

DRUGDEX® Evaluations

FLUOXETINE HYDROCHLORIDE/OLANZAPINE

0.0 Overview

- 1) Class
 - a) This drug is a member of the following class(es):
 - Antidepressant
 - Antipsychotic
- 2) Dosing Information
 - a) Adult
 - 1) Bipolar disorder, depressed phase
 - a) initial, olanzapine 6 mg/ fluoxetine 25 mg ORALLY once daily each evening (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral
 - b) usual range, olanzapine 6 to 12 mg/fluoxetine 25 to 50 mg ORALLY once daily each evening (Prod Info S
 - 2) Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant
 - a) initial, olanzapine 6 mg/ fluoxetine 25 mg ORALLY once daily each evening (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral
 - b) usual range, olanzapine 6 to 18 mg/fluoxetine 25 to 50 mg ORALLY once daily each evening (Prod Info S
- 3) Contraindications
 - a) concomitant use of pimozide, MAOIs, or thioridazine (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 4) Serious Adverse Effects
 - a) Death
 - b) Depression, Worsening
 - c) Diabetic ketoacidosis
 - d) Dyskinesia
 - e) Hyponatremia
 - f) Mania
 - g) Neuroleptic malignant syndrome
 - h) Pulmonary eosinophilia
 - i) Seizure
 - j) Suicidal thoughts
 - k) Suicide
 - l) Violent behavior
- 5) Clinical Applications
 - a) FDA Approved Indications
 - 1) Bipolar disorder, depressed phase
 - 2) Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant

1.0 Dosing Information

Drug Properties

Storage and Stability

Adult Dosage

Pediatric Dosage

1.1 Drug Properties

A) Information on specific products and dosage forms can be obtained by referring to the Tradename List (Product In

1.2 Storage and Stability

A) Preparation

1) Oral

a) The combination of olanzapine/fluoxetine should be administered in the evening. While food has no appreciable effect on the absorption of fluoxetine given individually, the effect of food on the absorption of the combination has not been studied (Pr

B) Symbyax(TM) capsules should be stored at 25 degrees Celsius (77 degrees Fahrenheit); excursions permitted to 15 to 30 degrees Celsius (59 to 86 degrees Fahrenheit). Keep tightly closed and protect from moisture (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003b).

1.3 Adult Dosage

Normal Dosage

Dosage in Renal Failure

Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency

Dosage in Geriatric Patients

Dosage in Other Disease States

1.3.1 Normal Dosage

1.3.1.A Oral route

Bipolar disorder, depressed phase

Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant

1.3.1.A.1 Bipolar disorder, depressed phase

a) The recommended initial dose for the acute treatment of depressive episodes associated with bipolar (mg)/fluoxetine 25 mg orally once daily each evening. The usual dose range is olanzapine 6 to 12 mg/fluoxetine 25 mg (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.3.1.A.2 Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant

a) The recommended initial dose in the acute treatment of treatment-resistant major depressive disorder previous trials of antidepressant therapy is olanzapine 6 milligrams (mg)/fluoxetine 25 mg orally once daily (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

B) The safety of doses greater than olanzapine 18 milligrams (mg) and fluoxetine 75 mg per day have not been established (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.3.2 Dosage in Renal Failure

A) Dose adjustments based upon renal impairment is not routinely required, although the possibility exists that patients may accumulate higher levels of fluoxetine metabolites (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.3.3 Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency

A) A reduced starting dose of olanzapine 3 to 6 milligrams (mg)/ fluoxetine 25 mg should be considered for patients with hepatic impairment. Individual pharmacokinetic profiles of olanzapine and fluoxetine, the pharmacokinetics of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.3.4 Dosage in Geriatric Patients

A) Based on the individual pharmacokinetic profiles of olanzapine and fluoxetine, the pharmacokinetics of the combination should be used in dosing the elderly, especially if there are other factors that might additively influence drug sensitivity (female gender, geriatric age, nonsmoking status). Dose escalation should be performed with caution in these patients (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

B) In a study involving 24 healthy subjects, the mean elimination half-life of olanzapine was about 1.5 times greater than in non-elderly subjects (65 years of age or under) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.3.6 Dosage in Other Disease States

A) A reduced starting dose of olanzapine 3 to 6 milligrams (mg)/ fluoxetine 25 mg should be used for patients with hepatic impairment, or in slow CYP2D6 metabolizers, patients who exhibit a combination of factors that might influence drug sensitivity (female gender, geriatric age, nonsmoking status). Dose escalation should be performed with caution in these patients (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

B) A reduced dose is recommended in women during the third trimester of pregnancy due to the risk of adverse effects (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

1.4 Pediatric Dosage

1.4.1 Normal Dosage

1.4.1.A Oral route

1) Safety and effectiveness of the combination of olanzapine and fluoxetine in pediatric patients have not been established (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

2.0 Pharmacokinetics

Drug Concentration Levels

ADME

2.2 Drug Concentration Levels

- A) Therapeutic Drug Concentration**
 - 1) Bipolar disorder, plasma concentrations are not used clinically.
- B) Time to Peak Concentration**
 - 1) ORAL, capsule: olanzapine, 4 hours, fluoxetine, 6 hours (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
 - a) Following a single oral 12 mg/50 mg dose of olanzapine/fluoxetine, peak plasma concentrations of olanza 6 hours, respectively (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).

2.3 ADME

Absorption

Distribution

Metabolism

Excretion

Elimination Half-life

2.3.1 Absorption

- A) Bioavailability**
 - 1) Oral, capsule: Olanzapine, 60%; fluoxetine 100% (Lemberger et al, 1985a; Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003)
 - a) Olanzapine: extensive first-pass metabolism, with approximately 40% of the dose metabolized before Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
- B) Effects of Food**
 - 1) none (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
 - a) The effect of food on the absorption and bioavailability of the combination of olanzapine and fluoxetin olanzapine of fluoxetine were not affected by food. It is unlikely that there would be a significant food effe Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a). The absorption of fluoxetine is delayed but not decreased in the presence of

2.3.2 Distribution

- A) Distribution Sites**
 - 1) Protein Binding
 - a) Olanzapine, 93%; fluoxetine 94.5% (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
 - 1) Olanzapine is 93% bound to plasma proteins over the concentration range of 7 to 1100 ng/mL, b glycoprotein (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
 - 2) Over the concentration range from 200 to 1000 ng/mL, approximately 94.5% of fluoxetine is bour albumin and alpha-1-glycoprotein (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a; Lemberger et al, 1985a; Aronoff
- B) Distribution Kinetics**
 - 1) Volume of Distribution
 - a) Olanzapine, 1000 L (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a); fluoxetine, 1000 to 7200 L (Aronoff et al, 1984)
 - 1) The corresponding volume of distribution for norfluoxetine ranged from 700 to 5,700 L. No relatio fluoxetine or its metabolite and renal function has been observed (Aronoff et al, 1984).

2.3.3 Metabolism

- A) Metabolism Sites and Kinetics**
 - 1) LIVER, extensive for both olanzapine and fluoxetine (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
 - a) Olanzapine: extensive first-pass metabolism, with approximately 40% of the dose metabolized before Symbyax(TM), 2003a).
- B) Metabolites**
 - 1) OLANZAPINE
 - a) 10-N-glucuronide is present at steady state at 44% of the olanzapine concentration (Prod Info Symby
 - b) 4'-N-desmethyl olanzapine (inactive) is present at steady state at 31% of the olanzapine concentratio
 - 2) FLUOXETINE
 - a) Fluoxetine is metabolized primarily via N-demethylation to the active metabolite, norfluoxetine (Lemb
 - Glucuronide conjugates are also found but in small quantities (Lemberger et al, 1985a).
 - b) Extensive metabolizers with respect to cytochrome P450 2C19 (CYP2C19) showed lower maximum I

drugs, treatment with conventional antipsychotic drugs may increase mortality. The extent to which the finding may be attributed to the antipsychotic drug as opposed to some characteristic(s) of the patients is not clear. F approved for the treatment of patients with dementia-related psychosis (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule

3.1 Contraindications

A) concomitant use of pimozide, MAOIs, or thioridazine (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

3.2 Precautions

- A)** elderly with dementia-related psychosis (unapproved use); increased risk of death; most deaths were attributed to sudden death) or infections (eg, pneumonia) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- B)** suicidal ideation and behavior or worsening depression; increased risk, particularly in children, adolescents, and young adults during the first few months of therapy or following changes in dosage (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- C)** abnormal bleeding has been reported, including life-threatening hemorrhages; increased risk with concomitant use of drugs that affect coagulation (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- D)** abrupt withdrawal; serious discontinuation symptoms have been reported (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- E)** allergic reactions including anaphylaxis, rash, and systemic reactions possibly related to vasculitis may occur; may occur with SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- F)** body weight increases may occur; monitoring recommended (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- G)** bipolar disorder; increased risk of precipitation of a mixed/manic episode (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- H)** cardiovascular or cerebrovascular disease, conditions that predispose patients to hypotension (eg, dehydration, hypotension, concomitant antihypertensive drug use; increased risk of orthostatic hypotension, bradycardia, and syncope (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- I)** concomitant serotonergic drug use (serotonin precursors (tryptophan), SSRIs, serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- J)** conditions that may contribute to elevated body temperature (eg, strenuous exercise, extreme heat exposure, dehydration) may increase risk of hyperthermia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- K)** diabetes mellitus, preexisting disease or risk factors, or patients with borderline increased blood glucose level; increased risk of hyperglycemia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- L)** dyslipidemia (abnormalities in cholesterol, triglycerides, HDL, and LDL) has been reported; monitoring recommended (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- M)** elderly patients, especially elderly women are at increased risk of tardive dyskinesia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- N)** glaucoma, narrow-angle; condition may be exacerbated due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- O)** hepatic impairment, preexisting conditions associated with limited hepatic functional reserve, or concomitant use of drugs that impair and reduce fluoxetine clearance (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- P)** hyperglycemia (some extreme cases associated with ketoacidosis or hyperosmolar coma or death) has been reported (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- Q)** hyponatremia may occur; elderly or volume-depleted patients, and concomitant diuretic use may increase risk; hyponatremia develops (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- R)** increased duration of therapy and/or higher cumulative doses; increased risk of tardive dyskinesia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- S)** neuroleptic malignant syndrome, potentially fatal; has been reported in association with olanzapine therapy; immediate discontinuation recommended (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- T)** paralytic ileus, history; condition may be exacerbated due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- U)** prostatic hypertrophy; condition may be exacerbated due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- V)** seizure disorder, history, or conditions which lower seizure threshold (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- W)** serotonin syndrome has been reported, including fatalities; monitoring recommended (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- X)** tardive dyskinesia, potentially irreversible, may occur (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- Y)** use of fluoxetine/olanzapine within 14 days of MAOI discontinuation (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- Z)** use of MAOI or thioridazine within 5 weeks of fluoxetine/olanzapine discontinuation (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- AA)** volume-depleted, elderly, or concurrent diuretic therapy; increased risk of hyponatremia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

3.3 Adverse Reactions

Cardiovascular Effects

Dermatologic Effects

Endocrine/Metabolic Effects

Gastrointestinal Effects

Hematologic Effects

Hepatic Effects

Immunologic Effects

Musculoskeletal Effects

Neurologic Effects

Ophthalmic Effects

Psychiatric Effects

Renal Effects

Reproductive Effects

Respiratory Effects

Other

3.3.1 Cardiovascular Effects

Bradyarrhythmia

Cardiovascular finding

Edema

Orthostatic hypotension

Peripheral edema

QT interval - finding

Tachycardia

3.3.1.A Bradyarrhythmia

1) In a clinical pharmacology study of olanzapine/fluoxetine, 3 healthy subjects were discontinued from the trial due to hypotension and bradycardia that occurred 2 to 9 hours following a single 12-mg/50-mg dose of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination. Hypotension and bradycardia (and also accompanied by sinus pause) have been observed in various formulations of olanzapine (one oral, two intramuscular) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.1.B Cardiovascular finding

1) Olanzapine/fluoxetine should be used with particular caution in patients with known cardiovascular diseases such as heart failure, or conduction abnormalities, cerebrovascular disease, or conditions that would predispose patients to hypotension (including concurrent treatment with antihypertensive medications) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.1.C Edema

1) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment with olanzapine/fluoxetine combination, 3% of patients who received olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 0% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.1.D Orthostatic hypotension

1) Incidence: 4% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In the olanzapine/fluoxetine-controlled clinical studies across all indications, there were no significant differences in orthostatic hypotension between olanzapine, fluoxetine, and placebo groups. Orthostatic systolic blood pressure decrease of 20 mmHg or greater occurred in 4% (28/705), 2.3% (19/831), 4.5% (18/399), and 1.8% (8/442) of the olanzapine/fluoxetine, olanzapine, fluoxetine, and placebo groups, respectively. In controlled clinical studies, the incidence of patients with a decrease in orthostatic pulse of 20 mmHg or greater was 0.3% (2/706) in the olanzapine/fluoxetine group, 0% in the fluoxetine group, and 0.2% (1/445) in the placebo group. The incidence of syncope was 0.4% (3/771) compared to placebo (0.2%, 1/477) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3) In a clinical pharmacology study of olanzapine/fluoxetine, 3 healthy subjects were discontinued from the trial due to hypotension and bradycardia that occurred 2 to 9 hours following a single 12-mg/50-mg dose of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination. Hypotension and bradycardia (and also accompanied by sinus pause) have been observed in various formulations of olanzapine (one oral, two intramuscular) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

hypotension and bradycardia that occurred 2 to 9 hours following a single 12-mg/50-mg dose of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination of hypotension and bradycardia (and also accompanied by sinus pause) have been observed in various formulations of olanzapine (one oral, two intramuscular) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

3.3.1.E Peripheral edema

- 1) Incidence: 9% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 9% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 0% of patients who received olanzapine (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.1.F QT interval - finding

- 1) The mean increase in QTc interval for olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients (4.4 msec) in clinical studies treated (-0.8 msec), olanzapine-treated patients (-0.3 msec), and fluoxetine-treated patients (1.7 msec). The patients treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine, placebo, olanzapine, or fluoxetine in the incidence of QTc outliers (R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.1.G Tachycardia

- 1) Tachycardia has occurred in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients in premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.2 Dermatologic Effects

3.3.2.A Erythema multiforme

- 1) Erythema multiforme has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3 Endocrine/Metabolic Effects

Bicarbonate level - finding

Body temperature above normal

Diabetes mellitus

Diabetic ketoacidosis

Hypercholesterolemia

Hyperglycemia

Hyperprolactinemia

Hypoalbuminemia

Hyponatremia

Hypophosphatemia

Serum triglycerides raised

Weight gain

3.3.3.A Bicarbonate level - finding

- 1) Incidence: 14.1% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low bicarbonate level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (14.1% vs 8.8%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.B Body temperature above normal

- 1) Disruption of the body's ability to reduce core body temperature has been attributed to antipsychotic drugs olanzapine/fluoxetine for patients who will be experiencing conditions which may contribute to an elevation in body temperature, strenuous activity, exposure to extreme heat, receiving concomitant medication with anticholinergic activity, or being

(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.C Diabetes mellitus

1) Summary

- a)** As with other atypical antipsychotics, hyperglycemia has been reported in patients on olanzapine. The nonfasting levels, from baseline to the average of the 2 highest serum concentrations was 15 mg/dL, duration of effectiveness in patients treated for a median olanzapine-exposure duration of 9.2 months. Olanzapine is difficult to assess the relationship because of an increased risk of diabetes mellitus in patients with self-reported diabetes mellitus in the general population. In general, epidemiological studies show that atypical antipsychotics increase the risk of treatment-emergent hyperglycemia. Olanzapine appears to have a greater risk of glucose abnormalities compared with other atypical antipsychotics (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- b)** The risks and benefits of olanzapine/fluoxetine hydrochloride should be considered prior to prescribing olanzapine/fluoxetine hydrochloride in patients with borderline increased blood glucose levels (fasting 100 to 126 mg/dL). Monitoring of blood glucose is recommended. For patients with risk factors for diabetes mellitus, fasting blood glucose should be tested at initiation and periodically during olanzapine/fluoxetine therapy. All patients should be monitored for signs of polyuria, polyphagia, and weakness. Fasting blood glucose should be tested if symptoms of hyperglycemia develop. Discontinuation of olanzapine/fluoxetine; however, some patients may continue to need antidiabetic therapy (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 2)** New onset diabetes mellitus (DM) has been reported with the administration of olanzapine. At least 25 patients with olanzapine-induced diabetic ketoacidosis (Torrey & Swallow, 2003; Goldstein et al, 1999; Lindenmayer & Pa
- 3)** A 51-year-old woman with schizoaffective disorder and type 2 diabetes (stabilized on metformin 1 gram twice daily) developed hyperglycemia, without weight gain, when an episode of elevated mood and psychosis was treated with risperidone for 4 weeks but did not respond. Chlorpromazine also was not effective. Olanzapine, titrated to 5 mg twice daily, controlled her psychotic symptoms. Her blood glucose then began to increase, although her diet was controlled by the hospital. Oral insulin was started and she was started on actrapid insulin. Glucose levels remained unstable until olanzapine was discontinued and hypoglycemic medications were reduced to previous levels and actrapid insulin was discontinued. Zuclopentixol was added for schizoaffective disorder. The patient showed no significant weight gain during treatment with olanzapine, which had a beneficial effect on glucose regulation (Ramankutty, 2002).
- 4)** A 27-year-old man developed signs of diabetes mellitus (polydipsia, polyphagia, nausea and vomiting, hyperglycemia) while on olanzapine for treatment of schizophrenia. He was treated with insulin, and his dose of olanzapine was increased to 10 mg twice daily. Valproic acid, which he had taken for 3 years. After 3 months, insulin therapy was replaced by pioglitazone 30 mg twice daily. Olanzapine therapy was not discontinued because of the risk of psychotic worsening (Seaburg et al, 2002).
- 5)** A 45-year-old obese man developed elevated fasting glucose 1 year after his treatment for schizophrenia with olanzapine 10 mg/day. Six months later, he was treated with glyburide 1.25 mg/day. Over the next 6 months, glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) weight began to increase. Five months later, he complained of diarrhea and weight loss. His glyburide dose was increased to 5 mg twice daily. Symptoms (polyuria, polydipsia, and diaphoresis), his glyburide dosage was increased to 10 mg twice daily, and replaced by risperidone. Six weeks after discontinuation of olanzapine, the patient's glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) glyburide was reduced to 1.25 mg/day, and his weight stabilized. Five months later, his diabetes was well-controlled.
- 6)** Olanzapine-induced glucose dysregulation has been reported as an adverse effect, possibly due to drug-drug interaction with a severe exacerbation of type 2 diabetes in a 51-year-old woman with a major depressive disorder and schizophrenia. She was treated with sertraline and haloperidol decanoate. After 4 weeks, sertraline was replaced by fluoxetine due to continued depression. Haloperidol was replaced by olanzapine due to persistent auditory and visual hallucinations. Prior to initiation of olanzapine, her diabetes was well-controlled by diet (glycosylated hemoglobin 6.5%, baseline fasting blood glucose 89 to 132 mg/dL). Two weeks after initiation of olanzapine, her control diminished and continued to worsen despite treatment with glipizide, metformin, and diet. At week 26, due to inadequate antidepressant response. At week 35 (fasting blood glucose 120 to 461 mg/dL, glycosylated hemoglobin 7.0/30) was initiated and titrated to 70 units per day. Olanzapine was tapered during weeks 39 and 40 and discontinued. During therapy, the patient's fasting blood glucose levels had decreased to within 85 and 163 mg/dL. Blood glucose has been reduced to 45 units/day NPH 70/30 (Bettinger et al, 2000).
- 7)** Cases of new-onset diabetes mellitus (DM) were reported that developed after initiation of olanzapine treatment. The mean time to onset was 26 weeks (median 20 weeks) after olanzapine initiation. Two cases presented with diabetic ketoacidosis and 4 patients experienced weight gain while on olanzapine. Olanzapine was eventually discontinued in 4 patients. Treatment for DM was still required (Goldstein et al, 1999).

