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Title: Pharmacovigilance in children: detecting adverse drug reactions in routine electronic healthcare records. A systematic review

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30

31 **Conflict of interests**

32 All authors have completed the Unified Competing Interest form at
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38 or activities that could appear to have influenced the submitted work.
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49 **STRUCTURED SUMMARY**

50

51 **AIMS**

52 A systematic review of the literature published in English over 10 years was undertaken in
53 order to describe the use of electronic healthcare data in the identification of potential
54 adverse drug reactions (ADRs) in children.

55

56 **METHODS**

57 MEDLINE and EMBASE were searched using MESH headings and text words. Titles, key
58 words and abstracts were checked for age <18, potential ADRs and electronic healthcare
59 data. Information extracted included age, data source, pharmacovigilance method,
60 medicines and ADRs. Studies were quality assessed.

61

62 **RESULTS**

63 From 14,804 titles, 314 had a full text review and 71 were included in the final review. Fifty
64 were published in North America, 10 in Scandinavia. Study size ranged from less than
65 1000 children to more than 10 million.

66 Sixty per cent of studies used data from one source. Comparative observational studies
67 were most commonly reported (66.2%) with 15% using passive surveillance. Electronic
68 healthcare data set linkage and the quality of the data source were poorly reported.

69 ADRs were classified using the International Classification of Disease (ICD10). Multi-
70 system reactions were most commonly studied, followed by central nervous system and
71 mental and behavioural disorders. Vaccines were most frequently prescribed followed by
72 corticosteroids, general anaesthetics and antidepressants.

73

74

75 CONCLUSIONS

76 Electronic healthcare records are increasingly used to detect ADRs in children. Titles,
77 keywords or abstracts of papers rarely identified the methodology. Performance against
78 published guidelines for reporting data linkage studies was poor. A classification system
79 to aid consistent definition of study design and improved reporting of key quality issues
80 would improve pharmacovigilance in children.

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93 **Introduction**

94 The therapeutic use of medicines is one of the most significant contributors to adverse
95 events associated with healthcare[1;2]. The potential for Adverse Drug Reactions (ADRs)
96 in children is high[3] with a range of factors contributing to this vulnerability including ~~the~~
97 physiological changes which take place from ~~those of~~ birth to late adolescence, the lack of
98 evidence-based information regarding the safety and/or efficacy of medicine for paediatric
99 use and the high volume of off-label and unlicensed prescribing[4-6] .

100
101 The overall incidence of ADRs in hospitalised children has been reported in two systematic
102 reviews (2001 and 2009) to be 9.5% and 10.9% respectively. Admissions to hospital due
103 to ADRs were estimated to be 1.8% to 2.1%; of which up to 39.3% were considered life
104 threatening. The overall incidence in children attending out-patient clinics was 1.0% to
105 1.5%

106 ~~In 2001, a systematic review of ADRs in hospitalised children reported the overall~~
107 ~~incidence as 9.53%, the overall rate of paediatric hospital admissions due to ADRs as~~
108 ~~2.09%, of which 39.3% were life-threatening and the overall incidence in children attending~~
109 ~~out-patient clinics was 1.46%[7];. A review in 2009 of prospective studies and safety~~
110 ~~alerts[8], reported the overall incidence of ADRs in hospitalised children as 10.9% and~~
111 ~~1.0% in those attending as out-patients while the rate of hospital admissions due to ADRs~~
112 ~~was 1.8%.~~

113 -A qualitative review in 2010 of ~~information about~~ adverse drug reactions reported in
114 children highlighted the potential ~~in 2010~~ of data collected in national databases for
115 detecting information about previously unknown ADRs[9].

116
117 Smyth in a systematic literature review of adverse drug reactions in children[10] noted ~~in~~
118 2012 additional information on how ADRs in children were reportedmethods for ADR

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119 detection. Combinations of methods were used in the majority (58/102) including drawing
120 on case records, ~~and~~ computerised records, attendance at ward rounds and interviewing
121 patients but a large proportion (31/102) relied only on case note review. Lopez-Gonzalez
122 ~~(2009) reporting a systematic review in 2009 on~~highlighted the ~~determinants of~~ under-
123 reporting of ADRs ~~demonstrated~~
124 ~~that while~~through spontaneous reporting of adverse events and that spontaneous reports
125 identified a small proportion of the total, but, nevertheless, it continued to play an important
126 role in their detection[11].

