be happening in parallel with the national PV system rather than as an integrated part of it. Opportunities exist across all study countries for governments to strengthen their regulation of industry and to improve and expand their PV activities to contribute to the public good.
and give them a competitive advantage in the marketplace based on their compliance with international standards.

**Options for Improving PV in Pharmaceutical Industries**

**Strengthen Industry Commitment to PV**

The pharmaceutical industry is not doing enough to support PV activities in the countries studied. For instance, because there are limited provisions that require product sponsors to conduct the same or similar post-marketing surveillance activities for products as required by SRAs, the pharmaceutical industry operating in the countries do not conduct these activities. In the absence of adequate legislation and enforcement, due diligence and product stewardship should drive the industry to meet these requirements locally as they do in better regulated markets.

**Implement Risk Management Plans**

The industry should implement or offer to implement (where legal requirements do not exist) harmonized standards for risk management plans (RMPs) as they have with the EMA and other European competent authorities. The RMP should include safety specifications and PV plans in accordance with ICH E2E and a risk minimization plan. Industry should routinely scan worldwide safety literature and ensure that safety issues identified from outside sources for a product that is registered locally is promptly communicated to the NRA and consumers.

**Improve Adverse Events Reporting**

The pharmaceutical industry should strengthen their adverse events reporting system. They should have a staff responsible for PV, develop ADR report database that uses either the E2B or CIOMS I form, train all marketing staff members on the need to report, ensure ethical promotion, and conduct internal PV audits.

**Implement PV Audits and Inspections**

The industry should be proactive in addressing its responsibility for product stewardship and should collaborate with the NRAs to institute PV inspections.

**Collaborate on Device Regulation and Vigilance**

Among the countries studied, Cambodia, Philippines, and Thailand are members of the AHWP. Besides support for device classification and registration based on risk, industry should collaborate with the AHWP to support members and non-members within the region to develop strong device vigilance system as high-risk medical devices are increasing being used in these countries. From our study, device vigilance systems were not really functioning in the countries. For instance, when we asked if a form exists for spontaneous reporting of suspected device adverse events, we found that there are no forms in Cambodia, Nepal, and Thailand. Countries can start with adopting the Global Harmonization Task Force Medical Devices Post Market Surveillance: Global Guidance for Adverse Event Reporting for Medical Devices (GHTF 2006).
COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF PHARMACOVIGILANCE SYSTEMS IN FIVE ASIAN COUNTRIES
PV Results at the Civil Society Level

Civil society entities included in the assessment include consumer groups (n = 10), professional organizations such as medical, pharmacy, nursing, health professionals, and chemists (n = 22), and medical and pharmacy academia (n = 22).

Policy, Law, and Regulation

Among the consumer groups and medical professional associations assessed, few respondents reported awareness of the existence of a national policy for monitoring and reporting adverse events (20%) and 27% of professional associations or laws and regulations for monitoring and reporting adverse events (10% consumer groups) and 9% of professional associations [9%]).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Consumer groups</th>
<th>Professional associations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Aware of existence of national policy for monitoring ADRs</td>
<td>2/10 (20%)</td>
<td>6/22 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of existence of laws and regulations for monitoring ADRs</td>
<td>1/10 (10%)</td>
<td>2/22 (9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination

The assessment found that about half of the professional associations studied reported having a member who is aware of the national PV center. Eighty percent of consumer groups reported that patients and consumers are unaware of the national PV center. Both consumer groups and professional associations reported low awareness of any service to ask questions related to ADRs and medicine safety—30% of consumer groups and 2 of 22 professional associations (9%). In Thailand and Cambodia, where national PV guidelines are in place, 4 of 5 (80%) professional associations reported awareness of the guideline, though no consumer groups reported awareness of the PV guideline. The assessment also found that consumer groups consistently reported a role in ensuring medicine safety in their country (80%) as did, albeit to a lesser extent, professional associations (55%). Out of 10 consumer groups and 22 professional associations studied, members from three (30%) and eight (36%) respectively serve on the national safety advisory committee in Bangladesh, Cambodia, and the Philippines. PV and medicine safety topics are taught in medical, pharmacy, nursing, and continuing education programs in 5 of 22 (23%) professional associations and 15 of 22 (68%) academic institutions studied. Healthcare professionals affiliated with 1 of 10 (10%) consumer groups and 10 of 22 (45%) professional associations received training in PV topics in 2011. Academic institutions studied reported awareness of a platform or a forum for coordination of PV activities across all stakeholders and viewed academia as an important stakeholder in ensuring medicine safety in their country (15 of 22 [68%]).
Table 42. Results of System, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination at Civil Society Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Consumer groups</th>
<th>Professional associations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Member of the association is aware of national PV center</td>
<td>n/a</td>
<td>10/22 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patients and consumers unaware of PV center</td>
<td>4/5 (80%)</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of any service to ask questions related to ADRs</td>
<td>3/10 (30%)</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of PV guideline</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reported role in ensuring medicine safety</td>
<td>8/10 (80%)</td>
<td>12/22 (55%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received training in PV</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Signal Generation and Data Management**

The assessment found that patient and consumer awareness of mechanisms to directly report medicine safety concerns to national PV centers was limited. In Thailand and the Philippines where a national consumer reporting form is available to consumers, only 2 of 7 (29%) consumer groups reported that patients and consumers are aware of a national consumer reporting form and encouraged to report directly to PV center.

**Risk Assessment and Evaluation**

The assessment found that some risk assessment and evaluation activities were undertaken by academic institutions in the countries studied, including product quality surveys (5 of 22 [23%]), medication errors studies (5 of 22 [23%]), and medicine utilization studies (4 of 22 [18%]) all in 2011, and active surveillance activities (8 of 22 [36%]) in the last five years.

**Risk Management and Communication**

The assessment found that the majority of professional associations were aware of medicine safety actions taken in country and thereby in a position to inform members. Although more than half of the professional associations reported receiving some sort of medicine safety bulletin in 2011 (12 of 22 [55%]), the same was reported by only a fifth of consumer groups. Respondents were found to be aware of strategies or plans, such as medication guides, to mitigate and restrict the use of high-risk medicines in 11 of the 22 professional associations studied and 2 of 10 of the consumer groups. Trainings in medicines safety topics were conducted in 2011 in a fifth of the consumer groups studied (2 of 10 consumer groups [20%]) and nearly a third of professional associations (14 of 22 PA [64%]). Respondents were aware of medicines safety action taken other than ADR reporting in 2011 in 3 of 10 consumer groups (30%) and 14 of 23 professional associations (61%).

**PV Capacity in Civil Societies**

In general, consumer groups make minimal contributions to the strength of the overall PV system, with notable exceptions in Bangladesh and the Philippines. Professional associations seem to have a greater influence, especially in Thailand.
Discussion

Civil society has a significant role to play in PV systems both as a participant and beneficiary. The study results indicate that civil society is a relatively inactive group, and thus untapped resource, within the PV systems assessed. Awareness of PV services and activities, including the policies, laws and regulations that establish the legal mandate for them, is low, especially among consumer groups. Civil society partners’ participation in their respective national PV systems and other PV-related activities is also very limited, even where PV systems provide an established mechanism for participation and the groups see a role for themselves in their country’s PV system. Low consumer reporting rates in the two countries that have consumer reporting forms—the Philippines and Thailand—suggest that providing opportunities
and mechanisms alone does not ensure participation or even awareness and that more targeted efforts are needed to engage these partners. Professional associations and academic institutions, in particular, have a great deal to contribute to regional PV given the existing mechanisms for engaging medical and pharmacy professionals and researchers in PV efforts. For instance, academic institutions have research and training capacity, as well as specialized expertise, which are essential for effective PV. Governments and civil society groups themselves can be doing more to ensure that civil society is helping to improve and expand generating and disseminating information related to medicine safety.