3.3.3.D Diabetic ketoacidosis

1) Summary

- a)** As with other atypical antipsychotics, diabetic ketoacidosis or hyperosmolar coma, including death, has been reported with olanzapine. Olanzapine is implicated in glucose abnormalities; however, it is difficult to assess the relationship because of the increasing incidence of diabetes mellitus in the general population. In general, epidemiological studies show that atypical antipsychotics increase the risk of treatment-emergent hyperglycemia. Olanzapine appears to have a greater risk of glucose abnormalities compared with other atypical antipsychotics (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- b)** The risks and benefits of olanzapine/fluoxetine hydrochloride should be considered prior to prescribing olanzapine/fluoxetine hydrochloride in patients with borderline increased blood glucose levels (fasting 100 to 126 mg/dL). Monitoring of blood glucose is recommended. For patients with risk factors for diabetes mellitus, fasting blood glucose should be tested at initiation and periodically during olanzapine/fluoxetine therapy. All patients should be monitored for signs of polyuria, polyphagia, and weakness. Fasting blood glucose should be tested if symptoms of hyperglycemia develop. Discontinuation of olanzapine/fluoxetine; however, some patients may continue to need antidiabetic therapy (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 2)** Diabetic coma has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in olanzapine/fluoxetine combination therapy (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

- 3) Olanzapine-induced ketoacidosis has been reported, including one near-fatal case in a 44-year-old African patient had taken olanzapine 25 mg/day for approximately 1 month (Straker et al, 2002).
- 4) Diabetic ketoacidosis following 3 months of olanzapine therapy was reported in a 31-year-old man with no patient was started on insulin and olanzapine was discontinued. Fifteen days later his insulin requirements of the patient has remained metabolically stable, free of diabetic symptoms (Gatta et al, 1999).
- 5) Diabetic ketoacidosis has been reported with the administration of olanzapine. At least 25 fatalities have been induced diabetic ketoacidosis (Torrey & Swallow, 2003; Goldstein et al, 1999; Lindenmayer & Patel, 1999).
- 6) A 50-year-old African American man developed diabetic ketoacidosis after receiving 8 months of olanzapine olanzapine 30 mg daily with divalproex 750 mg twice daily. He began insulin therapy but after the olanzapine normal (Lindenmayer & Patel, 1999).
- 7) A 39-year-old man developed diabetic ketoacidosis after receiving olanzapine 10 mg for a treatment-refractory previous laboratory evidence of diabetes. His body mass index was high at 40 kg/m². He was admitted with hyperglycemia (6 mmol/L), and acidosis. His HbA1c was 14.7%. He was maintained on insulin 3 times daily. requirements decreased after 15 days. His blood glucose and HbA1c became normal (Gatta et al, 1999).

3.3.3.E Hypercholesterolemia

1) Summary

- a) Significant increases in total cholesterol have been observed during treatment with olanzapine/fluoxetine total cholesterol from baseline was 12.1 mg/dL in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared with 4 patients and a decrease of 5.5 mg/dL in placebo-treated patients (statistically significant), in an analysis duration. Baseline and follow-up lipid monitoring of lipids is recommended in patients on olanzapine (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) Incidence: up to 36% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 3) In an analysis of 7 placebo-controlled monotherapy studies of up to 12 weeks duration, the mean increase 12.1 mg/dL in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared with 4.8 mg/dL in olanzapine monotherapy-treated placebo-treated patients. The table below provides the frequency and degree of increase of nonfasting cholesterol with treatment up to 12 weeks(Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009):

Nonfasting Total Cholesterol In Adults With Treatment Up to 12 weeks			
Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 40 mg/dL or more	olanzapine/fluoxetine	685	35% *
	olanzapine	749	22.7%
	placebo	390	9%
Normal to High	olanzapine/fluoxetine	256	8.2% *
	olanzapine	279	2.9%
	placebo	175	1.7%
Borderline to High	olanzapine/fluoxetine	213	36.2% *
	olanzapine	261	27.6%
	placebo	111	9.9%

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 200 mg/dL; Borderline = 200 mg/dL to less than 240 mg/dL; High = 240 mg/dL or greater; * = statistically significant compared to placebo and olanzapine

- 4) In long-term olanzapine/fluoxetine studies of at least 48 weeks, changes in nonfasting total cholesterol from baseline (n=150) and changes from borderline to high occurred in 56.6% (n=143) of patients. The mean change in nonfasting total cholesterol was 12.1 mg/dL (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 5) In an analysis of 5 placebo-controlled monotherapy studies of up to 12 weeks duration, olanzapine-treated patients had increases from baseline in mean fasting total cholesterol of 6.1 mg/dL for placebo-treated patients compared to decreases from baseline of 5.3 mg/dL for placebo-treated patients. In an analysis of at least 48 weeks, patients had increases from baseline in mean fasting total cholesterol of 5.6 mg/dL. In an analysis of at least 48 weeks, the mean nonfasting total cholesterol did not increase further after approximately 4 to 6 months. The mean increase of fasting cholesterol and LDL cholesterol (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009):

Fasting Total Cholesterol In Adults					
Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 12 weeks exposure		At least 48 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 40 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	745	21.6%	489	32.9%
	placebo	402	9.5%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	392	2.8%	283	14.8%
	placebo	207	2.4%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	222	23%	125	55.2%
	placebo	112	12.5%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 200 mg/dL; Borderline = 200 mg/dL to less than 240 mg/dL; High = 240 mg/dL or greater; NA = Not Applicable

Fasting Low-Density-Lipoprotein Cholesterol In Adults

Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 12 weeks exposure		At least 48 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 30 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	536	23.7% *	483	39.8%
	placebo	304	14.1%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	154	0%	123	7.3%
	placebo	82	1.2%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	302	10.6%	284	31%
	placebo	173	8.1%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 100 mg/dL; Borderline = 100 mg/dL to less than 160 mg/dL; High = 160 mg/dL or greater; NA = Not Applicable

6) In an analysis of 3 placebo-controlled monotherapy studies of up to 6 weeks duration in adolescents, olanzapine increased mean fasting total cholesterol of 12.9 mg/dL and LDL cholesterol compared to increases from baseline of 1.3 mg/dL and 1 mg/dL for placebo-treated patients, respectively. In long-term olanzapine studies increases from baseline in mean fasting total cholesterol and LDL cholesterol of 5.5 mg/dL and 5.4 mg/dL, respectively, were observed. The tables below provide the frequency and degree of increase of fasting total cholesterol (R) oral capsule, 2009):

Fasting Total Cholesterol In Adolescents					
Category Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 6 weeks exposure		At least 24 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 40 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	138	14.5%	122	14.8%
	placebo	66	4.5%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	87	6.9%	78	7.7%
	placebo	43	2.3%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	36	38.9%	33	57.6%
	placebo	13	7.7%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 170 mg/dL; Borderline = 170 mg/dL to less than 200 mg/dL; High = 200 mg/dL or greater ; NA = Not Applicable

Fasting Low-Density-Lipoprotein Cholesterol In Adolescents					
Category Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 6 weeks exposure		At least 24 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 30 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	137	17.5%	121	22.3%
	placebo	63	11.1%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	98	5.1%	92	10.9%
	placebo	44	4.5%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	29	48.3% *	21	47.6%
	placebo	9	0%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 110 mg/dL; Borderline = 110 mg/dL to less than 130 mg/dL; High = 130 mg/dL or greater; NA = Not Applicable

7) Patients (n=25) receiving olanzapine were found to have increases in body weight and serum triglycerides. Patients receiving olanzapine (mean dose 13.8 mg) had their weight, cholesterol, and triglycerides measured at baseline. Mean weight was 54 kg. Cholesterol levels increased by only 3 mg/dL while triglyceride levels increased by 60 mg/dL with weight change (p less than 0.02).

8) After an average of 16 months of olanzapine therapy, 9 patients had marked increases in triglyceride level increased from a mean of 170 mg/dL to a mean of 240 mg/dL. Five patients had at least a 50% increase in level. The patients had a mean weight gain of 10 kg.

3.3.3.F Hyperglycemia

1) Summary

a) As with other atypical antipsychotics, hyperglycemia has been reported in patients on olanzapine. In placebo-controlled studies, with treatment duration up to 12 weeks, olanzapine/fluoxetine was associated with a mean increase in serum glucose compared to placebo (8.65 mg/dL vs -3.86 mg/dL). The mean increase of serum glucose (fasting average of the 2 highest serum concentrations) was 15 mg/dL, during Clinical Antipsychotic Trials of Interim Duration olanzapine-exposure duration of 9.2 months. Olanzapine is implicated in glucose abnormalities; because of an increased risk of diabetes mellitus in patients with schizophrenia and the increasing incidence of diabetes in the general population. In general, epidemiological studies show that atypical antipsychotics increase the risk of treatment-emergent hyperglycemia.

appears to have a greater risk of glucose abnormalities compared with other atypical antipsychotics (Pro b) The risks and benefits of olanzapine/fluoxetine hydrochloride should be considered prior to prescribing diabetes mellitus or in patients with borderline increased blood glucose levels (fasting 100 to 126 mg/dL monitoring of blood glucose is recommended. For patients with risk factors for diabetes mellitus, fasting initiation and periodically during olanzapine/fluoxetine therapy. All patients should be monitored for signs polyuria, polyphagia, and weakness). Fasting blood glucose should be tested if symptoms of hyperglycemia discontinuation of olanzapine/fluoxetine; however, some patients may continue to need antidiabetic therapy. Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

- 2) Incidence: baseline normal, 2.3%; baseline borderline-normal, 34.1% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 3) The mean changes in random glucose concentrations were an increase of 8.65 mg/dL in olanzapine/fluoxetine 3.86 mg/dL (statistically significant), in an analysis of 7 controlled clinical studies, 2 of which were placebo-controlled. In patients with normal random glucose levels (less than 140 mg/dL) and baseline borderline random glucose concentrations (140 to 200 mg/dL) treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine, 2.3% and 34.1% (statistically significant compared with placebo), respectively, had a greater mean increase in random glucose concentrations than placebo-treated patients. In comparison, 0.3% and 3.6%, respectively, of the placebo-treated patients had high glucose levels. These patients had a greater mean increase in glycosylated hemoglobin (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 4) In a study of healthy volunteers, patients who received olanzapine (n=22) for 3 weeks had a mean increase in fasting blood glucose compared to baseline. Placebo-treated patients (n=19) had a mean increase in fasting blood glucose compared to baseline. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 5) Data for fasting glucose are limited for olanzapine/fluoxetine. However for olanzapine monotherapy the mean change in fasting glucose was 0.17 mg/dL in olanzapine-treated adults compared with 0.17 mg/dL in placebo-treated patients, in an analysis of 5 to 12 weeks (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 6) The mean change in fasting glucose for olanzapine-treated patients was 4.2 mg/dL (n=487), and mean change in nonfasting glucose levels continue to increase over time (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 7) The mean changes in fasting glucose levels were an increase of 2.68 mg/dL in olanzapine-treated adolescents compared to placebo-treated adolescents (statistically significant), in an analysis of 3 placebo-controlled trials of adolescents with schizophrenia or bipolar disorder. The mean change in fasting glucose was 3.1 mg/dL. In adolescents with normal fasting glucose levels (less than 100 mg/dL) and baseline random glucose concentrations (100 to 200 mg/dL) treated with olanzapine, 0% (0 out of 124) and 14.3% (2 out of 14), respectively, had high glucose levels compared to placebo. In comparison, 1.9% (1 out of 53) and 0% (0 out of 13), respectively, of the placebo-treated patients had high glucose levels. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.G Hyperprolactinemia

- 1) Incidence: up to 61.1% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) Olanzapine/fluoxetine elevates prolactin levels as with other drugs that antagonize dopamine D2 receptor. Impotence have been reported in patients receiving prolactin-elevating compounds. In clinical studies of olanzapine/fluoxetine, prolactin concentrations were observed in 27.6% of the olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated adults compared to 4.8% of placebo-treated adults. Plasma prolactin concentrations were reported in 34% of adults treated with olanzapine compared to 13.1% of placebo-treated adults. From clinical studies including 8136 adults treated with olanzapine, potentially associated clinical manifestations of gynecomastia of males was 0.2% (8/4896), and breast enlargement of females were 0.06% (2/3240) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 3) In a single 8-week randomized, double-blind, fixed-dose study comparing olanzapine 10 mg/day (n=199) to placebo, incidence of treatment-emergent prolactin elevation greater than 24.2 ng/mL in females or greater than 18.77 ng/mL in males was 31.2% at 10 mg, 42.7% at 20 mg, and 61.1% at 40 mg per day (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 4) In placebo-controlled olanzapine monotherapy studies in adolescent patients with schizophrenia or bipolar disorder, prolactin elevation compared to baseline occurred in 47.4% of the adolescents treated with olanzapine compared to 6.8% of placebo-treated adolescents, gynecomastia occurred in 2.4% of males (7/286) and galactorrhea occurred in 1.8% of females (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.H Hypoalbuminemia

- 1) Incidence: 2.7% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low albumin level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (2.7% vs 0.3%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.I Hyponatremia

- 1) Hyponatremia (headache, difficulty concentrating, memory impairment, confusion, weakness, and unsteady gait, with some serious or acute cases resulting in hallucination, syncope, seizure, coma, respiratory arrest, and death) has been reported with olanzapine/fluoxetine. The mechanism of action may have been one possible etiology. Older patients and patients taking diuretics or who were otherwise at risk for hyponatremia. Drug discontinuation is recommended in patients who develop symptomatic hyponatremia (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.J Hypophosphatemia

- 1) Incidence: 1.9% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low inorganic phosphorus level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (1.9% vs 0.3%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.3.K Serum triglycerides raised

1) Summary

a) Elevations in serum triglycerides have been observed, at times a greater than 500 mg/dL increase, dihydrochloride. Baseline and follow-up lipid monitoring of lipids is recommended in patients on olanzapine capsule, 2009).

2) Incidence: up to 70% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

3) The table below provides the frequency and degree of increase of nonfasting triglycerides in adults on ola of up to 12 weeks(Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009):

Nonfasting Triglycerides In Adults on Olanzapine/Fluoxetine			
Category Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	N	F
Increase by 50 mg/dL or more	olanzapine/fluoxetine	174	6
	olanzapine	172	7
Normal to High	olanzapine/fluoxetine	57	0
	olanzapine	58	0
Borderline to High	olanzapine/fluoxetine	106	1
	olanzapine	103	8

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 150 mg/dL; borderline = 150 mg/dL to less than 51 mg/dL or greater

4) In an analysis of 5 placebo-controlled olanzapine monotherapy studies of up to 12 weeks duration, the me by 20.8 mg/dL in olanzapine-treated patients compared to decreases from baseline of 10.7 mg/dL for placebo studies of at least 48 weeks, patients had increases from baseline in mean fasting triglycerides of 18.7 mg/dL who had at least one change in triglycerides from normal or borderline to high was greater in long-term studie median exposure of 9.2 months in phase 1 of the Clinical Antipsychotic Trials of Intervention Effectiveness (C olanzapine-treated patients was 40.5 mg/dL. The table below provides the frequency and degree of increase SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009):

Fasting Triglycerides In Adults on Olanzapine-Monotherapy					
Category Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 12 weeks exposure		At least 48 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 50 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	745	39.6%	487	61.4%
	placebo	402	26.1%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	457	9.2%	293	32.4%
	placebo	251	4.4%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	135	39.3%	75	70.7%
	placebo	65	20%	NA	NA
Increase by 40 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	745	21.6%	489	32.9
	placebo	402	9.5%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = less than 150 mg/dL; Borderline = 150 mg/dL to less than 200 mg/dL; High = 200 mg/dL or greater; NA = Not Applicable

5) In an analysis of 3 placebo-controlled olanzapine monotherapy studies of up to 6 weeks duration in adole increases from baseline in mean fasting triglycerides of 28.4 mg/dL compared to a decrease of 1.1 mg/dL for olanzapine studies of at least 24 weeks, adolescents had increases from baseline in mean fasting triglyceride frequency and degree of increase of fasting triglycerides(Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009):

Fasting Triglycerides In Adolescents					
Category Change from Baseline	Treatment Arm	Up to 6 weeks exposure		At least 24 weeks exposure	
		N	Portion of Patients	N	Portion of Patients
Increase by 50 mg/dL or more	olanzapine	138	37%	122	45.9%
	placebo	66	15.2%	NA	NA
Normal to High	olanzapine	67	26.9%	66	36.4%
	placebo	28	10.7%	NA	NA
Borderline to High	olanzapine	37	59.5%	31	64.5
	placebo	17	35.3%	NA	NA

KEY: mg/dL = milligrams/deciliter; Normal = Normal = less than 90 mg/dL; Borderline = 90 mg/dL to less than 130 mg/dL; High = 130 mg/dL or greater; NA = Not Applicable

6) Random triglyceride levels of 1000 mg/dL or more have been reported during postmarketing reports with

SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

7) Patients (n=25) receiving olanzapine were found to have increases in body weight and serum triglycerides receiving olanzapine (mean dose 13.8 mg) had their weight, cholesterol, and triglycerides measured at baseline mean of 5.4 kg. Cholesterol levels increased by only 3 mg/dL while triglyceride levels increased by 60 mg/dL with weight change (p less than 0.02).

8) After an average of 16 months of olanzapine therapy, 9 patients had marked increases in triglyceride level increased from a mean of 170 mg/dL to a mean of 240 mg/dL. Five patients had at least a 50% increase in level unchanged. The patients had a mean weight gain of 10 kg.

3.3.3.L Weight gain

1) Summary

a) Weight gain is associated with olanzapine use. Weight gain (greater than 7% of their baseline weight) olanzapine/fluoxetine long term (median days of exposure, 448) with the mean weight gain of 6.7 kg. For change was +4 kg and -0.3 kg for olanzapine/fluoxetine and placebo-treated patients, respectively, in an which were placebo-controlled. Regular monitoring of weight should be performed. Before initiating olanzapine to the potential consequences of weight gain (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

2) Incidence: 25% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

3) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 25% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 3% of patients who received placebo (R) oral capsule, 2009).

4) In a single 8-week randomized, double-blind, fixed-dose study comparing olanzapine 10 mg/day (n=199), mean baseline to endpoint increase in weight was 1.9 kg, 2.3 kg, and 3 kg, respectively, with significant difference (R) SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

5) The mean weight change was +4 kg and -0.3 kg for olanzapine/fluoxetine and placebo-treated patients, respectively, 2 of which were placebo-controlled. After a median duration of 6 weeks, 22% of olanzapine/fluoxetine patients (statistically significant) gained at least 7% of their baseline weight. After a median duration of 8 weeks compared with 0% of placebo-treated patients (statistically significant) gained at least 15% of their baseline weight difference in the amount gained. The discontinuation rate due to weight gain was 2.5% and 0% in the olanzapine and placebo, respectively. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

6) The table below provides the adult weight gain observed in olanzapine treated patients from 86 clinical olanzapine studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009) :

Amount Gained	Olanzapine-Monotherapy Trials in Adults		
	6 weeks n=7465	6 months n=4162	12 months n=1345
0 kg gain or loss of weight	26.2%	24.3%	20.8%
0 to 5 kg (0 to 11 lb)	57%	36%	26%
greater than 5 to 10 kg (11 to 22 lb)	14.9%	24.6%	24.2%
greater than 10 to 15 kg (22 to 33 lb)	1.8%	10.9%	14.9%
greater than 15 to 20 kg (33 to 44 lb)	0.1%	3.1%	8.6%
greater than 20 to 25 kg (44 to 55 lb)	0%	0.9%	3.3%
greater than 25 to 30 kg (55 to 66 lb)	0%	0.2%	1.4%
greater than 30 kg (greater than 66 lb)	0%	0.1%	0.8%

Key: kg = kilograms; lb = pounds

7) Weight gain (greater than 7% of their baseline weight) occurred in 66% of patients treated with olanzapine (n=448) with the mean weight gain of 6.7 kg. Discontinuation due to weight gain in long-term exposure (48 week) olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients. In long-term olanzapine monotherapy studies, the mean weight gain was 6.4% of patients who gained at least 7% of their baseline weight. Discontinuation due to weight gain occurred in 2.2% of patients in long-term olanzapine monotherapy studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

8) An average weight gain of 4.6 kg in olanzapine-treated adolescents and 0.3 kg in placebo-treated adolescents in controlled trials of adolescents (under the age of 18 years) treated with monotherapy olanzapine for a median of 4 weeks, 40.6% of olanzapine-treated compared with 9.8% of placebo-treated patients gained at least 7% of their baseline weight. In 19 weeks, 7.1% of olanzapine-treated compared with 2.7% of placebo-treated patients gained at least 15% of their baseline weight due to weight gain was 1% and 0% in the olanzapine and placebo treated patients, respectively (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

9) In long-term (24 weeks or more) olanzapine studies, 89% of adolescents gained at least 7% of their baseline weight with a mean weight gain of 11.2 kg. Baseline body mass index (BMI) did not affect the amount gained. Discontinuation occurred in 2.2% of olanzapine-treated patients (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

10) The table below provides the adolescent weight gain with olanzapine treated patients from 6 clinical olanzapine studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009) :

--	--	--	--

Olanzapine-Monotherapy Trials in Adolescents	
Amount Gained	6 weeks n=243
0 kg gain or loss of weight	2.9%
0 to 5 kg (0 to 11 lb)	47.3%
greater than 5 to 10 kg (11 to 22 lb)	42.4%
greater than 10 to 15 kg (22 to 33 lb)	5.8%
greater than 15 to 20 kg (33 to 44 lb)	0.8%
greater than 20 to 25 kg (44 to 55 lb)	0.8%
greater than 25 to 30 kg (55 to 66 lb)	0%
greater than 30 to 35 kg (66 to 77 lb)	0%
greater than 35 to 40 kg (77 to 88 lb)	0%
greater than 40 kg (greater than 88 lb)	0%
Key: kg = kilograms; lb = pounds	

11) Weight gain (39.8%) and increased appetite (32%) were reported following the administration of olanzapine and 46.1 mg/day, respectively (Corya et al, 2003a).