127

128 Given the high numbers of ADR reported in children, some of which are life-threatening
129 and many of which are preventable, efficient methods of identifying ADRs as part of
130 routine practice are a critical part of improving patient care[12;13]. There are 'no gold
131 standards' for identifying adverse drug reactions in health systems and a range of
132 approaches have been developed[6]. The use of electronic healthcare records in the
133 detection of adverse reactions has increasingly appeared to have potential and the use of
134 ADR detection in adults has been reported[14]. Electronic healthcare records include a
135 wide range of data source types, from administrative data systems, dispensing data sets,
136 disease registries and spontaneous reports where collated routinely.

137

138 In order to describe the use of routinely collected electronic healthcare data in the
139 identification of potential ADRs in children we undertook a systematic review of the
140 literature published in English over 10 years.

141

142 **Methods**

143 *Literature Search*

144 | ~~A systematic review of literature~~Literature published in English was identified in EMBASE
145 | and MEDLINE databases between 1999 and 2010. The database search was
146 | supplemented by searching reference lists of retrieved reviews. The initial search was
147 | conducted in September 2009 and updated in January 2010.

148

149 | *Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria*

150 | Papers were considered eligible for inclusion ~~in the review~~ if they referred to ADRs in
151 | children (aged 0-18 years). A broad definition of ADR was used ~~in this review~~, accepting
152 | papers reporting the investigation of any potentially adverse clinical event (e.g. specific
153 | clinical signs, symptoms or diagnoses, or a clinical event such as an admission to hospital
154 | or a visit to a physician) associated with a medicinal product, including vaccines. Only
155 | papers reporting the use of routinely collected electronic healthcare data were included.
156 | “Routine” was defined as either a) systems that were part of the day to day recording of
157 | clinical care (e.g. medical records, prescribing, administrative data and complaints); or b)
158 | special data collections where information collection was a well established part of clinical
159 | practice (e.g. specialist registries, incident reporting systems, post-marketing surveillance).

160

161 | Papers were excluded if they reported a mix of adults and children but did not separate the
162 | results ~~by age~~. Adverse reactions or complications occurring as a result of surgical or other
163 | physical procedures, medicine withdrawal, dietary treatment and supplementation and
164 | other non-drug therapy interventions were excluded. We did not include intended or
165 | accidental poisoning/overdose or papers concerned with adverse reactions following *in*
166 | *utero* drug exposure. Papers containing insufficient information about the data sources or
167 | definition of ADRs were also excluded.

168

169 A search strategy was developed, piloted and refined in collaboration with an experienced
170 clinical librarian. Subject headings and subheadings from the MeSH vocabulary for
171 MEDLINE were combined using Boolean terminology with a wide-range of free-text terms
172 covering four domains: adverse reactions, drug therapy, observational studies and
173 paediatric populations (see Appendix 1, Supplemental Digital Content). The text term
174 'randomised' and MeSH term 'pregnancy' were used to remove randomised controlled
175 studies and reports regarding drugs prescribed during pregnancy. The results were limited
176 to "all children (0 to 18 years)". A similar search strategy was applied in EMBASE.

177
178 ~~Box 1 Pharmacovigilance Methods: WHO classification (adapted⁴)~~
179

180 Duplicate publications were removed. Titles and abstracts of the remaining papers were
181 examined against the inclusion/exclusion criteria by the three reviewers. This initial
182 screening was conducted using a conservative approach: full-text papers were retrieved if
183 ~~their~~ titles/abstracts appeared to meet the eligibility criteria or if the decision could not be
184 made based on the titles and abstracts alone. Assessment of the full texts of each
185 retrieved paper was undertaken independently by two reviewers using the same criteria
186 (percentage agreement 81%). Any disagreements about inclusion were resolved through
187 discussion (19% of papers). Assessment by a third reviewer to resolve disagreements was
188 not required.