**Options for Improving PV in Civil Societies**

**Improve the Visibility of PV as a Public Health Priority**

Civil society’s active involvement in PV systems depends not only on awareness of the legal mandate, structures and systems for PV in the country but also on the society’s understanding of its importance and how it affects them. The recommended starting point for engaging civil society is improving the visibility of medicine safety as a matter of public health importance and motivating members to get involved. The national PV center and the services it offers should also be made more visible to targeted groups and the general public, so that people know where to get and to provide information related to medicine safety and quality. Media campaigns and public service announcements that communicate key messages through multiple channels and platforms are good ways to help raise awareness.

**Establish Accessible, User-Friendly Forms and Mechanisms for Civil Society Groups**

Consumer reporting is an important source of information on suspected medicine safety and quality problems within a well-functioning PV system. In countries without consumer reporting forms, national PV centers are encouraged to develop a simple form designed specifically for that group. An effective consumer reporting form will capture only the essential information and will be clear and easy to fill out even for those individuals with low literacy and no background or training in a health-related field. Establishing easy mechanisms or platforms for consumer reporting, including the submission of forms, is also important for countries to improve the quality and frequency of reporting. Call centers or hotlines and websites, for instance, can help consumers submit information on medicine safety. In recognition that phone and internet services are limited among some populations in the region, more basic mechanisms can be established as well, including paper submissions direct to clinics and pharmacies, which can transmit the information to the PV center on the behalf of the patients and consumers.

**Establish Collaborations with Academic Institutions for PV-Related Activities**

Many academic institutions are already involved in PV-related activities, such as training for pharmacy and medical students and research on medicine use, safety, and quality. However, the results of their work are not always shared with or channeled through the national PV system and to the public. By establishing formal memorandums of understanding and setting up opportunities for effective coordination and communication, academic institutions and national PV programs can share resources and information, strategically divide responsibilities according to comparative advantage, and together make a greater impact.
Comparison of Performance and Capacity of PV in Selected Asia Countries

A comprehensive PV system is comprised of (1) governance, policy, law, and regulation, (2) system structure and stakeholder coordination; (3) signal generation and data management, (4) risk assessment and evaluation; and (5) risk management and communication. WHO defines the minimum requirements for a functional national PV system as having a national PV center, a spontaneous reporting system, a national database, a national PV advisory committee, and a communications strategy (WHO 2010c). To build on these minimum requirements and highlight the need for providing further details and indicators for monitoring all aspects of comprehensive PV systems and benchmarking these systems’ performance, we developed the systems classification.

Methods

Using a set of indicators addressing all of the five PV components, SIAPS developed criteria for classification of countries into four groups. Tables 43a and 43b list the criteria for systems classification into these groups at the national level. Country-specific data for all indicators can be found in annex C. The groupings represent the level of achievement of countries in meeting the relevant indicators in a PV system.

The scoring of the classification scheme is as follows: core indicators are given 2 points each and the rest of the indicators are given 1 point each. The score of the indicators met is divided by the total score of all the indicators and multiplied by 100; if this value is >60% for each component, the country is said to meet the standard requirements for that component. The limitations in this scoring method are recognized. We do not have an explicit criteria or reference for the 60% cut off; establishing how well these PV components function is challenging, and even though responses were verified, the study data may still not be sufficient to determine the robustness and sustainability of countries PV system. However, this scoring facilitates easy recognition of where countries are working toward a functional PV system. Also achieving 60% in the PV components for resource-limited settings may be a reasonable expectation.

Similar to the approach used in an SPS report (Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) Program 2011), countries are classified into four groups based the capacity and performance of their PV systems—

- **Group 1:** Countries have no capacity or have minimal organizational structures and capacity for PV. Though there is relevant pharmaceutical legislation, there are no specific legal or structural frameworks for PV systems, and no coordinated passive or active surveillance in these countries. Any ongoing PV activities take place without national coordination. Bangladesh and Nepal belong to Group 1.
### Table 43a. Classification Scheme for PV Capacity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PV component</th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>Group 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy, law, and regulation</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System, structure, and stakeholder</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signal generation and data management</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk assessment and evaluation</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk management and communication</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 43b. Performance Card

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy, law, regulation, and governance</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Systems, structures, and stakeholder</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordination</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signal generation and data management</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk assessment and evaluation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risk management and communication</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 2</th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Group 3</th>
<th>Group 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

- **Group 2**: Countries have basic structure in place. The countries have policy and legal frameworks for PV. Additionally, most basic organizational structures, such as an institution with a clear mandate for PV, guidelines, and SOPs; a reporting form, and a safety advisory committee, are in place. Stakeholders’ roles and responsibilities are recognized but not fully coordinated. The capacity to generate signals and evaluate the risks is limited in these countries. The spontaneous reporting system does not cover all sources of medicines-related problems. The PV system lacks active approaches to evaluate signals and implement effective risk management practices. Cambodia belongs to Group 2.

- **Group 3**: Countries have the capacity to collect and evaluate safety data on the basis of legal and organizational structure. The countries have organizational structure and policy framework to collect and collate safety data in a national database and evaluate the risks and benefits by both passive and active approaches. However, the capacity to manage the risks by taking appropriate preventative actions, develop a plan to actively monitor the risks, and communicate with stakeholders is lacking. The Philippines is classified as being in Group 3.

- **Group 4**: Countries have performing PV systems to detect, evaluate, and prevent medicine safety issues. The countries have the basic structures, both passive and active surveillance activities, and the capacity to evaluate the risks. Based on these, outcomes of PV activities inform regulatory actions and are communicated to stakeholders. It is unclear if the current situation will be sustained over time. Thailand is classified as being in Group 4.
Global and Regional Initiatives for Strengthening Pharmacovigilance Systems in Asia

A multitude of global, regional, and in-country institutions and programs are contributing to the strengthening of PV systems throughout Asia. Coordinating these efforts and establishing and strengthening links between them provides opportunities to maximize effectiveness and achieve greater impact through improved funding, technical support, capacity building, and information sharing.

Financing Institutions

The Global Fund has made strengthening PV a funding priority and encourages countries to include PV activities in its grant proposals and activities (Xuaref S, Daviaud J 2013). Prior to round 10, a total of six grants in the SEARO and WPRO regions had PV activities in progress. Under round 10, five grants in the two regions had PV activities planned: Indonesia (TB), Laos PDR (TB), Nepal (HIV and AIDS), Thailand (TB), and Vietnam (health system strengthening) (Lalvani 2012).

Bilateral donors, namely the European Commission and USAID, are also contributing targeted funding for PV in the region. Since 2010, the European Commission, in collaboration with WHO-UMC, has been supporting the Monitoring Medicines program, which focuses on improving consumer reporting, supporting countries to expand the scope of their PV activities, promoting improved use of existing global PV data, and developing focused surveillance methods in select countries (Uppsala Monitoring Centre). USAID funds two programs—Systems for Improved Access to Pharmaceuticals and Services (SIAPS) and Promoting Quality of Medicines (PQM)—that provide technical assistance to developing countries, including many in Asia, to strengthen their medicine safety and quality monitoring systems under PEPFAR and PMI.