12) Adolescent patients taking olanzapine experienced greater weight gain and increased in body mass index in a retrospective study involving 103 patients younger than 18 years of age. Patients received olanzapine (n=50, mean daily dose 510.9 mg) for at least 2 weeks. Weight and height were measured at baseline and 14 or more months later. The mean weight gain in the olanzapine group was 3.8 kg (p less than 0.001) compared to 0.03 kg in the quetiapine group. Height gain in the olanzapine group was 0.006 meters (p=0.042) and 0.006 meters in the quetiapine group (p=0.006). For baseline differences, the mean weight change between groups was significant (3.4 kg, p less than 0.001). The olanzapine group (p less than 0.001) compared to a decreased of 0.2 kg/m(2) in the quetiapine group. A difference in change in BMI was significant (0.9 kg/m(2), p=0.008) (Patel et al, 2004).

13) Excessive appetite was seen more commonly with olanzapine therapy than with haloperidol (24% versus 12%). Olanzapine was also associated with a clinically significant greater increase in weight over haloperidol therapy (p less than 0.001). That body mass index was the predominant predictor of weight gain. Patients with a low prestudy body mass index had a greater weight gain with olanzapine treatment. Treatment effect on weight change was consistent between male and female patients (p=0.001).

14) A prospective, multicenter, observational study showed that olanzapine treatment of outpatients (n=212) was associated with a significantly lower incidence of adverse events than other antipsychotic drug therapies (n=821) receiving a variety of other antipsychotic drug therapies. Drugs used in the control group included risperidone, sertindole, zuclopenthixol, fluphenazine, thioridazine, perphenazine, pimozide, clozapine, pipotiazine, sulpiride, thioridazine, and lorazepam. Overall, olanzapine had a significantly lower incidence of adverse events than the control group (p=0.001). Somnolence and weight gain occurred significantly more frequently in olanzapine-treated patients. Akathisia, hypertension, and tremor were significantly higher in the control group. Abnormal ejaculation and impotence occurred significantly more frequently in the control group. Over a 6-month period, fewer olanzapine-treated patients received a concomitant anticholinergic drug (36% versus 58%, p less than 0.001) (Gomez et al, 2000).

3.3.4 Gastrointestinal Effects

Abdominal distension

Constipation

Diarrhea

Dysphagia

Flatulence

Gastrointestinal hemorrhage

Increased appetite

Nausea

Xerostomia

3.3.4.A Abdominal distension

1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 2% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 0% of patients who received oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.4.B Constipation

1) Constipation was associated with olanzapine/fluoxetine in premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBY

3.3.4.C Diarrhea

1) Incidence: 12.5% (Corya et al, 2003a)
 2) Dry mouth (37.1%), nausea (15.7%), and diarrhea (12.5%) have occurred following the administration of 7.5 and 46.1 milligrams/day, respectively (Corya et al, 2003a).

3.3.4.D Dysphagia

1) Antipsychotic drug use has been associated with esophageal dysmotility and aspiration. Olanzapine/fluoxetine and Alzheimer's disease due to the risk of aspiration pneumonia, a common cause of morbidity and mortality in the SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.4.E Flatulence

1) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 3% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo capsule, 2009).

3.3.4.F Gastrointestinal hemorrhage

1) Serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) and SSRIs, including fluoxetine, may increase the risk of bleeding. Aspirin, NSAIDs, warfarin and other anticoagulants may increase this risk. Case reports and epidemiological studies have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. The same epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. The same epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. The same epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. Patients should be carefully monitored when olanzapine/fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued. Patients receiving warfarin therapy should be carefully monitored when olanzapine/fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

2) Case reports have documented the occurrence of bleeding episodes in patients treated with psychotropic drugs. Subsequent epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. The same epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. The same epidemiological studies, both of the case-control and cohort design, have demonstrated an association between use of drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. Patients should be carefully monitored when olanzapine/fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued. Patients receiving warfarin therapy should be carefully monitored when olanzapine/fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.4.G Increased appetite

1) Incidence: 20% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 20% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 4% of patients who received placebo capsule, 2009).

3.3.4.H Nausea

1) Incidence: 15.7% (Corya et al, 2003a)
 2) Dry mouth (37.1%), nausea (15.7%), and diarrhea (12.5%) have occurred following the administration of 7.5 and 46.1 milligrams/day, respectively (Corya et al, 2003a).

3.3.4.I Xerostomia

1) Incidence: 15% to 37.1% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009; Corya et al, 2003a)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 15% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 6% of patients who received placebo capsule, 2009).
 3) Dry mouth (37.1%), nausea (15.7%), and diarrhea (12.5%) have occurred following the administration of 7.5 and 46.1 milligrams/day, respectively (Corya et al, 2003a).

3.3.5 Hematologic Effects

Aplastic anemia

Decreased hemoglobin

Lymphocytopenia

Neutropenia

3.3.5.A Aplastic anemia

1) Aplastic anemia has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.5.B Decreased hemoglobin

1) Incidence: 2.6% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low hemoglobin level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (2.6% vs 0%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.5.C Lymphocytopenia

1) Incidence: 1.9% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low lymphocytes level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (1.9% vs 0%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.5.D Neutropenia

1) Neutropenia has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.6 Hepatic Effects

Cholestatic hepatitis

Decreased bilirubin level

Hepatitis

Increased liver function test

3.3.6.A Cholestatic hepatitis

1) Incidence: rare (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In the postmarketing period, there have been rare reports of hepatitis and very rare cases of cholestatic hepatitis (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3) Jaundice and cholestatic jaundice have been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.6.B Decreased bilirubin level

1) Incidence: 15.3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), low total bilirubin level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (15.3% vs 3.9%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.6.C Hepatitis

1) Incidence: rare (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In the postmarketing period, there have been rare reports of hepatitis and very rare cases of cholestatic hepatitis (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.6.D Increased liver function test

1) Incidence: 2% to 3.4% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) As with olanzapine, asymptomatic elevations of hepatic transaminases (ALT (SGPT), AST (SGOT), and GGT) were observed with olanzapine/fluoxetine. In the olanzapine/fluoxetine-controlled database, ALT (SGPT) elevation of the normal range) were observed in 3.4% (20/586) of patients exposed to olanzapine/fluoxetine compared to 3.5% (23/665) of olanzapine-treated patients. The difference between olanzapine/fluoxetine and placebo was not statistically significant. In the olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies, 5 patients had increases in ALT 5 times or more of the upper limit of normal and 4 had transient elevations greater than 200 IU/L (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3) In olanzapine placebo-controlled studies, clinically significant ALT elevations (3 times the upper limit of normal or greater) were observed in 6/243 (2.5%) of patients exposed to olanzapine compared with 0% (0/115) of the placebo patients. None of these patients, liver enzymes decreased toward normal despite continued treatment, and in 2 others, enzymes decreased but remained elevated. In 1 patient, seropositive for hepatitis C, had persistent enzyme elevations for 4 months after discontinuation of olanzapine to determine if enzymes normalized (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

4) Within the larger olanzapine premarketing database of about 2400 patients with baseline ALT less than or to greater than 200 international units/L was 2% (50/2381). None of these patients experienced jaundice or o and most had transient changes that tended to normalize while olanzapine treatment was continued. Among approximately 1% (23/2500) discontinued treatment due to transaminase increases (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R))

3.3.7 Immunologic Effects

3.3.7.A Immune hypersensitivity reaction

1) In premarketing controlled clinical studies, the overall incidence of rash or allergic events in treated patient (5.2% (25/477)). The majority of the cases of rash and/or urticaria were mild; however, three patients discontinued due to severity, and two due to allergic events, one of which included face edema). In fluoxetine US clinical studies, developed various types of rashes and/or urticaria (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

2) Among the cases of rash and/or urticaria reported in premarketing clinical studies, almost a third were with and/or systemic signs or symptoms associated with the rash. Clinical findings reported in association with rash included carpal tunnel syndrome, respiratory distress, lymphadenopathy, proteinuria, and mild transaminase elevation. Discontinuation of fluoxetine and/or adjunctive treatment with antihistamines or steroids, and all patients experienced complete resolution (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3) In fluoxetine premarketing clinical studies, 2 patients are known to have developed a serious cutaneous syndrome with unequivocal diagnosis, but 1 was considered to have a leukocytoclastic vasculitis, and the other, a severe dermatitis variously to be a vasculitis or erythema multiforme. Other patients have had systemic syndromes suggestive of fluoxetine, systemic events, possibly related to vasculitis, have developed in patients with rash. Although the events involved the lung, kidney, or liver. Death has been reported to occur in association with these systemic events (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

4) Anaphylactoid events, including bronchospasm, angioedema, and urticaria alone and in combination, have been reported rarely. These events have been associated with inflammatory processes of varying histopathology and/or fibrosis, have been reported rarely. These events have been reported as a symptom. Whether these systemic events and rash have a common underlying cause or are due to different underlying causes. Furthermore, a specific underlying immunologic basis for these events has not been identified. Upon the appearance of these phenomena for which an alternative etiology cannot be identified, the drug should be discontinued (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.8 Musculoskeletal Effects

Arthralgia

Muscle rigidity

Pain, Extremity

3.3.8.A Arthralgia

1) Incidence: 4% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment with fluoxetine/olanzapine, 4% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.8.B Muscle rigidity

1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment with fluoxetine/olanzapine, 2% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.8.C Pain, Extremity

1) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment with fluoxetine/olanzapine, 3% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9 Neurologic Effects

Asthenia

Central nervous system finding

Dizziness

Dyskinesia

Hypersomnia

Impaired cognition

Lethargy

Sedated

Seizure

Somnolence

Tremor

3.3.9.A Asthenia

- 1) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine combination (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.B Central nervous system finding

- 1) Cerebrovascular adverse events (eg, stroke, transient ischemic attack), including fatalities, were reported in placebo-controlled trials, there was a significantly higher incidence in patients treated with olanzapine compared to patients treated with placebo. Olanzapine is not approved for the treatment of dementia-related psychosis. (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 2) Somnolence (47.7%), headache (22.3%), asthenia (19.3%), tremor (18.8%), anxiety (13.9%), dizziness (11.6%) were reported following the administration of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination at mean doses of 7.5 mg/day (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2003a).

3.3.9.C Dizziness

- 1) Incidence: 1.6% to 6.6%
- 2) In a single 8-week randomized, double-blind, fixed-dose study comparing olanzapine 10 mg/day (n=199), dizziness was reported at 2.6%, 1.6%, and 6.6%, respectively, with significant differences between 20 vs 40 mg/day (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.D Dyskinesia

- 1) A syndrome of potentially irreversible, involuntary, dyskinetic movements (tardive dyskinesia) may develop in patients treated with antipsychotic drugs. Although the prevalence of the syndrome appears to be highest among the elderly, especially elderly women, it is impossible to predict, at the inception of antipsychotic treatment, which patients are likely to develop the syndrome. The risk of developing tardive dyskinesia and the likelihood that it will become irreversible appear to increase as the duration of treatment and the total cumulative dose of antipsychotic drugs administered increase, although much less commonly, after relatively brief treatment periods at low doses or after discontinuation of treatment (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 2) The incidence of dyskinetic movement in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients was infrequent. The mean Abnormal Involuntary Movement Scale (AIMS) across clinical studies involving olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients decreased from baseline in a manner that is most likely to minimize the risk of tardive dyskinesia. If signs and symptoms of tardive dyskinesia are present, drug discontinuation should be considered. However, some patients may require treatment with antipsychotic drugs to control their psychotic symptoms. The need for continued treatment should be reassessed periodically (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 3) Dyskinesia has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in olanzapine/fluoxetine combination therapy in olanzapine/fluoxetine combination premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.E Hypersomnia

- 1) Incidence: 5% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine combination (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.F Impaired cognition

- 1) Sedation-related adverse events were commonly reported with olanzapine/fluoxetine treatment, occurring in 10.9% of olanzapine/fluoxetine patients compared with 10.9% in placebo patients. Sedation-related adverse events (such as somnolence, drowsiness, or fatigue) were reported in 2% (15/771) of patients during controlled clinical studies. As with any CNS-active drug, olanzapine/fluoxetine combination may affect judgment, thinking, or motor skills. Patients should be cautioned about operating hazardous machinery, including driving a motor vehicle, until they are certain that olanzapine/fluoxetine therapy does not affect them adversely (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.G Lethargy

- 1) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.H Sedated

- 1) Incidence: 8% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 4% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.I Seizure

- 1) Incidence: 0.2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) Seizures occurred in 0.2% (4/2547) of olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients during open-label clinical studies. Seizures have also been reported with both olanzapine and fluoxetine monotherapy. Seizures should be used cautiously in patients with a history of seizures or with conditions that potentially lower the seizure threshold. Seizures may be more prevalent in a population of greater than or equal to 65 years of age (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 3) There have been rare reports of prolonged seizures in patients on fluoxetine receiving electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) in clinical studies establishing the benefit of the combined use of ECT and fluoxetine (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.J Somnolence

- 1) Incidence: 14% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 6% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.9.K Tremor

- 1) Incidence: 9% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 3% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.10 Ophthalmic Effects

3.3.10.A Blurred vision

- 1) Incidence: 5% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 2% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12 Psychiatric Effects

Depression, Worsening

Disturbance in thinking

Disturbance of attention

Feeling nervous

Mania

Restlessness

Suicidal thoughts

Suicide

Violent behavior

3.3.12.A Depression, Worsening

1) All patients being treated with antidepressants for any indication should be monitored appropriately and of and unusual changes in behavior, in particular during the first few months or at times of dose increase or decrease (2009).

3.3.12.B Disturbance in thinking

1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 2% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.C Disturbance of attention

1) Incidence: 5% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment attention occurred in 5% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.D Feeling nervous

1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 2% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.E Mania

1) In the two controlled bipolar depression studies there was no statistically significant difference in the incidence of depressive reaction) between olanzapine/fluoxetine- and placebo-treated patients. In one of the studies, the incidence of olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to (3% (5/184)) in placebo-treated patients. In the other study in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to (8% (15/193)) in placebo-treated patients. This limited use of olanzapine/fluoxetine in the treatment of bipolar depression makes it difficult to interpret these findings until a better understanding of the cyclical nature of bipolar disorder, patients should be monitored closely for the development of symptoms of mania (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.F Restlessness

1) Incidence: 4% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment occurred in 4% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.G Suicidal thoughts

1) Adult and pediatric patients being treated with antidepressants for major depressive disorder (MDD) and children who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility (aggressiveness), restlessness), hypomania, or mania may be at risk of suicidal ideation and behavior (suicidality). In pooled analyses of 9 antidepressants including over 4400 pediatric patients with MDD, obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD), suicidal behavior or ideation during the first few months of therapy was demonstrated in children, adolescents receiving antidepressants as compared with placebo. However, pooled analyses of 295 short-term (median duration 11 antidepressants including over 77,000 adults with MDD or other psychiatric disorders did not demonstrate suicidal ideation compared to placebo in adults beyond age 24 years. Further, there was a reduction in risk of suicidal ideation in adults aged 65 years and older. The risk of suicidality was most consistently observed in the trials with signs of risk emerging from trials in other psychiatric indications, such as OCD and social anxiety disorder. Notably, however, there were suicides in the adult trials. The risk of suicidality during longer-term use (ie, beyond seven years) is not known. However, placebo-controlled maintenance trials in adults with depression indicate that antidepressant treatment reduces the risk of suicidal ideation (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.H Suicide

1) The possibility of a suicide attempt is inherent in bipolar disorder and may persist until significant remission should accompany drug therapy. Prescriptions for olanzapine/fluoxetine should be written for the smallest quantity in order to reduce the risk of overdose. There were reports of suicides during clinical trials in adults, but the magnitude of the effect on suicide (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.12.I Violent behavior

1) Violent behaviors have been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed in premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.13 Renal Effects

Glycosuria

Increased uric acid level

Serum blood urea nitrogen raised

3.3.13.A Glycosuria

- 1) Incidence: 4.4% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In an analysis of 6 controlled clinical studies, glycosuria were reported at 4.4% in patients treated with olanzapine/fluoxetine compared to placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.13.B Increased uric acid level

- 1) Incidence: 2.9% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), elevated uric acid level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (2.9% vs 0.5%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.13.C Serum blood urea nitrogen raised

- 1) Incidence: 2.8% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine/fluoxetine clinical studies (including treatment resistant depression, depressive episodes as depressive disorder with psychosis, or sexual dysfunction), elevated urea nitrogen level occurred at a greater frequency in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients compared to placebo (2.8% vs 0.8%) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.14 Reproductive Effects

Erectile dysfunction

Sexual dysfunction

3.3.14.A Erectile dysfunction

- 1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment-resistant depression, decreased libido occurred in 2% of patients who received olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.14.B Sexual dysfunction

- 1) In the pool of controlled olanzapine/fluoxetine studies, there were higher rates of treatment-emergent adverse events including anorgasmia, impotence and abnormal ejaculation in the olanzapine/fluoxetine group than in the placebo group. In the controlled studies that contained a fluoxetine arm, the rates of abnormal ejaculation in the olanzapine/fluoxetine group were less than the rates in the fluoxetine group. None of the depressive disorder study (n=560), decreased libido occurred in 11.4% of patients following the administration of olanzapine/fluoxetine 5 mg/20 mg, respectively (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009; Corya et al, 2003a).
- 2) Sexual dysfunction, including priapism, has been reported with all SSRIs. While it is difficult to know the precise frequency of sexual dysfunction with the use of SSRIs, physicians should routinely inquire about such possible side effects (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.15 Respiratory Effects

Pulmonary eosinophilia

Respiratory finding

Sinusitis

3.3.15.A Pulmonary eosinophilia

- 1) Eosinophilic pneumonia has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed during premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.15.B Respiratory finding

- 1) Pharyngitis (10.4%), rhinitis (22.1%), and dyspnea have been reported in olanzapine/fluoxetine-treated patients (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.15.C Sinusitis

- 1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment-resistant depression, sinusitis occurred in 2% of patients who received olanzapine/fluoxetine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.16 Other

Death

Fatigue

Fever

Neuroleptic malignant syndrome

Pain

Serotonin syndrome

3.3.16.A Death

- 1) Incidence: 3.5% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In olanzapine placebo-controlled clinical trials of elderly patients with dementia-related psychosis, the incidence was significantly higher than the placebo group (3.5% vs 1.5%, respectively)(Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 3) Sudden unexpected death has been reported with olanzapine or fluoxetine monotherapy, but was not observed during premarketing clinical studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 4) Results of a population-based, retrospective cohort study demonstrated that the use of conventional antipsychotics was associated with a higher risk for death than atypical antipsychotics when administered to elderly patients (aged 66 years and older) with dementia-related psychosis. In order to adjust for differences in baseline characteristics between the two groups, propensity score matching was used. The primary outcome of the study was all-cause mortality. The risk for death was higher in the conventional antipsychotic group compared with the atypical antipsychotic group (hazard ratio, 1.26; 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.02 to 1.70); absolute risk difference, 0.2 percentage point) and long-term care cohort (hazard ratio, 1.26; 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.04 to 1.53); absolute risk difference, 1.2 percentage points). For both cohorts, the risk associated with atypical antipsychotic use was lower than the risk associated with conventional antipsychotics. The risk of death associated with conventional antipsychotics was even greater than the risk identified with atypical antipsychotics in the community-dwelling cohort (hazard ratio, 1.55 (95% CI, 1.19 to 2.02) and 1.26 (95% CI, 1.04 to 1.53) for the long-term care cohort). The risk appeared to persist to 180 days for both groups. Some important limitations of this study include the fact that unmeasured confounders may influence the results and cause of death could not be examined (Gill et al, 2009).
- 5) Results of a population-based, retrospective cohort study demonstrated a higher risk for death associated with conventional antipsychotic medications in the elderly (aged 65 years and older) compared with atypical antipsychotic medications. The primary study outcome was mortality. The risk of death associated with conventional antipsychotic medications was higher than the risk associated with atypical antipsychotic medications (hazard ratio, 1.32 (95% CI, 1.23 to 1.42). When the most frequently prescribed conventional antipsychotic, haloperidol, was compared with risperidone, the mortality ratio associated with haloperidol was 2.14 (95% CI, 1.86 to 2.45) and there was no difference associated with olanzapine. The increased mortality risk for conventional versus atypical antipsychotic medications was higher (above median) doses were used (mortality ratio 1.67; 95% CI, 1.5 to 1.86) and also during the first 40 days after initiation of therapy (mortality ratio 1.42 to 1.8). Confirmatory analyses consisting of multi-variable Cox regression, propensity score, and instrumental variable regression confirmed the findings of the study (Schneeweiss et al, 2007).