189
190 *Data extraction*

191 Data extraction was carried out by two reviewers independently using a specifically
192 designed ~~and piloted~~ extraction form. Information extracted included age, data source,
193 pharmacovigilance method, medicines and ADRs. Particular attention was paid to the
194 quality of reporting the data source and ADRs. A simple checklist was adapted from

195 guidelines for reporting data linkage studies and selection of databases for
196 pharmacoepidemiology[15;16]. It included the following key quality issues: ethics review,
197 data entry procedures, data quality assurance, data linkage methods and quality
198 assurance, denominator information and completeness of exposure and outcome data.

199
200 **Box 1 Pharmacovigilance Methods: WHO classification (adapted) [6]**
201

202 The findings of the review were summarised narratively and key characteristics of the
203 studies tabulated. Pharmacovigilance methods were categorised as: passive surveillance,
204 active surveillance or comparative observational studies[6] as shown in Box 1. The
205 classification of data sources is summarised in Table 1. Information about the size and
206 population coverage was tabulated and summarised graphically. Medicines used in the
207 studies were classified according to the British National Formulary (BNF) categories. If
208 more than three classes of medication were reported in a single study, “various drug
209 groups” was recorded. ADRs were classified using the International Classification of
210 Diseases (ICD-10). If more than three ICD classes were reported, the ADRs were
211 classified as “multisystem”.

212

213 **Table 1 Classification of data sources reported in the included studies.**

214 **Results**

215 *Included studies*

216 From a total of 14,804 titles retrieved by the initial electronic search strategy, 314 studies
217 were identified for full text review. Of these, 243 papers were excluded because they did
218 not meet the inclusion criteria or provide adequate information about data sources and
219 ADRs. Seventy-one papers were included in the final review (Figure 1).

220

221 **Figure 1** PRISMA Flow Diagram of study selection process

222 *Characteristics of included studies*

223 The main characteristics of the papers are summarised in [Appendix Table E1](#)
224 [\(Supplemental Digital Content\)Table-2](#). The number of published studies grew rapidly
225 since 1999 with one third of the papers (n=23; 32.4%) being published within the last two
226 years of the review. Research was dominated by North American ~~countries~~ with 46
227 (64.8%) of the studies carried out in the USA and 4 in Canada and one based in both
228 countries. Scandinavia (Sweden, Denmark, Finland) contributed 10 (14.1%) and the UK, 4
229 papers (5.6%). Age ranged from birth to 18 years, with 5 papers focusing on neonates
230 (first 28 days of life) exclusively (7.0%).

231 *Pharmacovigilance methods*

232 A range of pharmacovigilance methods were observed with 6 studies adopting more than
233 one methodological approach. Comparative observational methods were the most
234 commonly reported (n=47, 66.2%), with 15 (21.1%) reporting passive surveillance
235 methods and only 3 (4.0%) reporting active surveillance using routine healthcare data.

236

237 The predominant study design within comparative observational methodology was the
238 cohort study (n=38; 53.5%). The remaining studies used case-control (n=5; 7%), cross-
239 sectional (n=1) or a combination of designs (n=3; 4.0%).

240

241 Passive surveillance methods, in many cases, used national Adverse Event Reporting
242 Schemes including some specific to the medication type, such as vaccines. Most studies
243 adopted descriptive epidemiological methods, reporting the frequency of various potential

244 ADRs. Some used information from prescribing or dispensing data to estimate the size of
245 the “at risk” population thereby allowing event rates to be approximated. Data mining
246 methods were applied to identify potential ADR signals.

247

248 In the studies reporting active surveillance methods, registers, as part of routine care, were
249 kept for all patients taking specific medicines and ADR information was sought proactively
250 by linkage to other healthcare data or by proactive follow up and recording of ADRs in the
251 register.

252 *Data sources*

253 A total of 68 different data sources were identified in the 71 studies which met the inclusion
254 criteria (Appendix Table [E1–E2](#) Supplemental Digital Content). The majority of studies
255 (n=42; 59.1%) used data from a single data source, such as a financial reimbursement
256 system (n=14; 19.7%), hospital database (n=11; 15.5%), or spontaneous reporting system
257 (n=12; 16.9%).

258

259 Studies based on more than one data source (n=29; 40.9%) often included the use of
260 registries, financial reimbursement systems and spontaneous reporting systems.