Other financing institutions that are supporting targeted PV initiatives globally and in the region include the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, GAVI alliance, and UNITAID.

Technical Institutions and Programs

WHO provides global technical leadership in PV by providing norms, standards, and other forms of guidance that are developed across various departments and disease-specific programs (WHO). The WHO Advisory Committee on the Safety of Medicinal Products, made up of experts from the drug evaluation and drug policies and management advisory panels, provides advice on pharmaceutical safety issues for member states in all regions. In addition to disease-specific PV activities in HIV and AIDS, tuberculosis, malaria, and Chagas disease, WHO also focuses on vaccine safety (WHO).
UMC reviews and analyzes new ADR signals from the case report information submitted to the WHO ICSR global database (VigiBase) by national PV centers; strengthens information sharing through the publication of periodicals and newsletters; supplies national centers with tools, including computer software; and provides training and consultancy support (Uppsala Monitoring Centre).

Other international institutions providing general and disease-specific technical support and guidance in the area of PV in the Asia region include CIOMS, International Society of Pharmacovigilance, ICH, International Pharmaceutical Federation, Management Sciences for Health, Médecins Sans Frontières, and United States Pharmacopeia.

Vaccine safety is receiving specific attention from such organizations as Brighton Collaboration and the US FDA’s Center for Biologics Evaluation and Research, which launched the Global Regulatory Utilization of Vaccine Safety Surveillance initiative in 2012 (Brighton Collaboration; USFDA). Organizations addressing PV in the context of new product development include the Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative, Medicines for Malaria Venture, and the Product Development Partnership Access Group (“Drugs for Neglected Diseases Initiative”; “Medicines for Malaria Venture”; “PDP Access Group”).

**Regional Institutions**

The ASEAN pharmaceutical product working group has created the PMA system as part of the mutual recognition arrangement and overall harmonization effort in the region. The types of information shared in the alerts include product withdrawals, cancellations of registration and suspensions of sales, adulteration with pharmaceutical ingredients, quality issues, product label changes, and others.

The nonprofit organization Pan-Asian Clinical Research Association has established the PV Asia Network as a platform for PV professionals to network and exchange experiences, expertise, and information throughout the Asia-Pacific region. It supports the development and harmonization of PV in the region and incorporates professionals from sponsor companies, CROs, institutions, ethics committees, health authorities (as permitted by the regulations of such authorities), as well as related PV organizations (Pan-Asian Clinical Research Association). A complete mapping of international and regional institutions’ efforts to strengthen PV globally as well as specifically in the Asia region is presented in annex D.
Conclusion

Great strides have been made in advancing access to medicines in low- and middle-income countries, thanks to the efforts of global health initiatives and also the increased commitment of national governments. At the heart of such efforts is ensuring the provision of safe, effective, and quality medicines. The permeation of products with unknown safety profiles or of spurious quality into global supply chains and the resulting adverse reactions from their use can diminish those significant improvements in access and compromise the success of public health programs that depend on such medicines.

National regulatory authorities (NRAs) are mandated to regulate the development, manufacturing, and marketing of medical products in their local markets. However, as the global supply chain grows in complexity, NRAs become increasingly responsible for protecting not only the local public but also consumers in markets beyond their own borders. Yet, as found from this study, most of the NRAs have limited capacity in PV. They lack the regulatory framework and governance structures mandated by legislation and regulations, including systems for accountability, transparency, and capacity for enforcement to ensure industry compliance to safety monitoring. Harmonization of regulatory requirements and international standards reduces duplication and regulatory burden. Countries PV legislations are not convergent, nor are they consistent with international standards, and discussions on the adoption of relevant international standards were very preliminary. PV systems and structures are weak and the ability to generate signals, evaluate them, and use the information for risk management and communication is limited.

There is a strong and urgent need to strengthen medicine safety systems both within and across national borders of countries in the Asia region. Developing and developed countries are both suppliers and recipients within an increasingly complex global medical product supply chain. Public health programs, global health initiatives, and indeed, entire health systems rely on safe, effective, and good quality medicines. However, fully functional PV and regulatory systems are not yet in place. A great challenge and opportunity exist to improve the systems and capacities required to assure patient safety and to improve health outcomes in Asia.
Annexes

A. Medication Mishaps And Related Regulatory Forms
B. Pharmacovigilance Profile
C. Country Profiles
D. Assessment Method
E. PV Topics in Curriculum
F. Thailand Health Product Adverse Event Report Form
G. Glossary
Annex A. Medication Mishaps and Related Regulatory Forms

Medication mishaps have helped in defining clearly the primary objective of pharmaceutical regulation which is to safeguard public health. Though legislation alone cannot resolve the challenges of ensuring safety of medicines, the examples below highlight the therapeutic mishaps that have catalyzed stricter and more effective medicines regulation. Those mishaps also contributed to the development of national regulatory authorities and the regulatory policy and framework that govern their activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year or period</th>
<th>Event</th>
<th>Related regulatory reforms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1937–2011</td>
<td>About 700 deaths in more than 11 countries due to diethylene glycol poisoning; index case in US 1937, repeated occurrences in Nigeria 1990 and 2008, and high casualty in Panama where 365 died</td>
<td>In the United States led to the enactment of the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (1938) with the premarket notification requirement.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1956–1962</td>
<td>About 10,000 children from mothers who were exposed to thalidomide in Europe/Japan during pregnancy were born with severe malformations primarily phocomelia.</td>
<td>In reaction to this, WHO in 1961 developed the voluntary notification scheme and in 1961 the World Health Assembly requested the WHO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>At least 30 people died in Cambodia after taking counterfeit antimalarials</td>
<td>No information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Up to 140,000 cases of serious heart disease attributed to rofecoxib (Vioxx)</td>
<td>Public criticism of US FDA drug approval and post-marketing surveillance system contributed to the enactment of the FDA Amendment Act of 2007 which provided FDA with enhanced statutory authority regarding post-market safety of drugs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004–2008</td>
<td>Lack of disclosure of negative clinical trials data, suppression of results, and modification of pre-specified outcome measures in trials involving Paxil, Vioxx, and Zetia (ezetimibe)</td>
<td>Contributed to the enactment of Section 801 of the FDA Amendments Act</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>More than 60,000 people in Niger were inoculated with a counterfeit meningitis vaccine resulting in about 2,500 deaths</td>
<td>Le Monde reported that the company that made the vaccine did not act against the counterfeiters as it feared that it might damage trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>Mediator® is claimed to be responsible for around 3,100 hospitalizations and 1,300 deaths due to valvular insufficiency</td>
<td>The French agency for the safety of health products (AFSSAPS) was accused of “inexplicably tolerant of a drug with no real therapeutic value.” The Mediator case led to the resignation of the head of AFSSAPS; dissolution of AFSSAPS and its replacement by the National Agency for the Safety of Medicines and Health Products (MSNA); and enactment of new legislation to strengthen drug safety in France.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>An international police operation led to the seizure of $20M in counterfeit and illegal medicines. The operation covered 8 countries in Southeast Asia: Cambodia, China, Indonesia, Laos, Myanmar, Singapore, Thailand, and Vietnam</td>
<td>Closure of 100 pharmacies and illegitimate drug outlets and more than 30 related arrests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>125 patients died from cardiac drug contaminated with an antimalarial</td>
<td>Pakistan addressed the jurisdictional confusion created by the passage of the amendment that decentralized public health. Federal government quickly established a central Drug Regulatory Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Committee of the India parliament in its 59th report accuses the Central Drugs Standard Control Organization (CDSCO) of ‘collusive nexus’ between the industry, CDSCO, and medical experts.</td>
<td>The Ministry of Health and Family Welfare submitted Action Taken Report for addressing the identified weaknesses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year or period</td>
<td>Event</td>
<td>Related regulatory reforms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012 and 2013</td>
<td>More than 620 people were sickened and 44 died from methylprednisolone acetate injections manufactured by the New England Compounding Center (NECC), raising calls for more power for the FDA for the oversight of drug compounders.</td>
<td>Draft bill gives FDA authority over some pharmacies. Bill creates a new class of drug makers called “compounding manufacturers”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Ranbaxy pleaded guilty to felony charges relating to the manufacture and distribution of adulterated drugs and agreed to pay a USD 150 million penalty and to settle civil claims under the US False Claims Act and related State laws for USD 350 million.</td>
<td>Case instituted against Ranbaxy in India</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Annex B. Pharmacovigilance Profile