3.3.16.B Fatigue

- 1) Incidence: 12% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment-resistant depression, fatigue was reported in 12% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 2% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- 3) In a single 8-week randomized, double-blind, fixed-dose study comparing olanzapine 10 mg/day (n=199) and olanzapine 40 mg/day (n=199), fatigue was reported at 1.5%, 2.1%, and 6.6%, respectively, with significant differences between 10 vs 40 mg/day (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.16.C Fever

- 1) Incidence: 2% (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)
- 2) In short-term, controlled studies including depressive episodes associated with Bipolar I Disorder and treatment-resistant depression, fever was reported in 2% of patients who received fluoxetine/olanzapine (n=771) compared with 1% of patients who received placebo (n=771) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

3.3.16.D Neuroleptic malignant syndrome

3) In a prospective longitudinal study (n=201), discontinuation of antidepressant medication in women who were euthymic at the start of pregnancy increased the chance for relapse of major depression compared to women who continued medication. However, neonatal exposure, particularly in the third trimester, to fluoxetine and other selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) has led to complications requiring prolonged hospitalization, and findings have included cyanosis, apnea, seizures, tremor, and constant crying, and the clinical scenario of careful assessments of potential risks and benefits of treatment must be conducted prior to using fluoxetine (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

4) A case-control study found that the use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) after 20 weeks of gestation increased the risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn (PPHN). Fluoxetine, paroxetine, and sertraline carry this increased risk. A total of 377 women who had infants with PPHN were matched to 836 women who did not. After adjusting for other covariates, SSRI use during gestation was associated with an odds ratio of 6.1 (95% CI 2.2-16.8; p=0.001) of delivering an infant with PPHN relative to no use during gestation and non-SSRI antidepressants use at any gestation time was not associated with increased risk in the general population (about 0.1 to 0.2%). According to this study, infants exposed to SSRIs after 20 weeks of gestation had a risk of 0.6 to 1.2% (Chambers et al, 2006).

5) A population-based study of 1782 pregnant women exposed to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors during pregnancy found a perinatal outcome except for treatment in the neonatal intensive or special care unit, particularly with those who had a SSRI during the period of one month before pregnancy and the day pregnancy ended were compared to those who did not. The mean age of both cohorts was 30 years (+/- 7). There were no differences in gestation and birth weight were lower (p less than 0.001) in the SSRI group. Malformations, however, were not significantly different (p=0.4). Purchases of SSRIs (citalopram, fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline and fluvoxamine) were more common among women purchasing fluoxetine during the first trimester, 232 during the second trimester, 239 during the third trimester. When compared to first trimester exposure, treatment in a special or intensive care unit was more common during the second trimester (11.2% and 15.7%, respectively; p = 0.009). Even after adjusting for confounding variables, this association remained significant (OR 1.6; 95% CI 1.1 to 2.2) (Malm et al, 2005).

6) In a prospective clinical trial designed to evaluate the pharmacokinetics of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine during pregnancy outcomes were found to be similar in both the control and treated groups. The study compared 50 mg per day during pregnancy and lactation to 10 women in the control group who were not exposed to fluoxetine. Fluoxetine decreased hepatic blood flow, increased volume of distribution and decreased binding to plasma proteins, trough plasma concentrations of norfluoxetine were low. At delivery, umbilical vein concentrations were 65% and 72% of the maternal concentrations at the end of the postnatal period, plasma concentrations of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine were still elevated, likely due to fetal capacity and CYP2D6 enzyme activity. There were no fetal malformations or difference in birth weights at 15 minutes were lower in the fluoxetine group (Heikkinen et al, 2003).

7) In one study assessing the direct effects of fluoxetine on infant outcome at birth (Chambers et al, 1999), exposure to fluoxetine in the third trimester may be at an increased risk for perinatal complications such as respiratory distress, jitteriness. These neonates may have had difficulty clearing the drug due to its long half-life. Depending on the clinical scenario and patient may consider tapering the dose of fluoxetine to discontinue 10 to 14 days prior to delivery to avoid complications (1999).

8) Based on analyses of independently collected data and that obtained through the Motherisk Program, exposure to fluoxetine during pregnancy was associated with altered temperament and general behavior in children exposed prenatally to fluoxetine as compared to those not exposed (Nulman & Koren, 1996; Nulman et al, 1997). However, among infants who were exposed to either fluoxetine or paroxetine during gestation, those born to mothers with uncontrolled depressive symptoms showed lower cognitive and language skills than those who were well-controlled (Nulman et al, 2002).

9) An increased risk for central nervous system serotonergic symptoms was observed during the first trimester of pregnancy in women who used selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI) during the third trimester of pregnancy. In a controlled, prospective study, 10 milligrams/day of either citalopram (n=10) or fluoxetine (n=10) while pregnant were compared to a control group of 10 women who did not use SSRIs during pregnancy. The study ranged from 7 to 41 weeks. Newborns in the SSRI group had a lower Apgar score at 15 minutes as compared to the control group. The only significant difference observed in the vital signs of the newborns was a higher heart rate in the SSRI group (mean, 153 vs 141 beats per minute; p=0.049). Serotonergic symptom scores in the first 4 days of life were higher in the SSRI group than in the control group (total score, 121 vs 30, respectively; p=0.008). Tremor, restlessness, and Myoclonus was reported in one infant exposed to fluoxetine. Significantly lower cord blood 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid concentrations were observed in the SSRI-exposed infants as compared with the control group (mean, 63 mmol/L vs 77 mmol/L; p=0.007). A significant association was observed between the serotonergic symptom score and the umbilical vein 5-HIAA concentrations in the SSRI group (p=0.007). Although not statistically significant, mean umbilical cord serum prolactin concentrations were higher in SSRI-exposed infants than in control infants at the time of birth (Laine et al, 2003).

2) Olanzapine

a) U.S. Food and Drug Administration's Pregnancy Category: Category C (Prod Info ZYPREXA(R) oral tablets, 2008) (All Trimesters)

1) Either studies in animals have revealed adverse effects on the fetus (teratogenic or embryocidal or other) or studies in women and animals are not available. Drugs should be given only if the potential benefits justify the risks.

b) Australian Drug Evaluation Committee's (ADEC) Category: B3(Australian Drug Evaluation Committee, 1999)

1) Drugs which have been taken by only a limited number of pregnant women and women of childbearing age, but in which no evidence of a major malformation or other direct or indirect harmful effects on the human fetus having been observed. Studies in animals have shown an increased occurrence of fetal damage, the significance of which is considered uncertain in humans.

See Drug Consult reference: PREGNANCY RISK CATEGORIES

c) Crosses Placenta: Yes

d) Clinical Management

1) There is insufficient evidence to clearly establish the safety of olanzapine during pregnancy and it is r only if the potential benefit justifies the potential risk to the fetus (Prod Info ZYPREXA(R) oral tablets, IM disintegrating tablets, 2008). Limited data to date do not suggest an increased risk of major malformation (Goldstein et al, 2000); notably, schizophrenic women may have higher prevalence rates of social and life drug use, low socioeconomic status) associated with risky neonatal outcomes (Patton et al, 2002). Patients with bipolar disorder should be maintained on medication therapy throughout gestation, as these patients are (Altshuler et al, 1996).

e) Literature Reports

1) A prospective, observational study of 54 women (mean age, 30.7 years), recruited from the Emory W antipsychotic medication during pregnancy, showed permeability of the placental barrier. Outcomes were blood samples taken at delivery and through data collected from maternal reports and medical records. F umbilical cord to maternal plasma concentrations) showed a significant difference between antipsychotic 46.8%-97.5%) being the highest, followed by haloperidol 65.5% (95% CI, 40.3%-90.7%), risperidone 49. 24.1% (95% CI, 18.7%-29.5%), showing the lowest placental passage ratio. There was a greater frequency 0.23), low birth weights (30.8%, p=less than 0.07), and neonatal intensive care admission (30.8%, p=less than 0.05) (Newport et al, 2007).

2) There are no adequate and well-controlled studies with olanzapine use during pregnancy. Seven pregnancies with olanzapine, which resulted in 2 normal births, 1 neonatal death due to cardiovascular defect, 3 therapeutic pregnancies, there was no increase in risk of spontaneous abortion, stillbirth, prematurity, or major malformation (Goldstein et al, 2000). Analysis of expanded data from this latter report produced similar conclusions: 71.9% resulted in normal births, 12.5% in spontaneous abortions, 2.1% in premature deliveries, 3.1% in stillbirths (Goldberg, 2002). From an ongoing study to assess the fetal safety of atypical antipsychotics, interim results for olanzapine, or quetiapine had the following outcomes: 20 live births with no malformations, 3 spontaneous abortions (McKenna et al, 2003).

3) Occasional spontaneous case reports of in utero exposure to olanzapine have produced viable newborns (Mendhekar et al, 2002; Nagy et al, 2001; Littrell et al, 2000; Kirchheiner et al, 2000). A case (cord blood) level of 11 nanograms (ng)/mL compared with 34 ng/mL in the maternal plasma drawn before olanzapine 15 mg during pregnancy. During gestation, the maternal olanzapine plasma levels were between 0.1 and 0.2 ng/mL with the only complication being gestational diabetes which was resolved with diet. Delivery at 37 weeks (score of 10/10/10) developed normally during the first 6 months (Aichhorn et al, 2008).

4) In another case report, a 37-year-old woman with a 7-year history of paranoid schizophrenia gave birth to a baby while on olanzapine 25 mg/day starting at week 8 until week 32 when she discontinued it against medical advice. 3 months preceding her pregnancy (Lim, 2001). An isolated case of maternal use of up to 20 mg of olanzapine during the 23rd week of gestation until 10 days prior to delivery has been reported. In this case, a healthy baby was born at 37 weeks and 9-10 at 5 minutes; at 3 months of age, the infant showed age-appropriate milestones (Mendhekar et al, 2002). Day exposure from the 18th week of pregnancy through delivery and during breastfeeding also exists. Despite suspicious motor development at 7 months of age, the infant showed no abnormal findings at 11 months.

B) Breastfeeding**1) Fluoxetine**

a) American Academy of Pediatrics Rating: Drugs for which the effect on nursing infants is unknown but may be harmful.

b) Thomson Lactation Rating: Infant risk cannot be ruled out.

1) Available evidence and/or expert consensus is inconclusive or is inadequate for determining infant risk. Potential benefits of drug treatment against potential risks before prescribing this drug during breastfeeding should be considered.

c) Clinical Management

1) Fluoxetine and its active metabolite, norfluoxetine, appear in breast milk and the oral dose available to the infant is approximately 1 mcg/kg/day for fluoxetine (Burch & Wells, 1992), and 40 mcg/kg/day for fluoxetine plus norfluoxetine (Taddio et al, 2008), many women choose to do so. The American Academy of Pediatrics considers antidepressants to be safe for use during breastfeeding (Anon, 2001). There is insufficient data available to safely recommend use of fluoxetine by nursing mothers. The infant should be monitored for anorexia, weight loss, irritability, and insomnia. The long-term effects of exposure to fluoxetine (SSRIs) via breast milk on the cognitive development of the infant have not been determined.

d) Literature Reports

1) A number of cases have been reported in which fluoxetine was used to treat postpartum depression in which the infant's behavior or composition was observed. While increased infant irritability during maternal fluoxetine treatment has been reported after exposure to fluoxetine during nursing (Epperson et al, 2003; Burch & Wells, 1992; Isenberg, 1990).

2) In a study of 14 mother-infant pairs, the mean total infant exposure was estimated as 6.81% (3.36% for 9 infants with blood samples, 5 and 7 had detectable concentrations of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine, respectively). Symptoms described as uncontrollable crying, irritability, and poor feeding. Symptoms in plasma concentrations of fluoxetine and/or norfluoxetine. One mother also used methadone, and 4 infants had withdrawal symptoms. Authors recommend caution especially during the early neonatal period and in infants exposed in utero to fluoxetine.

3) A 1996 cohort study involved 11 infants nursed by 10 mothers. Although limited by maternal perceptible infant symptoms were reported by the mothers (Taddio et al, 1996).

4) One study described 4 nursing mothers, taking 20 to 40 mg of fluoxetine per day, in which the Bayley development of the infants. None of the infants exhibited any neurological abnormality (Taddio et al, 1996).

5) The manufacturer reports a maternal plasma concentration of 295 nanograms/mL for fluoxetine plus norfluoxetine and a concentration of 70.4 nanograms/mL. No adverse effects in the nursing infant were reported. In another

340 nanograms/mL of fluoxetine and 208 nanograms/mL of norfluoxetine on the second day of breastfeeding not reported. The infant developed crying, sleep disturbance, vomiting, and watery stools (Prod Info PRC capsules, solution, 2008).

6) No clinically significant changes in platelet 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) transport were reported in 11 (the study) exposed to fluoxetine through maternal breast milk. Determinations of whole-blood 5-HT, fluoxetine, and norfluoxetine were made in both infants and mothers prior to initiating fluoxetine doses of 20 mg to 40 mg per day. Post-exposure maternal plasma concentrations of fluoxetine were 125 nanograms/mL, and norfluoxetine were 142 nanograms/mL. Infant plasma concentrations of fluoxetine were below 1 nanograms/mL, and the mean infant plasma concentration of norfluoxetine was 157 nanograms/mL and 23 nanograms/mL, respectively. The mean infant platelet 5-HT levels were 217 nanograms/mL and 230 nanograms/mL, respectively. Bayley Scale scores were determined for revealing that 6 infants were within one standard deviation of the mean on mental and motor development. It is concluded that most exclusively breastfed infants will not likely experience changes in platelet 5-HT levels upon maternal

2) Olanzapine

a) Thomson Lactation Rating: Infant risk cannot be ruled out.

1) Available evidence and/or expert consensus is inconclusive or is inadequate for determining infant risk. Potential benefits of drug treatment against potential risks before prescribing this drug during breastfeeding.

b) Clinical Management

1) Limited data from studies of nursing mothers treated with olanzapine have demonstrated that olanzapine is excreted in breast milk. In a case report described jaundice, cardiomegaly, somnolence, and a heart murmur in the infant of a mother receiving olanzapine doses at 2 months of age (Goldstein et al, 2000a). Undetectable infant olanzapine plasma levels and olanzapine levels of 32.8 to 39.5 nanograms/mL were reported in another case (Kirchheiner et al, 2000a). Because olanzapine is excreted in human breast milk, it is recommended that women treated with olanzapine should not breastfeed. (Prod Info ZYPREXA(R) ZYDIS(R) orally disintegrating tablets, 2008).

c) Literature Reports

1) In a study of healthy, nursing women, olanzapine was excreted in breast milk. The estimated mean infant dose (Prod Info ZYPREXA(R) oral tablets, IM injection, ZYPREXA(R) ZYDIS(R) orally disintegrating tablets, 2008) from mothers receiving 5 to 20 mg/day of olanzapine, the median infant dose ingested through breast milk was 0.84 mg. This compared to a theoretical value of 0.38 mg that was determined using the known pharmacokinetic parameters of olanzapine and assuming 100% bioavailability, relative infant dose was estimated to be 0.22 (Croke et al, 2002). In a case report, breast milk was collected by an electric pump and olanzapine was detected by chromatography. The findings indicated that olanzapine was excreted in the breast milk in relatively small amounts (ratio was 0.42 at steady state (Ambresin et al, 2004)).

2) Limited data from cases of olanzapine exposure via breast milk fail to affirm or eliminate the potential for adverse effects. In a case report, an infant exposed in utero to olanzapine (maternal dose 5 mg/day) who was born with a heart murmur. However, jaundice and sedation continued despite the initiation of bottle-feeding on day seven. In another case, an infant exposed at two months of age (maternal dose 10 mg/day) had no adverse effects (Goldstein et al, 2000a). Infant olanzapine plasma levels (less than 2 ng/mL) despite maternal steady-state trough levels of 32.8 to 39.5 nanograms/mL olanzapine doses of 10 mg daily throughout pregnancy and during breastfeeding (Kirchheiner et al, 2000a).

3.5 Drug Interactions

Drug-Drug Combinations

Drug-Food Combinations

3.5.1 Drug-Drug Combinations

Abciximab

Acecaïnide

Aceclofenac

Acemetacin

Acenocoumarol

Activated Charcoal

Ajmaline
Alclofenac
Almotriptan
Alprazolam
Amiodarone
Amisulpride
Amitriptyline
Amoxapine
Anagrelide
Ancrod
Anisindione
Antithrombin III Human
Aprindine
Ardeparin
Aripiprazole
Arsenic Trioxide
Aspirin
Astemizole
Atomoxetine
Azimilide
Belladonna
Belladonna Alkaloids
Benoxaprofen
Bepridil
Betel Nut
Bivalirudin
Bretylium
Bromfenac

Bufexamac

Bupropion

Buspirone

Cannabis

Carbamazepine

Carbamazepine

Carprofen

Celecoxib

Certoparin

Chloral Hydrate

Chloroquine

Chlorpromazine

Cilostazol

Ciprofloxacin

Clarithromycin

Clomipramine

Clonixin

Clopidogrel

Clopidogrel

Clorgyline

Clozapine

Cyclobenzaprine

Cyproheptadine

Dalteparin

Danaparoid

Defibrotide

Dehydroepiandrosterone

Dehydroepiandrosterone

Delavirdine
Dermatan Sulfate
Desipramine
Desirudin
Desvenlafaxine
Dexfenfluramine
Dexketoprofen
Dextromethorphan
Diazepam
Dibenzepin
Diclofenac
Dicumarol
Diflunisal
Digitoxin
Digoxin
Dihydroergotamine
Dipyridamole
Dipyrrone
Disopyramide
Dofetilide
Dolasetron
Doxepin
Droperidol
Droxicam
Duloxetine
Eletriptan
Enflurane
Enoxaparin

Epoprostenol
Eptifibatide
Ergoloid Mesylates
Ergonovine
Ergotamine
Erythromycin
Eszopiclone
Etodolac
Etofenamate
Etoricoxib
Felbinac
Fenbufen
Fenfluramine
Fenoprofen
Fentiazac
Flecainide
Floctafenine
Fluconazole
Flufenamic Acid
Fluphenazine
Flurbiprofen
Fluvoxamine
Fondaparinux
Foscarnet
Fosphenytoin
Frovatriptan
Furazolidone
Galantamine

Gemifloxacin
Ginkgo
Halofantrine
Haloperidol
Haloperidol
Halothane
Heparin
Hydroquinidine
Hydroxytryptophan
Ibuprofen
Ibutilide
Iloperidone
Iloprost
Imipramine
Indomethacin
Indoprofen
Insulin Aspart, Recombinant
Insulin Detemir
Insulin Glargine, Recombinant
Insulin Glulisine
Insulin Human Inhaled
Iproniazid
Isocarboxazid
Isoflurane
Isoxicam
Isradipine
Ketoprofen
Ketorolac

Lamifiban
Levodopa
Levomethadyl
Levomethadyl
Lexipafant
Lidoflazine
Linezolid
Lithium
Lithium
Lorcainide
Lornoxicam
Meclofenamate
Mefenamic Acid
Mefloquine
Meloxicam
Meperidine
Mesoridazine
Methylergonovine
Methylphenidate
Methysergide
Metoprolol
Milnacipran
Mirtazapine
Mirtazapine
Moclobemide
Morniflumate
Nabumetone
Nadroparin

Naproxen
Naratriptan
Nebivolol
Nialamide
Niflumic Acid
Nimesulide
Nortriptyline
Octreotide
Oxaprozin
Parecoxib
Pargyline
Parnaparin
Paroxetine
Pentamidine
Pentazocine
Pentosan Polysulfate Sodium
Phenelzine
Phenindione
Phenprocoumon
Phenylalanine
Phenylbutazone
Phenytoin
Pimozide
Pirazolac
Pirmenol
Piroxicam
Pirprofen
Prajmaline