261

262 More than half of the studies which used multiple data sources used data linkage (n=15;
263 51.2%), 10 (n=10; 34.5%) studies used unlinked data and in the remaining 4 (n=4; 13.8%)
264 studies it could not be ascertained from the reported methods whether the data sources
265 were linked. Where no formal linkage was undertaken, the multiple datasets were used to
266 describe potential ecological associations or to provide estimates of the exposed
267 population to accompany ADR reports in another data source.

268

269 Most of the 68 different data sources reported in the included studies were representative
270 at a single country level (n=46; 67.6%); 11 (n=11; 16.2%) were representative at regional
271 level or above. With regard to the size of the data sources, information on 32 out of 68
272 (47.1%) were not reported within the included published paper and had to be obtained
273 through extra searching. Data sources were reported either based on the population
274 covered (n=54; 79.4%) or the number of events reported per year/within the study period
275 (n=15; 22.1%) (Figure 2 and Supplemental Digital Content Table E1).

276

277

278 **Figure 2** Size of the 68 data sources reported by population covered or the number of
279 events reported per year/within the study period

280 *M=Millions *2 data sources did not report size*

281

282 *Quality of reporting data sources*

283 The amount of information and level of detail reported for the data source varied greatly
284 across studies (see Figure 3). Ethics permissions were well reported. Most studies used
285 unconsented data (e.g. without individual patient consent for the data to be used in
286 research in general or specifically in a given research project). Data entry methods were
287 poorly reported in most of the studies with many reliant on data collection as part of routine
288 clinical care but little information about who entered the data. Very few commented on the
289 completeness or quality assurance of the source data. Validation against clinical registries
290 or other sources were noted by some authors, in the main relating to well established
291 administrative and healthcare databases used regularly for research (such as GPRD,
292 Kaiser Permanente, Dutch national datasets).

293

294 Linkage methods were poorly described and the limitations were rarely quantified. None of
295 the studies reported on whether deterministic or probabilistic matching was undertaken.
296 The completeness and accuracy of the linkage identifiers or the validation checks
297 undertaken to ensure robust linkage were also poorly reported.

298

299 Some important limitations were noted by the reviewers, particularly with the passive
300 surveillance methods reliant on potential ADRs being reported by various professional
301 groups and patients to a central registry. The relationship between reporting and various
302 factors including publicity in relation to an ADR were acknowledged. The lack of a robust
303 denominator (how many were exposed) was recognised but largely complete pharmacy
304 dispensing data in some countries allowed this limitation to be overcome. ADR recording
305 in routine data was noted, by many authors, to be poor. The application of disease or ADR

306

307

308 definitions and coding of conditions was not uniform within and between studies. The
309 impact this had on generalisability was recognised. The need for high quality information
310 about the date of onset of symptoms in relation to the timing of medicine use was also
311 noted as a limitation by some. However, there was a consistent recognition of the
312 importance of electronic healthcare data as a mechanism to follow up large numbers of
313 medicine users over long periods of time in a real life care setting. This was considered to
314 be critical for both good governance of the introduction of new medicines for long term
315 ADR monitoring and for rare ADR detection.

316

317 **Figure 3** Summary of the quality assessment

318

319 *ADRs and therapeutic groups of medicines studied in routine healthcare data*

320 The definition of ADR varied between studies with some including all ADRs and adverse
321 events, and others restricted to serious, life threatening ADRs or specific clinical
322 outcomes. The studies reported the investigation of a spectrum of potential ADRs involving
323 different organ systems. In twenty three (32.4%) studies electronic healthcare data were
324 used to identify potential ADRs across multiple organ systems (see Table 2). Where
325 studies focused on three or less ICD classes, the most commonly studied were
326 mental/behavioural disorders (n=10; 14.1%), central nervous system (10; 14.1%) and
327 digestive system (n=8; 11.3%), (Table 2). One study reported on abnormal laboratory
328 results.

329

330 Almost 40% of included studies (n=27) were concerned with investigation of potential
331 ADRs to vaccines (Figure 4). Antidepressants, antipsychotics and other central nervous
332 system (CNS) drugs were the second most commonly studied therapeutic class (n=13;
333 18.3%), followed by corticosteroids (n=7; 9.9%), antibiotics and antivirals (n=7; 9.9%) and
334 general anaesthetics (n=7; 9.9%).