#### Governance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Regulatory framework exists and assessed in last 5 years</th>
<th>Regulatory registers exist (medicines, personnel, premises)</th>
<th>Governance structures mandated by laws and regulations and in practice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Exists but not assessed</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not fully in place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Exists but not assessed</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not fully in place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Policy, Law, and Regulation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Policy statements for PV or medicine safety (year published)</th>
<th>Legal provision for PV exists (year published)</th>
<th>Legal provision mandating MAHs to report serious ADRs exists (year published)</th>
<th>Legal provision mandating MAHs to conduct PMS* exists (year published)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Yes (2005)</td>
<td>Yes (1940)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes (2011)</td>
<td>Yes (1967)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: PMS = Post-marketing surveillance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Legal provision for product quality assurance (year published)</th>
<th>Legal provision for promotion and advertising (year published)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Yes (1940)</td>
<td>Yes (1940)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes (1978)</td>
<td>Yes (1978)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes (1967)</td>
<td>Yes (1967)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Systems, Structure, and Stakeholder Coordination

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>PV center with a clear mandate, structure, roles and responsibilities exists</th>
<th>QC lab/unit with clear mandate, structure, functions exists</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>PV center under NRA; No clear mandate</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>PV center under NRA</td>
<td>QC unit under MOH, not audited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>PV center under NRA; No clear mandate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>PV center under NRA</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>PV center under NRA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Medicine information service exists</th>
<th>Staff member for PV (≥1)</th>
<th>Dedicated budget for PV center</th>
<th>National PV guideline exists (year published)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Yes, by PV center</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### National PV SOPs for PV and QC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>National PV SOPs for PV and QC</th>
<th>National safety advisory committee exists</th>
<th>National quality control advisory committee exists</th>
<th>Core communication technologies for PV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No (QC only)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Core PV topics in pre-service training curricula (> 70%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Core PV reference material in PV unit/drug information center</th>
<th>Core PV topics in pre-service training curricula (&gt; 70%)</th>
<th>Healthcare workers trained on PV</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (3 of 3 academia)</td>
<td>Yes (HF, PHP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (1 of 2 academia)</td>
<td>Yes (NRA, PHP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (7 of 7 academia)</td>
<td>Yes (PHP)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (7 of 7 academia)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes (3 of 3 academia; 2 of 3 professional association)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Who International Drug Monitoring Programme (year joined)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Mechanism for coordinating PV activities across all stakeholders exists</th>
<th>WHO International Drug Monitoring Programme (year joined)</th>
<th>Quality management system for performing PV and QA activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Non-member (planned 2013)</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Official (2012)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Official (2006)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Official (1995)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Official (1984)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Signal Generation and Data Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Coordination and collation of PV data from all sources in the country</th>
<th>Consumer reporting form for suspected ADRs</th>
<th>Spontaneous reporting form for suspected ADRs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Product quality reporting form (or subset of ADR form)</th>
<th>Medication error reporting form (or subset of ADR form)</th>
<th>Treatment failure reporting form (or subset of ADR form)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Risk Assessment and Evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Spontaneous reporting &gt; 100 per million population per year (no. of reports in 2011)</th>
<th>ICSRs with Causality Assessed &gt; 50% (% assessed)</th>
<th>Survey on quality of pharmaceutical products in the last 1 year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No (0)</td>
<td>No (n/a)</td>
<td>NRA, academia, PHP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No (83)</td>
<td>Yes (100%)</td>
<td>NRA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No (35)</td>
<td>No (0%)</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>No (3,351)</td>
<td>No (35%)</td>
<td>Academia, health facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes (57,573)</td>
<td>Yes (78%)</td>
<td>NRA, academia, PHP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Medication error studies in the last year</th>
<th>Medicine utilization studies in the last year</th>
<th>Active surveillance activities in the last 5 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Academia, PHP</td>
<td>PHP, industry, health facilities</td>
<td>Academia, industry, PHP, health facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>NRA</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Health facilities</td>
<td>Academia, PHP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Academia, health facilities</td>
<td>Academia, health facilities</td>
<td>Academia, health facilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Academia</td>
<td>Academia</td>
<td>NRA, PHP, academia, health facilities, industry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Risk Management and Communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Medicine safety information requests received and addressed in 2011 (≥ 1 per month)</th>
<th>Medicine safety newsletters or bulletins planned and published in 2011 (≥ 70%)</th>
<th>Prequalification schemes used in medicine procurement decisions (i.e. WHO-GMP, PIC/S)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No (est. 30%)</td>
<td>Yes (3 issues/year)</td>
<td>Yes (immunization)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes (1 issue/month)</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Unregistered medicines in pharmaceutical market &lt; 3%</th>
<th>Medicines sampled that were analyzed for product quality (% failure)</th>
<th>Risk mitigation plans for high-risk medicines in place</th>
<th>No. of medicine safety issues identified and acted on from external sources</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No (–)</td>
<td>69% (0.04% failed)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>No (est. 30%)</td>
<td>100% (4.6% failed)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>83% (27% failed)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>97.4% (no data)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes (&lt; 1%)</td>
<td>100% (10% failed)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Risk Management and Communication (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Time from ADR signal generation to communication to HCWs and Public &lt;3 weeks</th>
<th>Public education activities on ADRs or medicines safety</th>
<th>Medicine safety regulatory actions taken other than ADR reporting in last 1 year (see key below)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>e, f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes, limited</td>
<td>b, h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes, limited</td>
<td>b, c, d, e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>a, d, f, h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td></td>
<td>a, b, d, g, h</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a) Label or package insert changes/boxed warning  
b) Treatment guidelines, medicine formulary, or essential medicine list changes  
c) MoH memo or circular referencing safety data  
d) Product recalls  
e) Withdrawal of product license  
f) Suspension of marketing authorization  
g) Risk management activities recommended because of new safety data  
h) Dear Dr. letters or safety alerts
## Bangladesh