Probucol
Procainamide
Procarbazine
Prochlorperazine
Propafenone
Propranolol
Propyphenazone
Proquazone
Quetiapine
Quinidine
Rasagiline
Reviparin
Risperidone
Ritonavir
Ritonavir
Rizatriptan
Rofecoxib
Selegiline
Sematilide
Sertindole
Sibrafiban
Sibutramine
Sotalol
Spiramycin
St John's Wort
St John's Wort
Sulfamethoxazole
Sulfinpyrazone

Sulindac
Sulodexide
Sultopride
Sumatriptan
Suprofen
Tamoxifen
Tamsulosin
Tapentadol
Tedisamil
Telithromycin
Tenidap
Tenoxicam
Terfenadine
Tetrabenazine
Tetrabenazine
Thioridazine
Tiaprofenic Acid
Ticlopidine
Tinzaparin
Tipranavir
Tirofiban
Tolmetin
Toloxatone
Tramadol
Tramadol
Tranylcypromine
Trazodone
Trifluoperazine

Trimethoprim

Trimipramine

Tryptophan

Valdecoxib

Vasopressin

Venlafaxine

Warfarin

Xemilofiban

Ziprasidone

Zolmitriptan

Zolpidem

Zomepirac

Zotepine

3.5.1.A Abciximab

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.B Acecainide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 11 been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.C Aceclofenac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have incl petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a subinterparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.F Activated Charcoal

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased bioavailability of olanzapine
- 2) Summary: Activated charcoal reduces the maximum concentration and area under the concentration-time curve of olanzapine (Zyprexa(R), 1999b). This drug interaction may make activated charcoal useful in cases of olanzapine overdose.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Do not administer activated charcoal and olanzapine concomitantly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: binding of olanzapine in the gut

3.5.1.G Ajmaline

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmics prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), 1999). Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001z).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class Ia antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QT interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.H Alclofenac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control studies of the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEVEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.I Almotriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of almotriptan and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI's) has been reported. Incoordination (Prod Info Axert(TM), 2001). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart rate, hyperreflexia, body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2001).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as almotriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and almotriptan is well tolerated and fluoxetine has only a minimal concentration (C_{max}). Other almotriptan pharmacokinetics are not significantly affected. A randomized, controlled study in healthy volunteers has been conducted. Subjects received each of the following treatments with a minimum of 20 mg fluoxetine capsules on day 1 to 8 and one dose almotriptan 12.5 mg on day 8, (1) one dose of almotriptan on days 1 through 7. Peak almotriptan concentrations were 18% higher following concomitant administration compared to administration alone. This difference was statistically significant (p equal 0.023). Mean almotriptan area under the curve (AUC) and oral clearance were borderline statistically different between treatment groups. Mean half-life was not significantly different. During fluoxetine coadministration, T_{max} was shorter, suggesting that the absorption rate of almotriptan is increased. The author concludes that based on the results of this study and the lack of effect of fluoxetine on almotriptan pharmacokinetics, almotriptan can be safely used concomitantly in migraine management (Fleishaker et al, 2001).

3.5.1.J Alprazolam

- 1) Interaction Effect:** an increased risk of alprazolam toxicity (somnolence, dizziness, ataxia, slurred speech,
- 2) Summary:** Coadministered fluoxetine increases alprazolam serum concentrations (Greenblatt et al, 1992). This interaction is thought to be inhibition by fluoxetine of the cytochrome P450 3A4 isoenzyme (CYP3A4), which is involved in the metabolism of alprazolam. Some benzodiazepines (lorazepam, oxazepam) are metabolized by glucuronidation rather than by CYP3A4. Fluoxetine is a potent inhibitor of CYP3A4.
- 3) Severity:** moderate
- 4) Onset:** rapid
- 5) Substantiation:** probable
- 6) Clinical Management:** Monitor patients for signs and symptoms of alprazolam intoxication (somnolence, dizziness, psychomotor impairment). Alprazolam doses may need to be reduced. Alternatively, consider substituting a benzodiazepine (oxazepam) that has less potential for interacting with fluoxetine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism:** inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4-mediated alprazolam metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports**
 - a)** Alprazolam serum concentrations were analyzed in a double-blind, placebo-controlled study involving concurrent administration of alprazolam 1 mg four times a day and fluoxetine 60 mg each morning for 14 days. Alprazolam levels and a 21% decrease in the alprazolam elimination rate. The elevated alprazolam concentration was not due to renal or hepatic impairment, but did not affect mood status or sedation.
 - b)** The effect of fluoxetine on the pharmacokinetics of alprazolam was analyzed in a 31-day, double-blind study. Twelve healthy male volunteers were given a single dose of alprazolam 1 mg on days 3 and 24. Fluoxetine significantly increased the half-life of alprazolam and decreased its clearance from 61 mL/min to 48 mL/min.
 - c)** Inhibition of alprazolam metabolism by fluoxetine occurs via cytochrome P450 3A4. A randomized, controlled study was used to assess this potential interaction. Twenty healthy volunteers attended four study sessions. In the first two study sessions, alprazolam/placebo was given at steady-state with either fluoxetine or placebo. In the last two study sessions, alprazolam/placebo was given in the absence of an SSRI. At each session they received alprazolam 1 mg orally or placebo. Fluoxetine increased the concentration-time curve by 16% and increased the area under the curve by 32%. Citalopram and fluoxetine did not alter alprazolam pharmacokinetics. These findings suggest that citalopram and fluoxetine differ in their effects on alprazolam metabolism (2002).

3.5.1.K Amiodarone

- 1) Interaction Effect:** an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary:** Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1999). Amiodarone has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity:** major
- 4) Onset:** unspecified
- 5) Substantiation:** theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management:** The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism:** additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.L Amisulpride

- 1) Interaction Effect:** an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary:** Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. Although no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antipsychotics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine, is not recommended. Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including quetiapine (Owens, 2001b), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Swanson et al, 1992).
- 3) Severity:** major
- 4) Onset:** unspecified
- 5) Substantiation:** theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management:** The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and antipsychotics is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism:** additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.M Amitriptyline

- 1) Interaction Effect:** tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase in

de pointes, cardiac arrest)

- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine (Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch et al, 1999).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989a).

b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. When added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the curve increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline. The same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).

c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations. Her levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Following the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was 20 mg/day and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily resulted in a reduction in the desipramine level to 109 ng/mL within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).

d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with walking on a regimen of 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level of desipramine was 244 ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).

e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of 200 mg/day; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 200 mg/day. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).

f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desipramine level in a 70-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.N Amoxapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase in desipramine levels (de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine (Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch et al, 1999).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989a).

b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. When added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the curve increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline. The same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).

c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations. Her levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Following the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was 20 mg/day and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily resulted in a reduction in the desipramine level to 109 ng/mL within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).

d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with walking on a regimen of 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level of desipramine was 244 ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).

3.5.1.Q Anisindione

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2 (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The risk of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR in subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7). Gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).
 - e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on a week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 50 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a subdural interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen increased warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.R Antithrombin III Human

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2 (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4

corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. Treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 1999).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on 20 mg per day for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 20 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a large intraparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.S Aprindine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Tambocor(R) flecainide acetate, 1998). Fluoxetine hinders the metabolism of Class I antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval. The recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001w).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class I antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.T Ardeparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have associated the use of SSRIs and anticoagulants with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. Patients taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, bruising, and bleeding from the gums (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins. The displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following the start of SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 1999).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair **e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a large interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.U Aripiprazole

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased aripiprazole levels
- 2) Summary: Aripiprazole is partly metabolized by cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) enzymes. Coadministration may inhibit aripiprazole elimination causing increased blood concentrations. Consider a dosage reduction for coadministered. If therapy with fluoxetine is discontinued, the dose of aripiprazole should then be increased (FDA, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Increased aripiprazole plasma levels may result if used concomitantly with fluoxetine when these agents are coadministered. If therapy with fluoxetine is discontinued, the dose of aripiprazole should be increased.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated metabolism of aripiprazole

3.5.1.V Arsenic Trioxide

- 1) Interaction Effect: cardiotoxicity (QT interval prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Arsenic trioxide and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended doses (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001u). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, arsenic trioxide is a known QTc interval prolonger, including fluoxetine (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of arsenic trioxide and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) QT/QTc prolongation should be expected during treatment with arsenic trioxide and torsades de pointes have been reported. Over 460 ECG tracings from 40 patients with refractory or relapsed APL treated with arsenic trioxide. Sixteen of 40 patients (40%) had at least one ECG tracing with a QTc interval greater than 500 msec. Prior to and 5 weeks after arsenic trioxide infusion, and then returned towards baseline by the end of 8 weeks after treatment. In all evaluations, women did not experience more pronounced QT prolongation than men, and there was no correlation between QTc interval and age (Vignani et al, 2001).
 - b) QT Prolongation was observed on the electrocardiogram (ECG) of a 52-year-old man who had been followed by 40 milligrams/day thereafter) for depression for 3 months. An ECG just before the start of fluoxetine treatment showed a QTc interval of 440 msec. The QT interval returned to normal within 10 days of discontinuing fluoxetine treatment (Varriale, 2001).

3.5.1.W Aspirin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PAXIL(R) release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for bleeding events (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.X Astemizole

- 1) Interaction Effect: cardiotoxicity (QT interval prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: It is theoretically possible that an interaction might occur between astemizole and fluoxetine because both are metabolized by the cytochrome P450 system. Astemizole is metabolized by CYP3A4. Fluoxetine is known to be a potent inhibitor of CYP3A4 enzymes, including CYP3A4 (Riesenman, 1995a). Coadministered fluoxetine may inhibit astemizole clearance and increase serum concentrations and potential astemizole toxicity. The manufacturer of astemizole recommends avoiding fluoxetine (Prod Info Hismanal(R), 1998). In addition, fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Hismanal(R), 1998).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical

- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of astemizole and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of astemizole P450 metabolism by fluoxetine and/or additive effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Astemizole has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of astemizole and other drugs known to prolong QTc interval is not recommended).

3.5.1.Y Atomoxetine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increase in atomoxetine steady-state plasma concentrations
- 2) Summary: Atomoxetine is primarily metabolized by the cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP 2D6) pathway to 4-hydroxyatomoxetine. In extensive metabolizers treated with selective inhibitors of CYP2D6, such as fluoxetine, atomoxetine steady-state plasma concentrations are increased with selective inhibitors of CYP2D6, such as fluoxetine, observed in poor metabolizers. In extensive metabolizers treated with fluoxetine, the area under the concentration-time curve is 6- to 8-fold greater, and maximum plasma concentration at steady-state is about 3- to 4-fold greater than atomoxetine.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Dosage adjustment of atomoxetine may be necessary when coadministered with fluoxetine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated metabolism of atomoxetine by fluoxetine

3.5.1.Z Azimilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1999). It has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AA Belladonna

- 1) Interaction Effect: excessive anticholinergic activity (severe dry mouth, constipation, decreased urination, blurred vision, tachycardia, and hypotension)
- 2) Summary: The anticholinergic activity of the active alkaloids present in belladonna may predispose the patient to excessive anticholinergic activity when administered with olanzapine. Belladonna contains L-hyoscyamine, atropine, and scopolamine with a total alkaloid content of 0.1% to 0.2% (Blumenthal et al, 1998). Because belladonna is typically available as a homeopathic preparation, the actual content is unknown. Caution is advised.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Excessive anticholinergic activity may be manifested by dry mouth, constipation, urinary retention, blurred vision, elevated temperature, muscular weakness, and sedation. If such effects are noted, the patient should be monitored. In severe cases, paralytic ileus, confusion, psychoses, agitation, delusions, delirium, and paranoia may be observed and hypertension. In severe cases, immediate medical attention should be obtained.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive anticholinergic effect

3.5.1.AB Belladonna Alkaloids

- 1) Interaction Effect: excessive anticholinergic activity (severe dry mouth, constipation, decreased urination, blurred vision, tachycardia, and hypotension)
- 2) Summary: The anticholinergic activity of the active alkaloids present in belladonna may predispose the patient to excessive anticholinergic activity when administered with olanzapine. Belladonna contains L-hyoscyamine, atropine, and scopolamine with a total alkaloid content of 0.1% to 0.2% (Blumenthal et al, 1998). Because belladonna is typically available as a homeopathic preparation, the actual content is unknown. Caution is advised.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Excessive anticholinergic activity may be manifested by dry mouth, constipation, urinary retention, blurred vision, elevated temperature, muscular weakness, and sedation. If such effects are noted, the patient should be monitored. In severe cases, paralytic ileus, confusion, psychoses, agitation, delusions, delirium, and paranoia may be observed and hypertension. In severe cases, immediate medical attention should be obtained.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive anticholinergic effect

3.5.1.AC Benoxaprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate

- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin in
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.AD Bepridil

- 1) Interaction Effect: cardiotoxicity (QT interval prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Both bepridil and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at therapeutic doses (R, 2000). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of bepridil and Vascor(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of bepridil and fluoxetine is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AE Betel Nut

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased extrapyramidal side effects of olanzapine (difficulty with movement or abnormal
- 2) Summary: Case reports have described increased extrapyramidal side effects when betel nut was chewed flupenthixol for schizophrenia (Deahl, 1989a). The extrapyramidal effects were not improved with anticholinergic betel nut discontinuation (Deahl, 1989a). A similar effect may occur if betel nut is chewed with concomitant of betel nut has been attributed to the arecoline content. When given with peripheral anticholinergics, arecoline muscarinic agonist activity (Nutt et al, 1978a). Case reports suggest the onset of betel nut activity to be within discontinuation (Deahl, 1989a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: It is unclear to what extent the cholinergic effect of betel nut may increase the incidence especially if patients are treated with anticholinergic agents to control these side effects. Deterioration in symptoms other extrapyramidal movement disorders may be expected. Persons who have been chewing betel nut have help the clinician discover betel nut use.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: cholinergic effect of betel nut
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Within 3 weeks of initiating betel nut chewing, a 51-year-old Indian man experienced marked rigidity, been stabilized for the previous 2 years on fluphenazine decanoate depot 50 milligrams (mg) every 3 weeks twice daily for a mild Parkinsonian tremor. Within one week of discontinuation of betel nut chewing, the patient report appears to demonstrate decreased anticholinergic effects of procyclidine when coadministered with
 - b) Following betel nut ingestion, a 45-year-old Indian man developed akathisia, tremor and stiffness while on 20 mg daily of procyclidine. This patient had been previously stabilized on flupenthixol 60 mg depot for schizophrenia without extrapyramidal side effects. His symptoms resolved over 4 days after discontinuation of anticholinergic effects of procyclidine were diminished when betel nut was chewed concomitantly (Deahl, 1989a).
 - c) High doses (5 mg, 10 mg, and 20 mg) of subcutaneous (SC) arecoline given one hour after SC administration of anticholinergic agent methscopolamine increased the heart rate and blood pressure of six patients with hypertension. Blood pressure occurred at doses of 5 mg, 10 mg (p less than 0.01) and 20 mg (p less than 0.05). Heart rate increased at 5 mg (p less than 0.01), and 10 mg (p less than 0.05). Subjective effects in some patients included tremor, flushing, nausea, weakness, and mental changes at the higher doses. No peripheral cholinergic effects were noted with effect for arecoline (Nutt et al, 1978).
 - d) A low dose (0.5 mg) of arecoline given intravenously 3 minutes after the peripheral anticholinergic agent increased the heart rates. The peak heart rate increase in a non-REM portion of the infusion period was 6.75 +/- 12.9 beats per minute for placebo and 25 +/- 10.3 beats per minute for arecoline 30 minutes after the arecoline infusion, and the mean heart rate was significantly elevated over placebo for p less than 0.05) (Abramson et al, 1985).
 - e) Though chewing betel nut alone does not significantly increase catecholamine levels, a popular betel nut chewing betel nut, 4 subjects had only a moderate increase in plasma noradrenaline from 266.2 +/- 105.0 pg/mL (p equal to 0.0607). Combining betel nut with lime, catechu and Piper betel flower as is commonly done in India increased norepinephrine in nine subjects from 292.2 +/- 59.5 pg/mL to 375.1 +/- 130.0 pg/mL (p equal to 0.0244) and dopamine from 102.2 +/- 45.0 pg/mL (p equal to 0.0226). In this group dopamine was also elevated in 8 of 9 subjects, but

3.5.1.AF Bivalirudin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If a patient taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following initiation of SSRI therapy. Patients receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients in the warfarin only group experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin only group. Corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding with treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI: 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events. Exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and SSRI users (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The incidence of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1 to 2.7) was not significantly different (Schalekamps et al, 2008).
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).
 - e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient had a long history of atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given warfarin 5 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was reduced. The patient was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The delirium was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen increased warfarin concentrations. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen increased warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.AG Bretylium

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1999). It has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AH Bromfenac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

1999d; Prod Info Buspar(R), 1994; Jenike et al, 1991).

b) Three cases of potentiation of the antidepressant effects of fluoxetine by buspirone have been reported. The patients had treatment-resistant symptoms of depression, obsessional traits, anxiety, and a history of eating disorder regimen.

c) A case report describes a 37-year-old male patient maintained on fluoxetine 20mg per day who began to augment the actions of fluoxetine. The starting dose of buspirone was gradually increased from 5mg twice daily over five weeks. After five days at this dose, the patient complained of confusion, diaphoresis, incoordination, and symptoms of serotonin syndrome. The patient's symptoms resolved shortly after discontinuation of buspirone (Man

3.5.1.AL Cannabis

- 1) Interaction Effect: manic symptoms
- 2) Summary: One case of mania following use of marijuana with fluoxetine therapy has been reported (Stoll proposed, the authors also state the manic symptoms could have resulted from the fluoxetine or marijuana alone and taking fluoxetine or other serotonin reuptake inhibitors).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution patients taking selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors to avoid concomitant
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 21-year-old female presented with mania, agitation, and grandiose delusions following use of marijuana taking fluoxetine 20 mg daily for 4 weeks and reported smoking 2 "joints" during a 36-hour period. Over time, her energy, hypersexuality, pressured speech, and grandiose delusions gradually resolved over 4 days. She remained hospitalized for 36 days. Fluoxetine 20 mg every other day was discontinued. One week after discharge, she discontinued fluoxetine due to insomnia and feeling "hyper". These symptoms resolved. Due to the rapid switch to mania after smoking marijuana with fluoxetine, the manic symptoms could have developed from either fluoxetine and marijuana, though mania could have developed from either fluoxetine or marijuana alone.

3.5.1.AM Carbamazepine

- 1) Interaction Effect: reduced olanzapine efficacy
- 2) Summary: Carbamazepine induces CYP1A2 mediated oxidation. Concomitant administration of olanzapine increased the clearance of olanzapine by 50% (Prod Info Zyprexa(R), 1999a). Higher daily doses of carbamazepine increase olanzapine clearance. In a study of 11 healthy volunteers, concurrent administration of olanzapine and carbamazepine increased olanzapine clearance (Lucas et al, 1998). Because patients respond to a relatively wide range of olanzapine doses, adjustment of symptom patterns and changes is necessary whenever carbamazepine is added to or withdrawn from olanzapine therapy. Adjustments will most likely be highly patient specific (Licht et al, 2000a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for olanzapine efficacy. Doses of olanzapine may need to be adjusted when carbamazepine is added or withdrawn.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: induction of cytochrome P450 1A2-mediated olanzapine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 23-year-old paranoid schizophrenic female was admitted to the hospital for treatment of hallucinations. She was on risperidone 6 mg daily, but carbamazepine 600 mg daily was initiated for aggressive behavior. Risperidone was also discontinued due to akathisia, rigidity, and tremor, but risperidone was also discontinued due to akathisia. Carbamazepine was started and her psychiatric symptoms improved over the next three weeks. Because her aggression did not improve, carbamazepine was discontinued due to lack of efficacy. She had received cotherapy with olanzapine 15 mg daily for three consecutive weeks. The day prior to carbamazepine discontinuation, the patient's olanzapine serum concentration was 45 ng/mL. Over the next few weeks, her olanzapine concentration increased by 114% to 45 ng/mL. The dose of olanzapine was increased to 30 mg daily. The corresponding fall in the olanzapine level occurred. This case report suggests that carbamazepine induces olanzapine metabolism through the cytochrome P450 1A2 enzyme system (Licht et al, 2000).