335

336 **Figure 4** Therapeutic groups of medicines studied for potential ADRs in routine electronic
337 healthcare data

338

339

340 **Table 2** The key characteristics of the included studies.

341

342 **Discussion**

343 In this systematic review, we identified many pharmacovigilance studies in children using
344 routine electronic healthcare data. The number of studies increased over the period of the
345 review and reflected pharmacovigilance activity in many countries in particular North
346 America. A wide variety of routine electronic healthcare data sets were used. Traditional,
347 passive ADR reporting databases were used in 17% of the studies but there was also
348 substantial evidence of the use of single and linked administrative datasets and specialist
349 registries to detect ADRs. Methods such as data mining and comparative observational
350 studies were applied to a wide range of data sources but signal generation, as an early
351 alert to potential ADRs, still very much relied on passive reporting to ADR registries such
352 as the UK Yellow Card Scheme or the US Vaccine Adverse Event reporting System. The
353 Erice Manifesto of 2006 for Global Reform of the Safety of Medicines in Patient Care
354 documented various challenges in developing pharmacovigilance from a largely reactive
355 activity to proactive study of drug safety in routine clinical practice. It highlighted the need
356 to develop new ways of collecting, analysing and communicating information in relation to
357 drug safety and the importance of quality assured research in databases and registries.
358 Despite WHO making the case for integrated pharmacovigilance as an essential
359 component of public health programmes that use medicines, we found little reporting of the
360 integration of active surveillance using routine administrative, healthcare or laboratory data
361 to generate potential signals[88].

362

363 *Search Strategy*

364 In this review we used a sensitive search strategy and systematically reviewed a large
365 number of titles and abstracts seeking relevant studies; approaches similar to other
366 reviews in this area[10;89]. Using search terms, either MeSH headings or as free text,
367 proved of limited value in focusing a search strategy without losing key references. Smyth

368 et al[10], in their systematic review of ADRs in children, also retrieved a large number of
369 titles from which the majority were excluded. In general, studies did not clearly identify that
370 they were studying ADRs. Sometimes ADRs were reported only as one of a number of
371 outcomes, but even where ADR detection was the main focus, studies were often poorly
372 identified as such. The methodological approach of the study was also rarely reported
373 clearly in the title, keywords or abstract. Guidance for the reporting of other study designs
374 now clearly states the importance of including a statement about study design in the title to
375 improve the ability to retrieve relevant evidence from bibliographic databases. The
376 CONSORT statement promotes the inclusion of the study design in the title for randomised
377 controlled trials[90] and similar guidance on titles and key word coding would benefit the
378 reporting of studies of ADRs.

379

380 *ADR detection methods*

381 The WHO classifies ADR detection methods based on data collection procedures as well
382 as study methodology (Box 1)[6]. For example, passive surveillance is described both
383 in terms of the recording of the data – through spontaneous reporting, and in terms of the
384 analytical approaches of data mining that might be applied to such data. The practical
385 application of this classification is, however, challenging as technology and methodology
386 has evolved. Traditional passive ADR recording systems, where ADRs are submitted to a
387 central register by prescribers, health professionals or patients were increasingly
388 interrogated proactively to provide early warning signals of ADRs employing various
389 methods including data mining techniques or linkage to other data sources to establish the
390 numbers exposed to a drug. Routinely collected administrative healthcare data were not
391 being used to proactively seek signals for potential ADRs but rather to test hypotheses of
392 associations between medicines and symptoms or diseases using traditional
393 epidemiological observational study designs. The WHO classification mixes methods for

394 collecting the data with methods for interrogating the data that no longer well categorise
395 the way researchers are approaching ADR studies. In this review we utilised the high level
396 methodologies to categorise approaches: passive surveillance, active surveillance and
397 comparative observational studies. This recognises that for each methodological
398 approach there are a wide range of potential data collection methods and analytical
399 methods that could be applied.

400

401 *Quality Assessment*

402 We undertook quality assessment of the included studies using criteria focusing on the
403 assessment of whether key methodological aspects were reported clearly. Smyth et al[10],
404 who were unable to find a validated quality assessment tool, similarly developed a quality
405 assessment form for their review. Despite restricting our review to studies with sufficient
406 information about the data sources and methods used, we still found substantial variation
407 in the detail and quality of reporting. There was particularly limited information recorded
408 about the robustness and validity of the datasets providing data. Michel et al[91], reviewing
409 methods for assessing the nature and scale of harm caused by the health system,
410 previously drew attention to the importance of the reliability of healthcare data and the
411 limitations of health records as a source of information about ADRs and emphasised in
412 particular the need for information about the completeness of data in medical records.