### Pharmaceutical Profile

#### Pharmaceutical Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (2011)*</td>
<td>150.5 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product per capita (USD, 2011)*</td>
<td>744</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>1.5 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2011)‡</td>
<td>174 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered (2012)‡</td>
<td>32,245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure per capita (USD, 2006)§</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare (TEH) per capita (USD, 2009)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure as a percentage of TEH per capita</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population (2011)#</td>
<td>0.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals (2006)§</td>
<td>94.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing mechanisms for pharmaceuticals§</td>
<td>Public (11%), Private/Other (89%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Medicines Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Area</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legal provision for medicines legislation</td>
<td>The Drugs Act of 1940†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Also see the Drug Rules of 1945, the Bengal Drug Rules of 1946, the Drug (control) Ordinance of 1982, and the Drug Policy of 2005†</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patent provisions (main)**</td>
<td>The Constitution of Bangladesh, 2004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Pharmaceutical Production Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Status</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceutical manufacturing plants†</td>
<td>(allopathic pharmaceutical manufacturing companies)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

* World Bank Database, accessed date 30/08/2012
† Business Monitor International Bangladesh Pharmaceuticals and Healthcare Report 2013
‡ Bangladesh Directorate General of Drug Administration
§ WHO World Medicines Situation 2011 Annex
|| WHO National Health Account Database, 2009
# WHO World Health Statistics 2012
** WIPRO
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pharmacovigilance Profile</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy, laws, and regulations</strong></td>
<td>The Drug Act of 1940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>National Drug Policy of 2005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Name of regulatory authority/website</strong></td>
<td>Directorate General of Drug Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.dgda.gov.bd">www.dgda.gov.bd</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mandate of regulatory authority</strong></td>
<td>Registration, licensing and import control, inspection, QC, PV, control of promotion, control of clinical trials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How products get into the market</strong></td>
<td>Registration by the DGDA, database of registered products available: <a href="http://www.dgda.gov.bd">www.dgda.gov.bd</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Joined the WHO program</strong></td>
<td>Not yet a member of the WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Significant events</strong></td>
<td>2008 reports of poor-quality generic miltefosine for visceral leishmaniasis that contained no active pharmaceutical ingredient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E2B compliance</strong></td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Medical terminology used</strong></td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Type of reports in PV database</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of ICSRs in the database</strong></td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Quantitative methods used in signal generation</strong></td>
<td>Not applicable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Newsletter or bulletin published</strong></td>
<td>Not regularly published</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Cambodia

Pharmaceutical Profile

Pharmaceutical Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (2011)*</td>
<td>14.3 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP per capita (USD)*</td>
<td>$900, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>178 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>27 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered (2011)‡</td>
<td>10,000 (est.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare per capita (USD, 2010) §</td>
<td>$29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical (TPE) expenditure per capita (USD, 2006)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals per capita (USD, 2006)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPE as % total expenditure on healthcare per capita (2006)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population#</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing mechanisms for pharmaceuticals§</td>
<td>Public (14%), Private/Other (86%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Medicines Policy

Policy, laws, and regulations

- National Medicine Policy (2010)†
- Law on the Management of Pharmaceuticals (1996)††
- Law on the Management of Pharmaceuticals (amended 2007)
- Pharmaceutical Sector Strategic Plan 2005-2010

Patent provisions (main)**

- The Constitution of the Kingdom of Cambodia (1999)
- Law on Copyright and Related Rights (2003)
- Law concerning Marks, Trade Names and Acts of Unfair Competition of the Kingdom of Cambodia (2002)

Pharmaceutical Production†

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pharmaceutical active ingredients</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packaging finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of research-based pharmaceutical industries</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of generic pharmaceutical (including branded generics) manufacturers</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of nationally owned pharmaceutical industries (public and private)</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* World Bank Database, accessed date 30/08/2012
† Business Monitor International Cambodia Pharmaceuticals and Healthcare Report 2012
‡ Cambodia MOH, DDF
§ Global Health Expenditure Database
|| World Medicines Situation
# WHO World Health Statistics 2012
** World Intellectual Property Organization
†† National Assembly of Cambodia
**Pharmacovigilance Profile**

| Policy, laws, and regulations | National medicines policy (1996 and 2010)  
| National pharmaceutical law  
| Pharmaceutical Strategic Plan 2008-2015  
| ADR Monitoring and related Matters guidelines (2012) |
| Name of regulatory authority/website | DDF: www.ddfcambodia.com |
| Mandate of regulatory authority | Registration, licensing and import control, inspection, quality control, PV, control of promotion, control of clinical trials |
| How products get into the market | Registration by DDF, list of registered products available (10,171) |
| Joined the WHO program | Official member, 2012 |
| Significant events | Chloramphenicol injection and capsule withdrawn from National Essential Drug List |
| E2B compliance | Through VigiFlow (E2B-compliant, web-based portal) |
| Medical terminology used | WHO-ART |
| Type of reports in PV database | Spontaneous reports |
| Total # of ICSRs in the database | > 137 total, 83 in 2011 |
| Quantitative methods used in signal generation | The Bayesian Confidence Propagation Neural Network (BCPNN) |
| Newsletter or bulletin published | Yes, but not regularly published as planned (funding constraint) |
## Nepal

### Pharmaceutical Profile

#### Pharmaceutical Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (2011)*</td>
<td>30.5 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product per capita (USD, 2011)*</td>
<td>$619 per capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product (USD, 2011)*</td>
<td>$18.9 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2009)†</td>
<td>$187.64 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2009)</td>
<td>Included in above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered‡</td>
<td>10,316 per WHO</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare per capita (USD, 2010)§</td>
<td>$29, USD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure per capita (USD, 2006)§</td>
<td>$4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPE as % total expenditure on healthcare per capita§</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals per capita (USD, 2011)‡</td>
<td>$0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population (2010)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financing mechanisms for pharmaceuticals‡</td>
<td>Public (19%), Private (81%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Medicines Policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy, laws, and regulations</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drug Act 2035 (1978)#</td>
<td>Public Drug Policy, 1995#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>National Drug Policy, 1995#</td>
<td>National Medicines Policy (draft)**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Interim Constitution of Nepal 2063 (2007); The Patent, Design and Trade Mark Act, 2022 (1965); Copyright Act, 2059 (2002); Copyright Rules (2004); WTO TRIPS Agreement (1994)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Pharmaceutical Production††

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pharmaceutical active ingredients</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packaging finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of research-based pharmaceutical industries</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of generic pharmaceutical (including branded generics) manufacturers</td>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of nationally owned pharmaceutical industries (public and private)</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

* World Bank Database, accessed date 30/08/2012
† Nepal National Health Account (2006 – 2009)
‡ WHO Nepal Pharmaceutical Country Profile
§ WHO National Health Accounts Database
|| WHO World Medicines Situation
# WHO Nepal Pharmaceutical Country Profile
** World Intellectual Property Organization: Nepal
††Nepal Department of Drug Administration
### Pharmacovigilance Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Policy, laws, and regulations                      | Drug Act 2035 (1978)  
National Drug Policy, 1995  
National Medicines Policy (draft)                 |
| Name of regulatory authority / website             | Ministry of Health and Population, Department of Drug Administration (DDA)  
www.dda.gov.np |
| Mandate of regulatory authority                    | Manufacturing, export/import, sales, distribution, storage               |
| How products get into the market                   | Registration by DDA for import, production, sales, distribution          |
| Joined the WHO program                             | Official member (2006)                                                   |
| Significant events                                 | Not applicable                                                           |
| E2B compliance                                     | Through VigiFlow (E2B-compliant, web-based portal)                       |
| Medical terminology used                           | WHO-ART                                                                  |
| Type of reports in PV database                     | Spontaneous reports from 6 regional PV centers; AEFI reports             |
| Total number of ICSRs in the database              | 411 through 2012 (35 in 2011)                                            |
| Quantitative methods used in signal generation     | WHO Drug Database quarterly scan using BCPNN                              |
| Newsletter or bulletin published                   | Drug Bulletin of Nepal, Three newsletters per year                        |
## The Philippines