3.5.1.AN Carbamazepine

- 1) Interaction Effect: carbamazepine toxicity (ataxia, nystagmus, diplopia, headache, vomiting, apnea, seizure)
- 2) Summary: The addition of fluoxetine to carbamazepine therapy has increased carbamazepine concentrations. Symptoms of carbamazepine toxicity (ataxia, nystagmus, diplopia, headache, vomiting, apnea, seizure) have been reported with the addition of fluoxetine (Spina et al, 1993a). Symptoms of serotonin syndrome (myoclonus, mental status changes) have also been reported with this combination (Dursun et al, 1993a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Due to the potential to increase carbamazepine levels, patients should be monitored when fluoxetine is added to therapy. Carbamazepine levels should be considered within two to three weeks of additional adjustments made as indicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased carbamazepine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) An interaction between fluoxetine and carbamazepine was reported in six normal volunteers (Grimsley

days, and fluoxetine was added to the regimen on day 7. The addition of fluoxetine 20 mg daily to carbamazepine decreased the area under the concentration-time curve for both carbamazepine and carbamazepine-epoxide and a significant changes were observed in absorption, volume of distribution or elimination rate constant, indicating carbamazepine.

b) The effect of fluoxetine 20 mg daily was studied for three weeks in eight epileptic patients who were (Pearson, 1993). Steady-state plasma levels of carbamazepine and its epoxide metabolite were not significantly changed. The authors speculate that chronic carbamazepine administration may have decreased levels of fluoxetine, thereby lowering the chances of a metabolic interaction. Unfortunately, fluoxetine levels were not measured.

c) An interaction between fluoxetine and carbamazepine was reported in two patients receiving chronic therapy with carbamazepine 200 mg daily respectively. Within 7 to 10 days of initiation of fluoxetine 20 mg daily, both patients developed symptoms of parkinsonism which disappeared within two weeks in one patient following carbamazepine dosage reduction by 200 mg daily with symptom resolution within two weeks (Pearson, 1990).

d) Two cases of parkinsonism were reported after fluoxetine was added to an existing carbamazepine regimen. The first patient developed symptoms three days after fluoxetine 20 mg per day was added to an existing 12-month regimen of carbamazepine 200 mg twice daily. The patient developed cogwheel rigidity, a mask-like face, and a parkinsonian gait. After discontinuation of fluoxetine, the patient showed only a slight hypertonia of the arms 17 days later. The other patient, a 53-year old woman, developed parkinsonism after fluoxetine 20 mg per day was added to an existing regimen of carbamazepine 200 mg twice daily. The parkinsonism was stopped when fluoxetine was added. The patient developed cogwheel rigidity and a parkinsonian gait during fluoxetine therapy (Gernaat et al, 1991).

e) A female patient experienced a drug interaction 14 days after she had fluoxetine 20 mg added to a regimen of carbamazepine 200 mg twice daily. The patient presented with symptoms of serotonin syndrome, such as uncontrollable shivering, agitation, incontinence, and diaphoresis. The patient also had leukopenia and thrombocytopenia. After discontinuation of fluoxetine, the parkinsonism and hematological abnormalities resolved over the next 72 hours (Dursun et al, 1993).

3.5.1.AO Carprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications. The amount of hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of hospitalizations was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.AP Celecoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications. The amount of hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of hospitalizations was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.AQ Certoparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs. Taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients. SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The risk of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. Hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2001).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin 5 mg daily for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 20 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.AR Chloral Hydrate

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
2) Summary: Chloral hydrate and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Chloral Hydrate, 2001a; Young et al, 1986). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration is not recommended.

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of chloral hydrate and fluoxetine is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

8) Literature Reports

a) QT Prolongation was observed on the electrocardiogram (ECG) of a 52-year-old man who had been followed by 40 milligrams/day thereafter) for depression for 3 months. An ECG just before the start of fluoxetine treatment showed a prolonged QT interval. The QT interval returned to normal within 10 days of discontinuing fluoxetine treatment (Varriale, 2001a).

3.5.1.AS Chloroquine

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
2) Summary: Chloroquine and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Aralen(R), 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration is not recommended.

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of chloroquine and fluoxetine is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AT Chlorpromazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Although citing no data, the manufacturers of some phenothiazines state that concomitant use not recommended. Q and T wave distortions have been observed in patients taking phenothiazines (Prod Inf 2002; Prod Info Thorazine(R), 2002) . Other phenothiazines may have similar effects, though no reports are : the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2003).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a phenothiazine is not recommende
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AU Cilostazol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding event: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.AV Ciprofloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of olanzapine toxicity (increased sedation, orthostatic hypotension)
- 2) Summary: Ciprofloxacin was suspected of inhibiting the metabolism of olanzapine in a 54-year-old female 1A2 (CYP1A2) has been shown in vitro to be responsible for the formation of some of the metabolites of olan inhibitor of CYP1A2. Although olanzapine has a wide therapeutic range and a correlation between plasma co established, this interaction may be clinically significant (Markowitz & DeVane, 1999a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Patients receiving olanzapine and ciprofloxacin concurrently should be monitored fc increased sedation and orthostatic hypotension.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition by ciprofloxacin of cytochrome P450 1A2-mediated olanzapine metabolis
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 54-year-old female was admitted to the hospital with suicidal ideation and lacerations to her wrists. olanzapine 10 mg at bedtime, nefazodone 100 mg twice daily, atenolol 25 mg daily, levothyroxine 0.25 n Nefazodone was tapered off prior to electroconvulsive therapy, and ciprofloxacin 250 mg twice daily for s tract infection. Immediately before her last dose of ciprofloxacin, the plasma olanzapine concentration w: was discontinued, her olanzapine concentration had decreased by more than 50% to 14.6 ng/mL. Althou effects from her increased olanzapine level, higher doses of ciprofloxacin could potentially cause more ir (DeVane, 1999).

3.5.1.AW Clarithromycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: delirium and psychosis
- 2) Summary: Delirium and psychosis were reported in a 53-year-old male after clarithromycin was added to i effects are most likely due to accumulation of fluoxetine (Pollak et al, 1995a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Clarithromycin should be avoided in patients treated with fluoxetine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: fluoxetine toxicity due to decreased metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Delirium and psychosis were reported in a 53-year-old male after clarithromycin was added to therap; most likely due to accumulation of fluoxetine, because these symptoms have been associated with fluoxi patient had previously tolerated an inadvertent overdose of nitrazepam without symptoms of delirium an

3.5.1.AX Clomipramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of seizures
- 2) Summary: Psychotropic drugs have been shown to reduce the seizure threshold. A case report describes who received treatment with olanzapine and clomipramine concomitantly. This combination resulted in seizur olanzapine and clomipramine. It is advised to use caution when administering olanzapine concomitantly with seizure threshold (Deshauer et al, 2000a).
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: It is advised to use caution when administering olanzapine concomitantly with clom seizure threshold.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 34-year-old male with schizophrenia and obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) without any underlying following long-term noncompliance. Inpatient olanzapine treatment (20 mg/day) was initiated and positive Patient was discharged and readmitted because of inability to control symptoms. Clomipramine 250 mg and myoclonic jerks were reported which quickly progressed to general motor seizures and postictal somnolence and paroxysmal slowing on the EEG was consistent with seizure activity. Clomipramine and olanzapine were controlled with diazepam 30 mg per day for three days. This pattern repeated upon re-challenge with clomipramine. Presumably from the temporal relationship between clomipramine and olanzapine administration, it is suspected that this adverse event is due to an interaction between these two drugs. Clomipramine and cytochrome P450 isoenzymes 1A2 and 2D6. One theory is that coadministration may result in elevated levels of clomipramine by which this interaction occurs is not yet known, it is advised to use caution when administering clomipramine, or other agents known to lower the seizure threshold (Deshauer et al, 2000).

3.5.1.AY Clonixin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants who had hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased risk of upper GI bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.AZ Clopidogrel

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.BA Clopidogrel

- 1) Interaction Effect: reduction in clinical efficacy of clopidogrel
- 2) Summary: Clopidogrel is metabolized to its active metabolite by CYP2C19. Concomitant use of CYP2C19 inhibitors with clopidogrel is discouraged (Prod Info PLAVIX(R) oral tablet, 2009).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of clopidogrel and fluoxetine is discouraged (Prod Info PLAVIX(R) oral tablet, 2009).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of CYP2C19-mediated clopidogrel metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.BB Clorgyline

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) may result in serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1999).

- 1993t; Feighner et al, 1990t; Kline et al, 1989u; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990u). Concomitant use is contraindicated
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
 - 4) Onset: rapid
 - 5) Substantiation: theoretical
 - 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and a MAO inhibitor is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating MAO inhibitor therapy.
 - 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
 - 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991v). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991v). If the syndrome is not treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for five weeks before beginning therapy with MAO inhibitors. One case report describes a 28-year old woman who had discontinued a 2-year fluoxetine regimen for sertraline. Over the next few days the patient developed fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal pain, and rigidity. Upon discontinuation of sertraline, the patient's symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken during therapy revealed no presence of fluoxetine; however, the norfluoxetine level was 84 ng/mL (Coffman et al, 1994).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylcypromine (n=9) included: restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure changes (33%). None of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, or MAO inhibitors).
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir et al, 1994). Symptoms of insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added. Symptoms of rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after starting therapy.
 - e) Two cases suggestive of an interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline were reported (Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990u). In the first case, an episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. The selegiline was discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, which occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued. Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.BC Clozapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of clozapine toxicity (sedation, seizures, hypotension)
- 2) Summary: With concurrent administration of fluoxetine, increased serum clozapine concentrations have been reported (Centorrino et al, 1994a; Centorrino et al, 1996a; Spina et al, 1998a). Certain adverse effects associated with clozapine, such as sedation (Ayd, 1974) and seizures (Haller & Binder, 1990), and might be expected to occur with concurrent use of fluoxetine.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor the therapeutic efficacy of clozapine and for any evidence of toxicity, particularly sedation. Lower clozapine dosage may be required in some clinical situations.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition by fluoxetine of N-dealkylation and N-oxidation of clozapine via the cytochrome P-450 system
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Subjects receiving concurrent clozapine and fluoxetine had 76% higher serum clozapine concentrations compared with controls receiving only clozapine. The mean ratio of total drug level (clozapine plus norclozapine) to dose was 75% higher in patients receiving clozapine and fluoxetine compared with clozapine alone (Centorrino et al, 1994).
 - b) A study evaluated the serum concentrations of clozapine and norclozapine, the major metabolite, with concurrent administration of serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) fluoxetine, paroxetine, and sertraline. Eighty outpatients receiving clozapine for schizophrenia or major affective disorder, and 40 of these patients were receiving an SSRI in combination with clozapine. Twenty were receiving fluoxetine, 10 were receiving sertraline, and 10 were receiving paroxetine therapy. Among the patients receiving clozapine and norclozapine were 41.1% and 44.8% higher, respectively, than in matched patients who were receiving clozapine plus norclozapine concentration to dose was also 37.7% higher in patients receiving SSRIs, in differences between the three SSRIs were minor, and the study groups were too limited for an accurate comparison (Centorrino et al, 1996).
 - c) A 44-year-old male receiving fluoxetine and clozapine was found dead in his yard. The dates of the patient's last medication intake indicated that he had been taking his medications as prescribed. Autopsy results showed a high therapeutic norfluoxetine concentration (0.6 mcg/mL). Fluoxetine found in his blood was being taken as directed. The clozapine blood concentration was in the lethal concentration range (4.0-10.0 mcg/mL). The contents suggested that the clozapine was being taken as prescribed and that the patient had not consumed alcohol. Other pathological findings included pulmonary edema, visceral vascular congestion, paralytic ileus, gas consistent with clozapine toxicity. The combined central nervous system, respiratory, and cardiovascular findings were sufficient to result in the death of this patient, and his death was ruled to be a clozapine overdose due to concurrent use of fluoxetine.
 - d) Ten institutionalized schizophrenic patients stabilized on clozapine therapy for at least one month prior to the start of fluoxetine therapy were included in a study of the effect of fluoxetine on clozapine pharmacokinetics. Fluoxetine 20 mg once daily was administered for eight weeks. Clozapine concentrations increased from 348 ng/mL to 550 ng/mL (58%) at week 8. Plasma levels of norclozapine increased from 381 ng/mL to 550 ng/mL (45%). Clozapine N-oxide levels rose from 89 ng/mL at baseline to 128 ng/mL, representing a 38% increase. Clozapine and metabolite plasma concentrations were not associated with significant changes in efficacy or safety.

3.5.1.BD Cyclobenzaprine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of QT prolongation
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine and cyclobenzaprine caused asymptomatic QT prolongation in a female patient. Her preoperatively to this patient resulted in torsades de pointes and cardiac arrest. The authors of this case report cyclobenzaprine, which is structurally similar to the tricyclic antidepressants, was inhibited by fluoxetine. Cyclobenzaprine, and cyclobenzaprine may also be metabolized via this pathway (Michalets et al, 1998a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Clinicians should monitor patients receiving cyclobenzaprine and fluoxetine for cardiac arrest. Patients who receive these two agents concurrently should avoid other drugs which are also known to prolong the QT interval.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cyclobenzaprine metabolism by fluoxetine via the cytochrome P450 2D6
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 59-year-old female patient was receiving fluoxetine 30 mg daily, cyclobenzaprine 10 mg daily, amlodipine 5 mg daily, and hydrochlorothiazide 25 mg daily. Five days prior to elective Achilles tendon surgery, this patient was premedicated for surgery with intravenous droperidol 0.625 mg and metoclopramide 10 mg. Immediately following cardioversion, the patient's QTc was 500 msec. All preadmission medications were discontinued. On postoperative day 1, the QTc was 440 msec and an electrocardiogram showed normal sinus rhythm (Michalets et al, 1998a).

3.5.1.BE Cyproheptadine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased fluoxetine efficacy
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of cyproheptadine with fluoxetine may result in reduced fluoxetine effectiveness. Concomitant use of cyproheptadine with drugs that possess serotonergic activity (such as SSRIs) might be expected to result in a pharmacodynamic interaction. Lack of antidepressant efficacy has been reported with fluoxetine and paroxetine (Katz & Rosenthal, 1994a; Feder, 1991a; Goldbloom & Kennedy, 1991).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for a reduction in fluoxetine efficacy. When cyproheptadine is coadministered with fluoxetine, the fluoxetine dose might need to be adjusted upward. In some cases, it may be necessary to withdraw cyproheptadine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown; because cyproheptadine is a serotonin antagonist, it may oppose effects of fluoxetine.
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Although not consistently reported, decreased antidepressant effects were found in some patients with fluoxetine therapy (Katz & Rosenthal, 1994; Feder, 1991; Goldbloom & Kennedy, 1991). A 42-year-old woman with major depression, subsequently started cyproheptadine (4 mg per dose) for its antihistaminic properties (Katz & Rosenthal, 1994) and after four doses of cyproheptadine, she experienced dysphoria, irritability, and suicidal ideation. She was rechallenged, her feelings of dysphoria returned.
 - b) A 54-year-old woman was using paroxetine 20 mg per day for the treatment of nonpsychotic major depression. A 4 mg dose of cyproheptadine twice a day was added to her therapy. Two days later, her depression worsened and she experienced psychotic symptoms. Two days after cyproheptadine was discontinued, her depression resolved. She declined to be rechallenged.

3.5.1.BF Dalteparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with warfarin (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. Patients taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with warfarin (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following discontinuation of SSRI therapy. In the warfarin plus SSRI group (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients in the warfarin only group experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin only group. Corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding with treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. Bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin therapy increased the risk of bleeding.

dose or INR ($p=0.48$ and $p=0.31$ respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 0.8 to 3.1) for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 2008).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin for 1 week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally and was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BG Danaparoid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, gastrointestinal bleeding, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin. Protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study ($n=234$), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI ($n=117$) were matched with randomly selected controls. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, respectively. The incidence of bleeding during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, $p=0.009$) compared with warfarin only (3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, $p=0.009$) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin increased the risk of bleeding ($p=0.48$ and $p=0.31$ respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 0.8 to 3.1) for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 2008).
 - e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin for 1 week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally and was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BH Defibrotide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008).

(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years. Corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. Bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. Hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7). Gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).
 - e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 20 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The patient was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BI Dehydroepiandrosterone

- 1) Interaction Effect: reduced effectiveness of olanzapine
- 2) Summary: Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) levels within the normal range of 100 to 400 microgram/deciliter of patients with psychosis (Howard, 1992a). In case reports, patients have been resistant to antipsychotics with olanzapine (Howard, 1992a). Patients being treated with olanzapine should avoid DHEA supplementation.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concomitant use of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and olanzapine. If DHEA is used, 1 mg orally per day may be used to normalize DHEA levels.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: elevated dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) blood levels may reduce responsiveness to olanzapine.
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 24-year-old female diagnosed with schizophrenia was resistant to daily doses of haloperidol 20 milligram tablets 200 mg, and lithium carbonate 900 mg plus thioridazine 300 mg. The patient appeared to have increased abdominal hair, and a 40 pound weight gain in the previous 8 months. Dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) levels were 328 mcg/dL (normal: 100 to 400 mcg/dL). Dexamethasone 1 mg orally at bedtime resulted in a normal DHEA level. The patient appeared calmer, more alert with improved psychotic symptoms and ability to concentrate. A seven-day suppression test with dexamethasone 1 mg orally at bedtime resulted in a normal DHEA level and the patient was well-oriented, conversational, and was making good eye contact. Once dexamethasone was discontinued, the patient's DHEA level increased to 328 mcg/dL. The author concluded that elevated DHEA levels were associated with severe antipsychotic therapy (Howard, 1992).
 - b) A 13-year-old male decompensated with a subsequent two-year period of emotional problems accompanied by barbiturates, and alcohol. His mental status included bizarre, disorganized, delusional thinking, auditory hallucinations, attention to personal hygiene, agitation, and combativeness. He was diagnosed with chronic paranoid schizophrenia undifferentiated type, and schizoaffective disorder, excited type. He was resistant to daily doses of trifluoperazine 100 mg. He was also resistant to combination therapy with chlorpromazine 400 mg with thioridazine 300 mg with perphenazine 48 mg with lithium carbonate 1200 mg, clonazepam 4 mg, and carbamazepine 1200 mg daily. A seven-day suppression test with dexamethasone 1 mg orally at bedtime resulted in a normal DHEA level and the patient was well-oriented, conversational, and was making good eye contact. Once dexamethasone was discontinued, the patient's DHEA level increased to 328 mcg/dL. The author concluded that elevated DHEA levels were associated with severe antipsychotic therapy (Howard, 1992).

and florid psychosis ensued despite "substantial amounts of psychotropic medications". DHEA increased elevated DHEA levels were associated with florid psychosis resistant to conventional antipsychotic therapy.

3.5.1.BJ Dehydroepiandrosterone

- 1) Interaction Effect: development of manic symptoms
- 2) Summary: A case has been reported in which concomitant dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and sertraline episode in a patient with a history of bipolar disorder (Dean, 2000a). DHEA was also noted to cause mania in history of bipolar disorder (Markowitz et al, 1999). Elevated DHEA levels have been found in patients with improvement in psychotic symptoms (Howard, 1992b). DHEA possesses proserotonergic activity which may (Majewska, 1995). DHEA is a precursor to androgenic steroids, which in high doses may precipitate mania (M for bipolar disorder or patients with a personal and/or family history of bipolar disorder should not take DHEA drug-herb interaction. Concomitant use of DHEA with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) should prevent precipitation of mania.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concomitant use of dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and selective serotonin symptoms (i.e. agitation, anger, irritability, aggressive behavior), determine if the patient is using DHEA and c
- 7) Probable Mechanism: serotonergic activity of dehydroepiandrosterone, possibly increased androgen level
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 31-year-old male was admitted following threats to commit suicide and injure family members. He had been taking sertraline daily for the previous 2 to 3 weeks for depression. Sertraline had been prescribed 3 years prior when he discontinued after 2 weeks. He had also taken dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) 300 mg to 500 mg daily for training. Following use of DHEA for a short time, he became more irritable, was not sleeping well, and had difficulty controlling his anger when interacting with family members. He also drank alcohol occasionally and reportedly had difficulty controlling his anger when interacting with family members. He was treated with valproic acid with the dose titrated to 500 mg twice daily. The combination of DHEA, sertraline, and alcohol for the developing of the manic episode (Dean, 2000).