413

414 Where more than one dataset was linked, the methods for linkage and validation of the
415 linkage process was generally not described. Bohensky et al[16] recently published
416 guidelines for the reporting of data linkage studies. The studies we included in this review
417 performed poorly against such criteria. The ethical use of the data was considered and
418 most studies included a statement about the ethical review process. The included studies
419 did, however, undergo a variety of different ethical review processes ranging from

420 statements that "ethical review was not required" because data were "anonymous" through
421 to full ethics committee review and approval for each use of a dataset. Box 2 summarises
422 recommendations for authors reporting pharmacovigilance studies using routine electronic
423 healthcare data.

424

425 *Strengths and limitations of the review*

426 We report a large systematic review of the methods and electronic healthcare data
427 sources used for ADR detection in children but there were a number of limitations to our
428 review. We undertook a sensitive search but this resulted in a large number of titles and
429 abstracts for review. As a result, only one researcher reviewed each title. To minimise
430 inconsistencies, we used detailed inclusion and exclusion criteria and adopted a
431 conservative approach of including studies for full text review where uncertainty existed.
432 We know that other studies of ADRs in children using electronic routine healthcare data
433 have been published but were not identified in our review often because they were
434 reported as the association between a specific medicine and a disease or symptom and as
435 a result were not clearly identifiable as a study of ADRs. Twenty three studies were
436 excluded because there was insufficient information provided about the data sources for
437 the purpose of this review.

438

439 *Post marketing surveillance using electronic healthcare data*

440 Surveillance of drugs in the post marketing phase since the Thalidomide disaster in the
441 1960s[92] has depended largely on analyses of spontaneous reports to identify new
442 adverse drug events and of observational healthcare studies to confirm or refute
443 suspected adverse events. The withdrawal of Rofecoxib in 2004 reinforced again the
444 importance of adverse drug event monitoring to identify as early as possible serious
445 unwanted adverse effects of drugs[93].

446

447 The potential of using routine electronic healthcare data to identify adverse events has
448 increasingly been recognised and during the period of this review significant progress has
449 been made in North America and Europe. Curtis et al described in 2012 how the Food and
450 Drug Administration (FDA) established the Sentinel System a nationwide network of
451 databases in the United States of America and the use of the Mini-Sentinel distributed data
452 system to inform and facilitate the development of active surveillance for monitoring the
453 use and safety of medicinal products[94]. The European Commission likewise funded a
454 project, EU-ADR, to demonstrate the feasibility of combining datasets from various
455 countries to identify unwanted adverse drug events and has developed advanced
456 techniques for harmonisation of data [95].

457

458 The use of electronic healthcare data in the study of potential Adverse Drug Reactions is
459 increasingly developed in America and Europe but as serious adverse drug reactions are
460 usually identified initially in small numbers, the pooling and analysis of larger electronic
461 healthcare data sets will facilitate their early detection. The United Kingdom has
462 contributed General Practice data to the EU-ADR project while many administrative
463 systems, dispensing data sets, disease registries and spontaneous reporting systems are
464 also well developed and could increase the potential of electronic healthcare data sets in
465 the identification of previously unidentified ADRs.

466

467 **Conclusion**

468 This systematic literature review identified a large number of resources worldwide used to
469 study a wide range of medicines and potential ADRs in children. The increasing utility of
470 routine electronic healthcare datasets for pharmacovigilance in children was evident and
471 this growing and important health protection activity could be enhanced: by consistent

472 reporting of studies to improve the identification, interpretation and generalisability of the
473 evidence base. Titles, key words and abstracts rarely identified the methodology. A
474 clear classification system should be developed to aid consistent definition of ADR
475 detection methods. Published guidelines should be used for reporting data linkage
476 studies. Reporting of key quality issues should be improved. There is a wealth of
477 electronic healthcare data and realisation of its potential could contribute significantly to
478 pharmacovigilance as part of a wider pooling process.

479

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