### Pharmaceutical Profile

#### Pharmaceutical Market

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (million, 2011)*</td>
<td>94.9 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product per capita (USD, 2011)*</td>
<td>2,370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>2.91 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2011)‡</td>
<td>297 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered (2012)§</td>
<td>32,069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare per capita (USD, 2009)§</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure per capita (USD, 2006)¶</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals per capita (USD, 2006)¶</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPE as percentage of total expenditure on healthcare per capita</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population (2011)#</td>
<td>10.2 physicians; 53.1 nursing and midwifery personnel; 5.4 licensed pharmacists; 11.0 pharmaceutical personnel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Financing for pharmaceuticals

- Public (10%)
- Public/Other (90%)

### Medicines Policy

**Policy, laws, and regulations**

- Foods, Drugs and Devices, and Cosmetics Act, 1987
- The Generics Act, 1988
- Universally Accessible Cheaper and Quality Medicines Act, 2008

**Patent provisions**

- Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines, 1987
- Universally Accessible Cheaper and Quality Medicines Act, 2008

### Pharmaceutical Production Status†† (2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metric</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pharmaceutical manufacturing plants</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants</td>
<td>301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>producing pharmaceutical active ingredients (2011)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>producing finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packaging finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of research-based pharmaceutical industries</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of generic pharmaceutical (including branded generics) manufacturers</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of nationally owned pharmaceutical industries (public and private)‡‡</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

* World Bank Database, accessed date 30/08/2012
† Business Monitor International Philippines Pharmaceuticals and Healthcare Report 2013
‡ Directorate General of Drug Administration
§ WHO National Health Account Database, 2010
¶ WHO World Medicines Situation 2011 Annex
# WHO World Health Statistics 2012
** WIPRO
†† FDA database as of June 2012
‡‡ Includes only data from government-owned – Philippines Institute of Traditional and Alternative Health Care (PITAHC)
5 Executive Order No. 175
6 Republic Act No. 6675
7 Republic Act No. 9502
8 Republic Act No. 8293
### Pharmacovigilance Profile

| Policy, laws, and regulations | Food, Drugs, Devices and Cosmetics Act, 1987  
|                             | National Policy and Program on Pharmacovigilance, 2011  
|                             | Philippine Medicines Policy – Draft  
|                             | Generics Act of 1988  
|                             | Universally Cheaper and Quality Drug Act of 2008  
| Name of regulatory authority / website | Food and Drug Administration Philippines, www.fda.gov.ph  
| Mandate of regulatory authority | Registration, licensing and import control, inspection, quality control, PV, control of promotion and advertising, control of clinical trials  
| How products get into the market | Registration by FDA Philippines, list of registered drugs: www.fda.gov.ph/registered-drugs  
| Joined the WHO program | Official (1995)  
| Significant events | Not applicable  
| E2B compliance | Through VigiFlow (E2B-compliant, web-based portal)  
| Medical terminology used | WHO-ART  
| Type of reports in PV database | Spontaneous reports, AEFI reports, reports from industry  
| Quantitative methods used in signal generation | BCPNN  
| Newsletter or bulletin published | No, medicine safety alerts published on website |
## Thailand

### Pharmaceutical Profile

#### Pharmaceutical Market

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population (2011)*</td>
<td>69.5 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross domestic product (USD, 2011)*</td>
<td>4,972 per capita</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: pharmaceuticals (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>4 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Market size: medical devices (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>1.11 billion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of medicines registered (item, 2011)‡</td>
<td>24,087 human medicines; 2410 medical devices; 60 narcotics; 28 controlled substances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total expenditure on healthcare per capita (USD, 2010)*</td>
<td>179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total pharmaceutical expenditure per capita (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPE as % of total healthcare expenditure per capita (2010)</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on pharmaceuticals per capita (USD, 2011)†</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health workforce per 10,000 population (2011)§</td>
<td>Physicians: 3.0; Nurses/midwives: 15.2; Pharmaceutical personnel: 1.2; Dentistry personnel: 0.7; Environmental and public health workers: 0.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Financing mechanisms for pharmaceuticals

- Public (88%)
- Private/Other (12%)*

#### Medicines Policy

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### Pharmaceutical Production Status‡ (2011)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants</td>
<td>724 (163 modern medicine, 561 traditional medicine)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of pharmaceutical manufacturing plants:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>producing pharmaceutical active ingredients</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>producing finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>packaging finished pharmaceutical dosage forms</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of research-based pharmaceutical industries</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of generic pharmaceutical (including branded generics) manufacturers</td>
<td>724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. of nationally owned pharmaceutical industries (public and private)</td>
<td>724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* World Bank Database, accessed date 30/08/2012  
† Business Monitor International Thailand Pharmaceuticals and Healthcare Report 2013  
‡ Thai FDA, 2011  
|| WIPO, Accessed 27/08/2012  
# WHO World Health Statistics 2012, Accessed 30/08/2012
## Pharmacovigilance Profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy, laws, and regulations</th>
<th>Drug Act (1967)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name of regulatory authority/website</td>
<td>Thai Food and Drug Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><a href="http://www.fda.moph.go.th">www.fda.moph.go.th</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandate of regulatory authority</td>
<td>Registration, licensing and import control, inspection, quality control, PV, control of promotion, control of clinical trials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How products get into the market</td>
<td>Registration by Thai FDA, List of registered drugs vaccines: drug.fda.moph.go.th/ zone_service/ser020.asp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joined the WHO program</td>
<td>Official (1984)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significant events</td>
<td>Hepatic injury associated with Cassia siamea (leaf) and increasing the frequency of pure read cell anemia associated with erythropoietin (detected from Thai FDA database)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2B compliance</td>
<td>INTDIS format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical terminology used</td>
<td>WHO-ART for ADR terminology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ATC code for medicine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ICD-10 for indication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type of reports in PV database</td>
<td>Spontaneous reports, AEFI reports, active surveillance reports, product quality reports, PSURs, reports from PHPs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of ICSRs in the database</td>
<td>57573 in 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantitative methods used in signal generation</td>
<td>Reporting Odd Ratio (ROR), implemented since 2006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newsletter or bulletin published</td>
<td>Medicinal and Health Product Bulletin (quarterly) and HPVC Newsletter (occasionally for safety and information alerts)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex D. Assessment Method

Literature Search

In each of the countries assessed, a literature search was conducted to identify articles published in peer-reviewed journals with methods, outcomes, or both relevant to PV and medicine safety. The following search terms were used:

“OR” OR “adverse effect” OR “side effect monitoring” OR “drug safety” OR “drug toxicity” OR “adverse events following immunization” OR “AEFI” OR “pharmacovigilance” OR “pharmacoepidemiology” OR “medicine safety” OR “active surveillance study” OR “adverse reaction study” OR “post marketing surveillance” OR “product surveillance”) AND “[country].”