3.5.1.BK Delavirdine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased trough delavirdine concentrations
- 2) Summary: Population pharmacokinetic data in 36 patients suggested that coadministration of delavirdine with zalcitabine resulted in an increase in trough delavirdine concentrations (Prod Info Rescriptor(R), 1999). The clinical significance of this interaction is unknown.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of delavirdine with fluoxetine should be coadministered with caution to avoid delavirdine adverse effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.BL Dermatan Sulfate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with warfarin (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with warfarin (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following initiation of SSRI. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin did not increase the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) found that the risk of bleeding was increased in patients receiving concomitant SSRI therapy (p=0.009).

reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. In subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7). Gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008). **d)** In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 2008). **e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was hospitalized for a week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally and was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BM Desipramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase in blood pressure, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval (e.g., Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the concurrent administration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine (Preskorn et al, 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine has been reported (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch et al, 1994). **3)** Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a dose-dependent manner. The ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989a).
 - b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. When fluoxetine was added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the mean trough concentration increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline throughout the study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).
 - c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations when fluoxetine was added. Her levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Following the addition of fluoxetine to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was 200 mg daily and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe side effects were reported. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily resulted in a return of desipramine serum levels within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).
 - d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with walking when fluoxetine 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level of desipramine returned to baseline with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).
 - e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant increases in her fluoxetine levels. The patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg of desipramine and 20 mg of fluoxetine daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of 200 ng/mL; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 150 mg daily. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).
 - f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desipramine level in a 70-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.BN Desirudin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and gastrointestinal bleeding. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the concurrent use of PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If the patient is taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with frequent INR monitoring.

(Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme b warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bl patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks followi mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected j SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients i treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. 7 treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocou reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal blee hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal l subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh ca a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was giv mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin wa was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later c interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regim warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BO Desvenlafaxine

1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental s

2) Summary: Concurrent use of desvenlafaxine and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) may resu threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Prod Info PRISTIQ(TM) (

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of desvenlafaxine and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening coi agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for syr hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination), especially during treatment initiation and dose increases (Prod I 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

3.5.1.BP Dexfenfluramine

1) Interaction Effect: serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Dexfenfluramine is a nonspecific serotonin agonist that both enhances the release of serotonin therapy with dexfenfluramine and another selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, such as fluoxetine, has the p & Mahowald, 1996). Serotonin syndrome is a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as re status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (S be used in combination with fluoxetine (Prod Info Redux(R), 1997).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of dexfenfluramine and fluoxetine may result in an additive increase system, and could result in serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status chan combination with fluoxetine or other serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effects

3.5.1.BQ Dexketoprofen

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have incl petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5 and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.BR Dextromethorphan

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible dextromethorphan toxicity (nausea, vomiting, blurred vision, hallucinations) or myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine strongly inhibits hepatic cytochrome P450IID6 (CYP2D6), the isoenzyme known to metabolize dextromethorphan (Otton & Wrighton, 1993). Fluoxetine inhibits dextromethorphan metabolism (Otton et al, 1993a). With concomitant use of fluoxetine and dextromethorphan, they competitively inhibit each others metabolism, increasing serum levels of both drugs. Serotonin syndrome, changes in mental status (Sternbach, 1991e), is a possibility with the combined use of dextromethorphan and fluoxetine. There are reports of serotonin syndrome associated with concurrent paroxetine and dextromethorphan therapy (Skop et al, 1994).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution patients taking fluoxetine that an interaction could occur with dextromethorphan. Monitoring may be necessary.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: competitively inhibited metabolism of both agents
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Therapeutic doses of fluoxetine were found to potently inhibit the metabolism of dextromethorphan, a function (Otton et al, 1993). A 30 mg dose of dextromethorphan hydrobromide was given to 19 patients in addition, dextromethorphan was given to 208 known extensive metabolizers and to 15 known poor metabolizers. Dextromethorphan metabolism was reduced in the fluoxetine-treated patients, it was more significantly reduced in the poor metabolizers. This indicates that patients who are slow metabolizers may be at greater risk for experiencing dextromethorphan toxicity when taking fluoxetine.
 - b) A 32-year-old woman experienced visual hallucinations after concomitant use of fluoxetine and dextromethorphan 20 mg daily for 18 days prior to taking two doses of dextromethorphan. After each dose of dextromethorphan, she experienced bright colors. These effects continued for six to eight hours. Fluoxetine was withdrawn and she recovered within 24 hours.
 - c) A 51-year old male patient with vascular disease following concurrent use of dextromethorphan and fluoxetine. Five days after self-medication with a dextromethorphan-containing cold product, the patient experienced symptoms of confusion. Upon arrival to the hospital, the patient presented with diaphoresis, tremor, confusion, abdominal pain, and vomiting. Administration of benzodiazepines and discontinuation of paroxetine, the patient's condition improved and he was discharged (1994).

3.5.1.BS Diazepam

- 1) Interaction Effect: higher serum concentrations of diazepam
- 2) Summary: During coadministration of fluoxetine with diazepam, the fluoxetine area under the curve was not associated with increased impairment (Lemberger et al, 1988a). Conversely, a controlled study observed no effect of fluoxetine on the psychomotor response to diazepam when diazepam was added to fluoxetine (Moskowitz & Burns, 1988a). The metabolism of diazepam may be inhibited by fluoxetine (Riesenman, 1995c; Shen, 1995a; Nemeroff et al, 1996b). Further case reports are needed to appropriately define the pharmacokinetic effects as well as the degree of psychomotor impairment resulting from the combination.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Although dose adjustments are thought not to be necessary when fluoxetine and diazepam are given together, patients for signs and symptoms of excessive diazepam concentrations (sedation, dizziness, ataxia, decreased reflexes), such as the elderly, it may be safer to give a lower dose of diazepam during combination therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of the hepatic P450 metabolism of diazepam
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Coadministration of fluoxetine and diazepam resulted in prolonged half-life, reduced plasma clearance of diazepam. A 10 mg dose of diazepam was given alone, after a single dose of oral fluoxetine 60 mg, and after 8 daily doses of fluoxetine. Fluoxetine had no effect on the psychomotor response to diazepam. Thus, although fluoxetine does not appear to be of clinical relevance and dosing adjustments are not required during combined therapy.
 - b) Combined therapy with diazepam and fluoxetine caused an increase in the half-life of the metabolite of diazepam, which was clinically significant. Diazepam had no effect on the disposition of fluoxetine or norfluoxetine (Lemberger et al, 1988a).
 - c) To date, in-vitro studies have found that diazepam demethylation occurs via P450 1A2, 3A4, 2C9, and 2C19. Fluoxetine is metabolized by these enzymes suggests that fluoxetine strongly inhibits 2C9, moderately inhibits 2C19 and has no effect on 1A2 and 3A4.

1995b; Nemeroff et al, 1996a; Shen, 1995).

d) In a controlled study of performance of 90 healthy volunteers, the effects of fluoxetine, amitriptyline, c Volunteers received one of six treatment combinations, and were given performance tests including a cri search task, memory test, and vigilance test. Fluoxetine alone did not affect performance, but when fluox significant increase in the divided attention tracking error and significant impairment on the vigilance test coadministration with diazepam, significant impairment was observed. On most tests, the combination of effects. The authors concluded that the combination of diazepam and an antidepressant may increase a performing other complex tasks (Moskowitz & Burns, 1988).

e) A case was reported in which an 83-year old man developed delirium after the addition of fluoxetine a furosemide, potassium, digoxin, and acetaminophen. The patient was given fluoxetine 20 mg per day an for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia. The patient then developed symptoms of drug deliri irrational speaking. The patient also developed an increased international normalized ratio (INR), after w presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later died from complications of a large interparer the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen resulted in increased serum levels of both warfarin and and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997a).

3.5.1.BT Dibenzepin

1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval a Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluox 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Goo

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not rec

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation

8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in 4 ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients develop constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al,

b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy : added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278 curve increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline thre same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of s short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).

c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations w levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Fc to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dos and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg dai ng/mL within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).

d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with a 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood leve ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).

e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg 20 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of to 200 mg/day; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impa speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to days. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).

f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desip year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.BU Diclofenac

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have incl petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

- a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 7.1 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
- b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.BV Dicumarol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a)** Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. In subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.8) and gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2005).
 - d)** In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1993).
 - e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient had a 1-week history of atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a large intracerebral hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.BW Diflunisal

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 7.1 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.

CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CC Disopyramide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmic agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), 1999). Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001z).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class Ia antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CD Dofetilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmic agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1999). Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CE Dolasetron

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Though citing no data, the manufacturer of dolasetron recommends caution if dolasetron is administered concurrently with Class I antiarrhythmic agents that prolong the QTc interval (Prod Info Anzemet(R), 1997). Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001y).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and dolasetron is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CF Doxepin

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine, is not recommended (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine has been shown to increase the concentrations of these antidepressants (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch et al, 1989a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a dose-dependent manner. The ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989a).

b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy individuals. When added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the mean trough concentration increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline. The same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of sertraline on short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).

c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations while on a regimen of 300 mg daily. Levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Following the addition of fluoxetine to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was reduced to 200 mg daily and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe side effects occurred. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily resulted in a return to baseline desipramine serum levels within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).

d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with concentration while on a regimen of 40 mg daily of desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level returned to baseline with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).

e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant increases in the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of 200 ng/mL; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 200 mg daily. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).

f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desipramine level in a 70-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.CG Droperidol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Droperidol has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. When used in combination with other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, the risk of torsades de pointes may be increased. (Prod Info Inapsine(TM), 2001; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001ab).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of droperidol and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.CH Droxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, hematuria, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CI Duloxetine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased duloxetine and fluoxetine serum concentrations and an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Duloxetine is a selective serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SSNRI). The concurrent use of duloxetine and fluoxetine is not recommended due to the potential for serotonin syndrome. In addition, the coadministration of duloxetine and fluoxetine may increase the bioavailability of either drug, increasing the risk of serious adverse events. Duloxetine and fluoxetine are both substrates of CYP2D6. Coadministration of duloxetine 40 mg once daily with another SSRI (the potent CYP2D6 inhibitor paroxetine) resulted in a 2-fold increase in the serum concentration of duloxetine (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concomitant use of duloxetine and fluoxetine is not recommended due to the potential for serotonin syndrome. Additionally, concomitant use has resulted in increased duloxetine and fluoxetine serum levels (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: fluoxetine inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated duloxetine metabolism; additive serotone

3.5.1.CJ Eletriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concomitant use of a 5HT-1 agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Imitrex(R) Nasal Spray, 2003). Similar interaction between SSRIs and eletriptan may occur (Prod Info Relpax(R), 2003). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different provider. Monitor patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (FDA, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as eletriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different provider. When used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

3.5.1.CK Enflurane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, enflurane should be used with caution in patients known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine (Owens, 2001c; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001n).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of enflurane with other agents that can prolong the QT interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CL Enoxaparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, hematuria, and hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with concurrent use of PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. Patients taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, while taking PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes warfarin, and warfarin is metabolized (Rieseman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following discontinuation of SSRI. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients in the warfarin only group experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin only group. Corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only (p=0.009). The addition of an SSRI to warfarin increased the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In the Netherlands, researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. The subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1 to 2.7) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 2008).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a subinterparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.CM Epoprostenol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.CN Eptifibatid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.CO Ergoloid Mesylates

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of ergotism (nausea, vomiting, vasospastic ischemia)
- 2) Summary: Because of the potential for serious toxicity including vasospasm that can occur with increased concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated. Fluoxetine and ergot derivatives are both metabolized by the same enzymes, and the competition for metabolism could result in an increased plasma concentration of the ergot derivatives.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4- mediated ergot metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.CP Ergonovine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of ergotism (nausea, vomiting, vasospastic ischemia)
- 2) Summary: Because of the potential for serious toxicity including vasospasm that can occur with increased concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated. Fluoxetine and ergot derivatives are both metabolized by the same enzymes, and the competition for metabolism could result in an increased plasma concentration of the ergot derivatives.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4- mediated ergot metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.CQ Ergotamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of ergotism (nausea, vomiting, vasospastic ischemia)
- 2) Summary: Because of the potential for serious toxicity including vasospasm that can occur with increased concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated. Fluoxetine and ergot derivatives are both metabolized by the same enzymes, and the competition for metabolism could result in an increased plasma concentration of the ergot derivatives.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4- mediated ergot metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.CR Erythromycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Erythromycin significantly increased the mean QTc interval versus baseline in a retrospective study. Erythromycin has demonstrated QTc prolongation in combination with other drugs that prolong the QT interval associated with QT prolongation (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2003a). Caution is advised with coadministration of drugs that prolong QT.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is advised if erythromycin and fluoxetine are used concomitantly. Monitor QTc interval during treatment.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Erythromycin significantly increased the QTc interval compared with baseline in a retrospective study of 100 patients receiving 1 gram four times daily, with a mean of 15 doses received. Patients (n equal to 9) who received erythromycin had increases in QT interval of 15% or greater. For all patients, the mean QTc interval increased from 432 milliseconds to 452 milliseconds (p less than 0.01). In patients with delayed repolarization at baseline (n equal to 9), the QTc interval increased from 432 milliseconds to 452 milliseconds (p less than 0.01). In patients with heart disease (n equal to 30), all experienced an increase in QTc interval (mean of 10% in patients without heart disease (p less than 0.05). In 5 patients (10%), the QTc interval was severely prolonged (QTc greater than 480 milliseconds) attributed to erythromycin. Of 16 patients receiving cotrimoxazole concomitantly, 8 developed QTc prolongation (Bauman, 1995).

3.5.1.CS Eszopiclone

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased psychomotor function
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of 3 mg eszopiclone and 10 mg olanzapine resulted in the pharmacodynamic substitution test scores, a measurement of psychomotor function. No pharmacokinetic interactions were observed (Prod Info LUNESTA(TM), 2004).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for decreased psychomotor function. Adjust dose accordingly or consider alternative therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.CT Etodolac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper gastrointestinal hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of this study suggest that the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs is increased. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increases the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CU Etofenamate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper gastrointestinal hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of this study suggest that the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs is increased. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increases the risk of upper GI bleeding.

than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CV Etoricoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CW Felbinac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.CX Fenbufen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

for depression failed, the patient was started on fluoxetine 20 mg daily. After two weeks, she developed : resting tremor, rigidity, bradykinesia, postural imbalance, and stooped posture. The parkinsonism resolve fluphenazine and the fluoxetine, but the tics reappeared (Kurlan, 1998).

3.5.1.DG Flurbiprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.DH Fluvoxamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of olanzapine adverse effects
- 2) Summary: Fluvoxamine inhibits cytochrome P450 1A2 enzymes and may inhibit olanzapine elimination (The significance of this interaction is unknown since olanzapine is metabolized by multiple enzyme systems).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for excessive olanzapine adverse effects (orthostatic hypotension,
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of olanzapine elimination
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A patient experienced elevated olanzapine plasma levels during coadministration of fluvoxamine. The patient had been on olanzapine for several months for schizophrenia and secondary depression. She appeared to move rigidly, had a slow gait, and olanzapine concentration was 120 mcg/L and fluvoxamine concentration was 70 mcg/L. Olanzapine was discontinued and fluvoxamine was replaced by paroxetine which resulted in paroxetine concentration of 0.027 mcg/L (de Jong et al, 2001).
 - b) Addition of fluvoxamine to olanzapine therapy may result in olanzapine-induced side effects or intoxication. A patient being treated for not less than 3 months with 10-20 mg/day of olanzapine. The dose of olanzapine was unchanged and remained stable throughout the study period. Fluvoxamine 100 mg/day was added to olanzapine and continued for 8 weeks. Olanzapine concentrations increased during fluvoxamine treatment 1.58-fold from week 0 to week 4, and 1.81-fold from week 0 to week 8. Percentage change from week 0 to week 8 ranged from 11% to 114%. Olanzapine demethylated metabolite were not significantly changed. Even though all eight patients had higher olanzapine concentrations than on week 1, the ratio of increase of olanzapine blood serum concentrations from week 0 to week 8 did not differ significantly from 1 (p greater than 0.05). This study confirmed that the addition of fluvoxamine to a stable dose of olanzapine increases olanzapine concentrations in the blood serum. Combined olanzapine and fluvoxamine should be used cautiously with monitoring to avoid olanzapine-induced side effects or intoxication (Hiemke et al, 2002).

3.5.1.DI Fondaparinux

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If a patient taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with the use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes fondaparinux.

warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleedings in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The risk of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. Bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleedings. Hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval). Gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2004).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1993).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on 5 mg daily for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 10 mg of fluoxetine 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.DJ Foscardnet

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Foscardnet can prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachycardia or torsades de pointes. Because fluoxetine may also prolong the QT interval and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent use is not recommended (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001; Prod Info Foscavir(R), 1998).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of foscardnet and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.DK Fosphenytoin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of phenytoin toxicity (ataxia, hyperreflexia, nystagmus, tremor)
- 2) Summary: Fosphenytoin is a prodrug of phenytoin and the same interactions that occur with phenytoin are also seen with fosphenytoin (Cerebyx(R), 1999). Several case reports indicate that concurrent use of fluoxetine and phenytoin can result in increased toxicity (FDA, 1994c; Jalil, 1992c; Woods et al, 1994a). Alternatively, patients who are stabilized or experience subtherapeutic concentrations of phenytoin and loss of seizure control when fluoxetine is discontinued.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor phenytoin serum levels with the addition of fluoxetine and periodically there may be required with concomitant therapy. Serum levels of phenytoin should be monitored following discontinuation because of the long half-life of fluoxetine, decreases in phenytoin levels may not be clinically significant for a short period of time.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased phenytoin metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Twenty-three reported cases of fluoxetine-phenytoin interactions that resulted in large increases in phenytoin toxicity were evaluated. On the average, the adverse effects began within 2 weeks after fluoxetine was added. The average increase in plasma levels in 9 evaluable cases was 161% (range 75 to 309%) and the maximum increase in 10 evaluable cases ranged from 22 to 53.5 mcg/mL (therapeutic level, 10 to 20 mcg/mL) (FDA, 1994b).
 - b) An 84-year-old woman was stabilized on phenytoin 300 mg daily; after two months of treatment, fluoxetine was added. Her phenytoin serum level had increased from 15 to 35 mcg/mL. Both phenytoin and fluoxetine symptoms of toxicity abated. Four weeks later she was rechallenged with the same dose of fluoxetine and phenytoin. In another case, a 57-year-old woman who had been stabilized on phenytoin 400 mg/d for a year (serum level 47 mcg/mL) (Jalil, 1992b). Ten days later she developed vomiting, vertigo, trunk ataxia, limb dysmetria, and her phenytoin serum level was 47 mcg/mL. Fluoxetine was discontinued and all signs and symptoms of toxicity disappeared. Fluoxetine, the phenytoin serum level was 20 mcg/mL.
 - c) A 42-year-old male with a history of grand mal seizures and aggressive behavior was receiving phenytoin 300 mg daily without resolution of his problems. His phenytoin level was 2.0 ng/mL and his dose was subsequently increased to 400 mg daily.

daily was added for aggression, and the patient experienced resolution of his behavioral problems and a level ranged between 10.9 ng/mL and 15.7 ng/mL during fluoxetine therapy. However, the patient discontinued fluoxetine and experienced a recurrence of problems. Phenytoin concentration was measured at 6.6 ng/mL six weeks after a change in his phenytoin dose. This case report illustrates the need for close monitoring of phenytoin level since subtherapeutic levels of phenytoin may result if doses of phenytoin are not readjusted following the 1999b).