Only studies published after 1997 were included. Titles and abstracts were reviewed for relevance, and articles not reporting effectiveness, efficacy or safety (including adverse event reporting) of a medicine or pharmacologic product were removed. Additional information was obtained from:

- National medicines policy
- National medicines legislation
- Regulatory systems, governance, and policy
- National lists of registered products and the list of licensed pharmaceutical premises
- Organization charts
- Annual center report and activity reports
- Relevant committee meeting minutes
- Reports on pharmaceutical market size and industry medicine safety activities
- Reports of recent safety events and recent reviews

Site Selection

Several sites were chosen based on various criteria (see “Study Methods” section within report for more detailed information). The table below summarizes some of the sites that were chosen in each of the individual countries.

### Selected Sites Visited Across Studied Countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bangladesh</th>
<th>Cambodia</th>
<th>Nepal</th>
<th>Philippines</th>
<th>Thailand</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>National</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Health Programs</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>32</td>
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<td>Consumer Groups</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>Pharmaceutical Industries</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academia</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>22</td>
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Indicator-Based Pharmacovigilance Assessment Tool (IPAT)

An analysis of each countries' PV system was determined using the indicator-based pharmacovigilance assessment tool (IPAT) developed by the USAID-funded Strengthening Pharmaceutical Systems (SPS) program. More specific information about the indicators included in IPAT can be found here: [http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADSI67.pdf](http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/PNADSI67.pdf)
### Annex E. PV Topics in Curriculum

<table>
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<th>Sessions</th>
<th>Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fundamental Topics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
| | Overview of national medicine policy and regulatory system | ▪ National medicines policy  
▪ Legislations and regulations related to medicines and health products  
▪ PV as described in the medicine policy in the legislations |
| 1. Regulatory PV | History and overview of PV | ▪ History of medicine regulation  
▪ History of PV  
▪ Evaluating safety throughout the life cycle of a medicine |
| | Overview of national guidelines for medicine safety surveillance | ▪ National PV guidelines  
▪ Roles and responsibilities of stakeholders in PV  
▪ ADR notification system  
▪ List of tools used in medicine safety |
| | Definitions and classification of adverse events | ▪ Definitions in PV  
▪ Classifications and types of ADR, medication error, and poor product quality  
▪ Adverse events predisposing factors |
| 2. Risk identification | Adverse event reporting | ▪ Spontaneous reporting  
▪ Keys areas of the adverse event notification form  
▪ Strengths and limitations of spontaneous reporting  
▪ Sources of spontaneous reports |
| | Causality assessment and signal generation | ▪ Causation and hypothesis generation  
▪ Causality assessment  
▪ Signals, their sources and characteristics  
▪ Strengths/weaknesses of methods used to identify safety signals |
| 3. Risk evaluation | Active surveillance | ▪ Active surveillance method  
▪ Active sentinel surveillance system  
▪ Drug event monitoring  
▪ Registries  
▪ Record linkage studies  
▪ Descriptive studies (drug utilization studies) |
| | Comparative observational studies | ▪ Cohort studies  
▪ Case-control studies  
▪ Targeted clinical investigations |
| 4. Patient safety, risk management, and communication | Medication error and patient safety | ▪ Types and causes of medication errors  
▪ Sentinel event reporting  
▪ Strategies for reducing medication error |
| | Medicine information and risk communication | ▪ Sources of information on medicines  
▪ Hierarchy of evidence  
▪ Use of information technology in risk communication  
▪ Systems and strategies for providing information on medicines |
| | Risk management strategies | ▪ Principles of risk management  
▪ Scope and objectives of risk management  
▪ Risk management strategies |
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modules</th>
<th>Sessions</th>
<th>Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 (a). HIV and AIDS</strong></td>
<td>ARVs and opportunistic infection medicines</td>
<td>• Medicines used in the national guidelines for the management of opportunistic infections and HIV and AIDS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Burden of ARV-related morbidity and mortality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Measures to reduce ARV-related morbidity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improving adverse event reporting in antiretroviral therapy program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 (b). TB</strong></td>
<td>Anti-TB medicines</td>
<td>• Medicines used in the national guidelines for the management of TB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Burden of anti-TB medicines adverse events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Measures to reduce adverse events related to anti-TB medicines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improving adverse event reporting in the national TB program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 (c). Malaria</strong></td>
<td>Antimalaria medicines</td>
<td>• Medicines used in the national guidelines for the management of malaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Burden of antimalaria medicines adverse events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Measures to reduce adverse events related to malaria medicines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improving adverse event reporting in the national malaria program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5 (d). PV in pediatrics, vaccine/ immunization</strong></td>
<td>Vaccines and mother and child health products</td>
<td>• Vaccines used in the national immunization guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Burden and challenges of monitoring adverse events in pediatrics, vaccines, and family planning health products</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Adverse events following immunization and measures to reduce vaccine-related adverse events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>• Improving adverse event reporting in the national malaria program</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex F. Thailand Health Product Adverse Event Report Form

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HPVC No.</th>
<th>Reference no. of reporter/source of report</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source of Report</td>
<td>□ Spontaneous Reporting □ Intensive Monitoring □ Clinical Trial</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Patient Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Patient ID □ HN</th>
<th>Patient type □ IP □ OPD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Patient Initials (first, last)</td>
<td>Gender □ Male □ Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>History of allergies □ No □ Yes (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weight</td>
<td>Underlying disease / other relevant conditions (specify ICD code, if known)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Health Product Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Health Product</th>
<th>Drug/narcotics, and psychotropic substance □ New drug (SMP) □ Food □ Cosmetic □ Medical device □ Hazardous substance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Product Name</td>
<td>(Generic name/Trade name, dosage form, hi and exp. date for biological product, and part use for herbal product)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S, O, I</td>
<td>Dose and Administration (strength, quantity, unit, frequency, route)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starting date (d/m/y)</td>
<td>Discontinuing date (d/m/y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disease/reason for use</td>
<td>(specify ICD code, if known)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of product (1 or 2)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Adverse Event Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverse Events (describe event and/or technical term)</th>
<th>Labeled or non-labeled ADR</th>
<th>Positive laboratory findings and physical evidence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Seriousness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>non-serious</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Serious (choose only one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Death (d/m/y)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life-threatening</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hospitalization-initial or prolonged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- In-patient hospitalisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Prolongation of hospitalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent or significant disability/incapacity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causes a congenital anomaly/birth defect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medical significant (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dechallenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Continued use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Rechallenge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ No rechallenge performed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outcome (after the adverse event)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Recovered without sequelae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Recovered with sequelae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Recovering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Not yet recovered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Died -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Due to adverse reaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Drug may be contributory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Unrelated to drug (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Loss of follow up</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Source of Event/Reporter Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person making diagnosis</th>
<th>Occupation □ Physician □ Pharmacist □ Nurse □ Other (please specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evaluators/reporter</td>
<td>Occupation □ Physician □ Pharmacist □ Nurse □ Other (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Date of report (d/m/y)</td>
<td>Source of event (please specify)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Source of event/province</td>
<td>Source of reporter/province</td>
</tr>
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</table>

### Cause of Event

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Product reaction (ADR/vaccine reaction) - Causality assessment categories</th>
<th>□ Certain □ Probable □ Possible □ Unlikely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Unclassified (please specify reason)</td>
<td>□ Medication error</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Programmatic error (vaccine)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Coincident (vaccine)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Product defect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Accident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Suicide</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Misuse/in appropriate use</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>□ Other (please specify reason)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Annex G. Glossary

**Active surveillance:** The collection of case safety information as a continuous, preorganized process. It includes a wide range of active approaches to detect and evaluate risks, such as cohort event monitoring, registries, sentinel sites, epidemiological studies (case control study, cohort study, cross sectional study), and phase 4 clinical trials.

**Adverse event:** Any untoward medical occurrence in a patient or clinical investigation subject administered a pharmaceutical product and which does not necessarily have a causal relationship with this treatment. It may be due to poor product quality, medication error, or known or unknown pharmacological properties.

**Adverse drug reaction:** A response to a drug which is noxious and unintended and which occurs at doses normally used in humans for the prophylaxis, diagnosis, or therapy of disease, or for the modification of physiological function.

**Bayesian Confidence Propagation Neural Network:** Automated data mining program used by the Uppsala Monitoring Centre. This produces information component values for drug-event combinations. These can be plotted as graphs over time to examine any trend. A positive signal will have information component values that become more significant over time as more cases are included.

**Benefit/risk analysis:** Comparing the therapeutic benefits from having a medical intervention to the risk of causing adverse effects

**Case control study:** Study that identifies a group of persons who experienced the unintended drug effect of interest (cases) and a suitable comparison group of people without the unintended effect (control). The relationship of a drug to the drug event is examined by comparing the cases and control with regards to how frequently the drug is present.

**Causality assessment:** The evaluation of the likelihood that a medicine was the causative agent of an observed adverse event. Causality assessment is usually made according to established algorithms.

**Clinical trial:** A systematic study on pharmaceutical products in human subjects (including patients and other volunteers) to discover or verify the effects of or identify any adverse reaction to investigational products, or to study the absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion of the products with the objective of ascertaining their efficacy and safety.

**Cohort event monitoring:** A surveillance method that requests prescribers to report all observed events, regardless of whether or not they are suspected ADRs, for identified patients receiving a specific drug; also called prescription event monitoring.

**Counterfeit medicines:** Products that are deliberately and fraudulently mislabeled with respect to identity and/or source.

**Drug use study/Medicine utilization review:** A program to review medicine prescribing, dispensing, or patient use of medicines.

**Effectiveness/Real-life effectiveness:** The outcome or result of applying a particular drug, medical treatment, or service in a particular group of patients or the performance of a product under real-life conditions.

**Efficacy:** The scientifically demonstrated ability of a therapeutic agent or procedure to consistently affect a specific predictable desirable health intervention within a given population under defined conditions.
**Falsified medicines/Fake medicines:** A medicine that falsely represents a product’s proper active ingredient, source, or both

**High-risk medicines:** Those medicines that have a heightened risk of causing significant or catastrophic harm when used in error.

**Individual case safety report:** A report that contains information describing a suspected ADR related to the administration of one or more medicinal products to an individual patient.

**Market authorization:** An official document issued by the competent drug regulatory authority for the purpose of marketing or free distribution of a product after a satisfactory evaluation for safety, efficacy and quality.

**Medication errors:** Any preventable event that may cause or lead to inappropriate medication use or patient harm while medication is in the control of the healthcare professional, patient, or consumer.

**Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities:** A medical terminology used to classify adverse event information associated with the use of biopharmaceuticals and other medical products (e.g., medical devices and vaccines). Coding these data to a standard set of MedDRA terms allows health authorities and the biopharmaceutical industry to more readily exchange and analyze data related to the safe use of medical products.

**Pharmacoepidemiology:** Study of the use and effects of drugs in large populations.

**Pharmacovigilance (PV)/medicine safety:** The science and activities relating to the detection, assessment, understanding, and prevention of adverse effects or any other possible drug-related problems. The aims of PV are early detection of hitherto unknown adverse reactions and interactions, detect increases in frequency of known adverse reactions, identify risk factors and possible mechanisms underlying adverse reactions, and estimate quantitative aspects of benefit/risk analysis, and disseminate information needed to improve drug prescribing and regulation. The scope of PV includes adverse reactions, medication use errors, product quality complaints, and lack of efficacy.

**Pharmacovigilance system:** PV systems that include all entities and resources that protect the public from medicines-related harm, whether in personal healthcare or public health services. The system addresses the need for both active and passive approaches to identify and assess medicines-related problems, effective mechanisms to communicate medicine safety information to healthcare professionals and the public, collaboration among a wide range of partners and organizations, and incorporation of PV activities at all levels of the health system.

**Post-marketing surveillance:** The systematic process of monitoring the use of medical products after a product has been approved. PV is part of post-market surveillance.

**Product quality survey:** A study that has sampled and tested the quality of medicines according to a standard procedure of quality surveillance.

**Product life-cycle:** Period from pre-market animal and human safety testing to widespread clinical use beyond original indications
Quality: The suitability of either a drug substance or drug product for its intended use. This term includes such attributes as the identity, strength, and purity (from ICH Q6A Specifications: Test Procedures and Acceptance Criteria for New Drug Substances and New Drug Products: Chemical Substances)

Quality assurance: An organized arrangement (processes and systems) of all elements that influence the quality of the product. It involves inspection of compliance with Good Manufacturing Practices, assessment of documentation on product quality submitted by the manufacturer, sampling and testing of medicines from the market or different entry points, and systematic evaluation of reported quality problems through the PV system.

Registries: A list of patients presenting with the same characteristic(s). This characteristic can be pregnancy (pregnancy registry), a disease (disease registry), or a specific exposure (drug registry).

Risk management/risk management plans: A set of activities designed to identify, characterize, prevent, or minimize risks related to the medicine; to assess the effectiveness of those interventions; and to communicate those risks to patients and healthcare providers.

Safe: Free from unacceptable risk

Sentinel sites: The selected sites that can provide complete and accurate information on reported adverse events, such as data from specific patient subgroups.

Serious adverse events: Any untoward medical occurrence that at any dose results in death; is life-threatening; requires inpatient hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization; results in persistent or significant disability/incapacity; or is a congenital anomaly/birth defect.

Signal: Reported information on a possible causal relationship between an adverse event and a drug, the relationship being unknown or incompletely documented previously that may be a new adverse effect or a change in the character or frequency of an ADR that is already known.

Spontaneous reporting: Unsolicited communication by healthcare professionals or consumers that describes one or more suspected adverse events in a patient who was given one or more medicinal products and that does not derive from a study or any organized data collection scheme.

Stringent regulatory authorities: Members, observers, or associates of the International Conference on Harmonization of Technical Requirements for Registration of Pharmaceuticals for Human Use.

Substandard medicines: Products whose composition and ingredients do not meet the correct scientific specifications and that are consequently ineffective and often dangerous to the patient.

Treatment failure: Unexpected failure of a drug to produce the intended effect as determined by previous scientific investigation.

VigiBase: WHO’s International Adverse Drug Reaction Database.

VigiFlow: A sophisticated case report management system created by the Uppsala Monitoring Centre for the submission of spontaneous ADR reports.

WHO-ART: WHO terminology for coding clinical information in relation to drug therapy.
References

ADCoPT. “Adverse Drug Reaction's Community of Pharmacy Practice.” http://www.adr.thaihp.org/.


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