3.5.1.DL Frovatriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concurrent use of a 5HT-1 agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Imitrex(R) Nasal Spray, 2003). Similar interaction between SSRIs and frovatriptan may occur (Prod Info Frova(R), 2004). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and coma. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different clinician. Monitor the patient for signs of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (FDA, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as frovatriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different clinician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

3.5.1.DM Furazolidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination
- 2) Summary: Although not its primary mechanism of action, furazolidone has monoamine oxidase inhibitor activity. Adverse reactions have been reported in patients receiving selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI) in combination with furazolidone. Hyperthermia, rigidity, myoclonus, autonomic instability with possible rapid fluctuations of vital signs, and mental status changes progressing to delirium and coma have been reported. Furazolidone should not be used in combination with a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Furoxone(R), 1999).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If concurrent therapy with furazolidone and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) is necessary, monitor the patient for signs of serotonergic excess (mental status changes, diaphoresis, fever, weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

3.5.1.DN Galantamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased galantamine plasma concentrations
- 2) Summary: Based upon in vitro studies, the major enzymes involved in galantamine metabolism are CYP2D6 and CYP2D6. In a population pharmacokinetic analysis using a database of 852 Alzheimer's disease patients, fluoxetine (N=48), demonstrated a 25-33% decrease in galantamine clearance. The resulting plasma concentration of galantamine should be monitored with caution when it is coadministered with fluoxetine. Monitor for galantamine toxicity including anorexia, nausea, vomiting, gastrointestinal bleeding (Prod Info RAZADYNE(R) ER extended release oral capsules, oral tablets, oral solution, 2007).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Increased galantamine plasma concentrations may result from fluoxetine inhibition of CYP2D6. Monitor for galantamine toxicity including anorexia, nausea, vomiting, dizziness, arrhythmias, or gastrointestinal bleeding (Prod Info RAZADYNE(R) ER extended release oral capsules, oral tablets, oral solution, 2007).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome CYP2D6-mediated galantamine metabolism

3.5.1.DO Gemifloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Gemifloxacin should be avoided in patients receiving fluoxetine. Gemifloxacin has the potential to prolong the QT interval (Prod Info Factive(R), 2003). Additive effects on QT prolongation may occur with the concomitant use of fluoxetine.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of two drugs that prolong the QT interval, such as gemifloxacin and fluoxetine, may increase the risk of QT prolongation and torsades de pointes.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.DP Ginkgo

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: The addition of Ginkgo biloba and/or St. John's Wort to therapy with buspirone and fluoxetine may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome.

case report (Spinella & Eaton, 2002a). It is unclear if Ginkgo or St. John's Wort, the combination of both, or o Theoretically, Ginkgo may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome when taken with selective serotonin reupt especially when ginkgo is taken to counteract sexual dysfunction associated with SSRIs. Ginkgo may inhibit i al, 1996), and has demonstrated serotonergic activity in animals (Ramassamy et al, 1992) which might incree is combined with SSRIs. The potential MAO inhibitory activity of ginkgo is questionable. A human study did n consumption (Fowler et al, 2000). Ginkgo biloba extract inhibited MAO-A/MAO-B in the rat brain in vitro (Slok human platelets in vitro (White et al, 1996). No significant MAO inhibition was found in mice following oral cor

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome if ginkgo is combined (SSRIs).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 42-year-old female experienced symptoms consistent with a mixed hypomanic episode following cc biloba, and St. John's Wort. The symptoms resolved following discontinuation of Ginkgo and St. John's V depression following a mild traumatic brain injury with fluoxetine 20 milligrams (mg) twice daily and busp presentation, buspirone was increased to 20 mg twice daily for persistent anxiety and the patient began i Wort in unspecified doses. Melatonin was considered unlikely to have contributed to her symptoms. Gink possible contributors since they may potentiate antidepressants, and considering the temporal relationsf symptoms and discontinuation of the herbs and resolution of symptoms. However, the brain injury was c Eaton, 2002).

3.5.1.DQ Halofantrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Halofantrine can prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachy pointes. Because fluoxetine has demonstrated QT prolongation at therapeutic doses and may increase the ri of halofantrine with fluoxetine is not recommended (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001i; Prod Info Halfan(R), 1998).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of halofantrine and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.DR Haloperidol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of parkinsonism (cogwheeling rigidity, unstable gait)
- 2) Summary: A patient receiving haloperidol experienced extreme parkinsonism following the addition of olar pharmacokinetic interaction between olanzapine, a weak cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) inhibitor, and halc Pharmacodynamically, the small amount of dopamine (D2) blockade from olanzapine may have been enough (Gomberg, 1999a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Patients should be closely monitored for signs and symptoms of increased parkinsc to haloperidol therapy. Doses of haloperidol may need to be decreased.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: competitive inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated haloperidol metabolism; ir
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 67-year-old hospitalized male with bipolar disorder who had stopped taking his medications was re: 1 mg nightly, and valproate 750 mg twice daily. He had been experiencing some mild parkinsonian symp worsen when haloperidol was reinstated. Following stabilization on this regimen, it was decided to chan minimize any parkinsonism that was a result of his medications. While tapering the haloperidol and initial parkinsonism that resulted in an inability to walk. His mental status remained unchanged. Haloperidol wa and two days later the patient's parkinsonism side effects had resolved back to baseline. Benzotropine wa symptoms did not reoccur while on olanzapine (Gomberg, 1999).

3.5.1.DS Haloperidol

- 1) Interaction Effect: haloperidol toxicity (pseudoparkinsonism, akathisia, tongue stiffness) and an increased de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Haloperidol is associated with QTc prolongation and torsade de pointes (Hassaballa & Balk, 2C been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001x). drugs that potentially prolong the QTc interval. In addition, several case reports describe development of extr haloperidol were taken together, possibly due to inhibition of haloperidol metabolism (Benazzi, 1996a; Goff ei
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and haloperidol is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of haloperidol metabolism by fluoxetine; theoretical additive effects on QT
- 8) Literature Reports

- a)** Fluoxetine increased plasma concentrations of haloperidol in 8 outpatients. Patients received fluoxetine doses of haloperidol (average dose, 14 mg per day). After ten days, mean plasma concentrations of haloperidol symptom scores did not change appreciably after the addition of fluoxetine although one patient developed tremors. Extrapyramidal symptoms were expected to increase because of indirect inhibition of dopamine.
- b)** A 39-year-old male experienced tardive dyskinesia with concomitant fluoxetine and haloperidol therapy. After 10 months, then haloperidol 2 mg twice daily was started and later lowered to 1 mg per day. Five months later, the dyskinesia was diagnosed. The suggested mechanism was the down-regulation of dopamine activity.
- c)** A 39-year-old female developed tardive dyskinesia associated with concomitant fluoxetine and haloperidol. She started taking fluoxetine, which was increased over several days to 40 mg twice a day. After 5 months, she developed severe tardive dyskinesia. Both fluoxetine and haloperidol were withdrawn. During the next seven days her extrapyramidal symptoms improved.
- d)** A 40-year-old male developed urinary retention while taking fluoxetine and haloperidol. During a recu with fluoxetine 20 mg per day, alprazolam 1.5 mg per day, and haloperidol 1 mg per day. The patient had no other incident. Approximately one week after beginning therapy, the patient developed difficulty in voiding, restlessness, hand tremors, and insomnia. After discontinuation of haloperidol and alprazolam, side effects improved. It is postulated that the interaction was due to fluoxetine inhibition of cytochrome CYP2D6, which metabolizes haloperidol.

3.5.1.DT Halothane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, halothane should be administered with caution to patients known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine (Owens, 2001; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of halothane with other agents that can prolong the QT interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.DU Heparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the use of SSRIs (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with the use of SSRIs (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

- a)** Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Rieseman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
- b)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following the start of SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin only group. The corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin therapy increased the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
- c)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. Netherland researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted to hospital with abnormal INR. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The incidence of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1 to 2.6) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).
- d)** In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1993).
- e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient had a 1-week history of atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine.

mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later c interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regim warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.DV Hydroquinidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), 1999). Fluoxetine has derr (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001z).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class Ia antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.DW Hydroxytryptophan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, ment
- 2) Summary: Hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) may potentiate the serotonergic effect of selective serotonin reupt Since 5-HTP increases serotonin levels, when combined with an SSRI, the serotonin level may be increased Caution is advised with concomitant use of 5-HTP and SSRIs.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: No cases have been reported of serotonin syndrome resulting from this combinatio HTP) and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) are used concomitantly. Monitor the patient for early confusion, and disorientation.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) (200 milligrams (mg) orally) as a single dose increased plasma cortisol a unmedicated patients with major depression or obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD). These responses fluoxetine (n = 16) (p less than 0.0001). Mean fluoxetine dose for depressed patients was 44 mg/day,anc prolactin (PRL) levels in patients taking 5-HTP with tricyclic antidepressants (n = 14) or those receiving n different from each other. A measurement of serotonergic effects of antidepressants can be evaluated by (HPA) axis or PRL response. No clinical manifestations of serotonin syndrome were reported in patients (Meltzer et al, 1997).

3.5.1.DX Ibuprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have incl petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressar hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of u than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.DY Ibutilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 11 been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical

- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.DZ Iloperidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased plasma concentrations of iloperidone
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of iloperidone and fluoxetine results in increased plasma levels of iloperidone iloperidone (Prod Info FANAPT(TM) oral tablets, 2009).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: If administered with fluoxetine, reduce iloperidone doses by one-half. Upon withdraw resume the previous iloperidone dose (Prod Info FANAPT(TM) oral tablets, 2009).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of the CYP2D6-mediated metabolism of iloperidone
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Coadministration of fluoxetine 20 mg twice daily for 21 days and iloperidone 3 mg (single doses) in 2 classified as CYP2D6 extensive metabolizers, increased the AUC of iloperidone and the P88 metabolite P95 metabolite by one-half (Prod Info FANAPT(TM) oral tablets, 2009).

3.5.1.EA Iloprost

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding event: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.EB Imipramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval a Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluox 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Goo
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not rec
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in 4 ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients develop constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al,
 - b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy : added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278 curve increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline thre same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of s short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).
 - c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations w levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Fc to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dos and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg dai ng/mL within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).
 - d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with a 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood leve ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).
 - e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg 20 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of to 200 mg/day; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impa speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to

7) Probable Mechanism: additive hypoglycemia

3.5.1.EG Insulin Glargine, Recombinant

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypoglycemia
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine may increase the blood glucose-lowering effect of insulin and the susceptibility to hypoglycemia with insulin powder inhaler, 2006; Prod Info NOVLOG(R), 2005; Prod Info LEVEMIR(R) injection, 2005; Prod Info LANI Apidra(TM), 2004).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood glucose levels should be closely monitored when fluoxetine is added or discontinued. Additional doses of insulin may be required with concomitant therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive hypoglycemia

3.5.1.EH Insulin Glulisine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypoglycemia
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine may increase the blood glucose-lowering effect of insulin and the susceptibility to hypoglycemia with insulin powder inhaler, 2006; Prod Info NOVLOG(R), 2005; Prod Info LEVEMIR(R) injection, 2005; Prod Info LANI Apidra(TM), 2004).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood glucose levels should be closely monitored when fluoxetine is added or discontinued. Additional doses of insulin may be required with concomitant therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive hypoglycemia

3.5.1.EI Insulin Human Inhaled

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypoglycemia
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine may increase the blood glucose-lowering effect of insulin and the susceptibility to hypoglycemia with insulin powder inhaler, 2006; Prod Info NOVLOG(R), 2005; Prod Info LEVEMIR(R) injection, 2005; Prod Info LANI Apidra(TM), 2004).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood glucose levels should be closely monitored when fluoxetine is added or discontinued. Additional doses of insulin may be required with concomitant therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive hypoglycemia

3.5.1.EJ Iproniazid

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1993i; Feighner et al, 1990i; Kline et al, 1989i; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990i). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and iproniazid is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating iproniazid therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991j). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status changes, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991j). If the syndrome is not treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for at least five weeks before beginning therapy with tranylcypromine. One 28-year old woman discontinued fluoxetine for six weeks before starting therapy with tranylcypromine. Onset of fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal cramping, and various other CNS symptoms. Upon discontinuation of tranylcypromine, symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken three days after discontinuation of tranylcypromine revealed no p-aminocaproic acid level was 84 ng/mL (Coplan & Gorman, 1993h).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylcypromine (n=9): restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure changes. In one of the patients, one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, and other CNS agents).
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir). Insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added. Rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after onset.
 - e) Two cases suggestive of an interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline have been reported. One case involved a 65-year-old woman who had been taking fluoxetine for several years. She had been taking selegiline for several weeks. She developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome. Her symptoms resolved after discontinuation of fluoxetine and selegiline. The other case involved a 65-year-old woman who had been taking fluoxetine for several years. She had been taking selegiline for several weeks. She developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome. Her symptoms resolved after discontinuation of fluoxetine and selegiline.

observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. The patient improved and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, vasoconstriction, and cyanic temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued, with relatively qu fluoxetine alone occurred without incident (Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990h).

3.5.1.EK Isocarboxazid

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental st
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (M serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1 1993o; Feighner et al, 1990o; Kline et al, 1989o; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990o). Concomitant use is contr
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and a MAO inhibitor is contraindicated. Wait at least tv before initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can prod syndrome (Sternbach, 1991p). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and n mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991p). If the syndrome is n result.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for five weeks before beginning therap one case report describes a 28-year old woman who had discontinued a 2-year fluoxetine regimen for si: tranylcypromine. Over the next few days the patient developed fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdomina Upon discontinuation of tranylcypromine, the patient's symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken tranylcypromine revealed no presence of fluoxetine; however, the norfluoxetine level was 84 ng/mL (Co
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylc restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressur one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, ar adverse reactions.
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours
 - e) Interactions between fluoxetine and selegiline were suggested in two case reports (Suchowersky & d episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. drugs were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, v; occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinuec Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.EL Isoflurane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, isoflurane should be administ known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine (Owens, 2001a; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001k).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of isoflurane with other agents that can prolong the C recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.EM Isoxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have incl petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressar hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of u than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.ER Levodopa

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased levodopa effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of olanzapine may antagonize the pharmacological effects of levodopa (Prod I of this interaction is unknown).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for levodopa efficacy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: pharmacological antagonism

3.5.1.ES Levomethadyl

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Any drug known to have the potential to prolong the QT interval should not be used with levom can occur between levomethadyl and potentially arrhythmogenic agents such as olanzapine that prolong the
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Levomethadyl is contraindicated in patients being treated with olanzapine as it may levomethadyl.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.ET Levomethadyl

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Any drug known to have the potential to prolong the QT interval should not be used with levom can occur between levomethadyl and potentially arrhythmogenic agents such as fluoxetine that prolong the C
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Levomethadyl is contraindicated in patients being treated with fluoxetine as it may levomethadyl.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.EU Lexipafant

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control anc use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.EV Lidoflazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Lidoflazine and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended th Hanley & Hampton, 1983). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministra not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of lidoflazine and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.EW Linezolid

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental s
- 2) Summary: Linezolid is a reversible, nonselective monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI). Concurrent admini and a MAOI may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by sy changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions ha reports of serotonin syndrome associated with concomitant use of linezolid and serotonergic agents, includin; Morin, 2007; Prod Info ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) ora are used concomitantly, monitor for serotonin syndrome effects, including confusion, delirium, restlessness, t If symptoms occur, consider discontinuation of either one or both of the agents (Prod Info ZYVOX(R) IV injec washout period of 2 weeks is usually recommended following discontinuation of an MAOI and initiation of fluc

washout period of 5 weeks is usually recommended prior to initiation of an MAOI (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral

3) Severity: contraindicated

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Unless carefully monitored for serotonin syndrome, linezolid should not be administered with ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2008). A washout period of 2 weeks is usually recommended prior to initiation of fluoxetine. Following discontinuation of fluoxetine, a washout period of 5 weeks is usually recommended prior to initiation of PROZAC(R) oral capsules, oral solution, 2006). If fluoxetine and linezolid are used concomitantly, monitor closely for neuromuscular abnormalities (including hyper-reflexia, tremor, muscle rigidity, clonus, peripheral hyperton (including tachycardia, mydriasis, diaphoresis, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including agitation threatening. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care as recommended (Shannon, 2005).

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

8) Literature Reports

a) A 4-year-old female patient, weighing 12.8 kg, experienced serotonin syndrome-like symptoms following the administration of fluoxetine 5 mg daily for acute stress disorder in response to a burn injury, 11 hours. Two days later, she was premedicated with oral fentanyl 200 mcg prior to a wound debridement procedure. She became agitated and had myoclonus in her arms and legs. She also had mydriasis, was unable to visually track a target in the lower left quadrant. Discontinuation of fluoxetine and initiation of oral diphenhydramine 25 mg led to partial resolution of symptoms. Linezolid was discontinued and replaced with an alternate antibiotic. Symptoms of agitation, myoclonic movements, and tachycardia resolved within 2 days (Thomas et al, 2004).

b) The concomitant administration of fluoxetine and linezolid was associated with mild symptoms of serotonin syndrome described in a case report. The patient, who had recently achieved complete remission of acute myelogenous leukemia while on maintenance chemotherapy, routinely received treatment with oral fluoxetine 60 mg once daily, oral metoprolol 50 mg twice daily, transdermal nicotine patch 21 mg (changed daily), oral lorazepam 2 mg twice daily (with clonazepam 2 mg every evening). On day 9 of admission, the fluoxetine dose was increased to 80 mg daily. On day 12, linezolid was initiated on day 43. Within 12 hours of initiating linezolid, the patient experienced physical symptoms (described as feeling like a "runner's cramp" and making it "difficult to breathe"). The discomfort continued the next day. On day 47, linezolid was discontinued, after a total of 6 linezolid doses, and the pain and other symptoms resolved. Linezolid therapy, vital signs and laboratory results were unremarkable, except for chemotherapy-induced neutropenia (Steinberg & Morin, 2007).

c) A retrospective chart review identified one highly probable case of serotonin syndrome in a patient who had been treated with venlafaxine, followed by citalopram. Charts of 72 inpatients who received linezolid and an SSRI or venlafaxine were reviewed for a diagnosis of serotonin syndrome (SS) using the Sternbach and the Hunter Serotonin Toxicity Scales. Four patients met the criteria for having SS. One case involved an 81-year-old woman who was diagnosed with a high probability of having SS after receiving venlafaxine followed by citalopram. Linezolid was given for a vancomycin-resistant Enterococcus urinary tract infection. She was confused as to time and place, and began shouting. Although she appeared to have met the criteria for SS, a diagnosis of SS was not documented in her chart. Her blood pressure was 180 mm Hg with a heart rate of 50 beats/min. The following day, she barely spoke and could not be aroused; additional symptoms included tachycardia, eyes rolled back in her head, and labored breathing. Linezolid was discontinued, and she was sedated with propofol. Symptoms resolved 2 days after linezolid was stopped, she was extubated and had returned to baseline mental status (Steinberg et al, 2006).

d) In one case report, a 39-year-old female experienced symptoms of serotonin syndrome after concomitant administration of linezolid and venlafaxine. She was admitted to the emergency room after being found unresponsive at home. This patient had a history of alcohol dependency. Before admission, her medications consisted of disulfiram, fluoxetine, buspirone, cyclobenzaprine, and alcohol. Cyclobenzaprine was discontinued upon admission. The patient was given two doses of physostigmine for anticholinergic symptoms. Two days after admission, the patient became sedated, developed tachycardia, and alcohol withdrawal. She was given lorazepam and haloperidol for the alcohol withdrawal and agitation. Citalopram was discontinued. Depression was thought to be from either pneumonia or respiratory suppression from lorazepam. The patient had a positive sputum culture for Staphylococcus aureus (sputum) and on day thirteen, was extubated and her mental status improved. On day 14, linezolid was initiated. Immediate changes in her mental status were apparent. She experienced convulsions, tremors, and tachycardia. Linezolid, the patient had a temperature of 98 degrees, blood pressure of 140/90, a heart rate of 170, and the vancomycin regimen restarted. The patient was diagnosed with benzodiazepine withdrawal, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, and serotonin syndrome. Serotonin syndrome was diagnosed as a likely drug interaction between linezolid and venlafaxine (Steinberg et al, 2006).

3.5.1.EX Lithium

1) Interaction Effect: weakness, dyskinesias, increased extrapyramidal symptoms, encephalopathy, and brain damage

2) Summary: An encephalopathic syndrome followed by irreversible brain damage has occurred in a few patients receiving lithium, particularly haloperidol. A causal relationship between these events and the concomitant administration of lithium has not been established (Prod Info LITHOBID(R) slow-release oral tablets, 2005). Coadministration of lithium and haloperidol caused a wide variety of encephalopathic symptoms, brain damage, extrapyramidal symptoms, and dyskinesias. Effects have occurred with therapeutic lithium levels (Amdisen, 1982; Prakash, 1982; Addonizio et al, 1988a) using such combinations with no severe adverse consequences (Goldney & Spence, 1986). The mechanism of action of lithium treatment decreases neostriatal dopaminergic activity, probably through a direct action on the G protein and inhibition of adenyl cyclase (Carli et al, 1994). Hyperglycemic reactions have also occurred during combined therapy (Goldney & Spence, 1986).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients closely for any signs of toxicity or extrapyramidal symptoms, especially haloperidol, and lithium are used. Serum lithium levels should be monitored periodically. Some clinical therapeutic range.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant haloperidol and lithium therapy has resulted in symptoms of encephalopathy, confusion, patients with mania (Cohen & Cohen, 1974; Loudon & Waring, 1976; Thomas, 1979). Irreversible neuroleptic malignant syndrome (Hurwitz, 1983; Keitner & Rahman, 1984).
 - b) Seizures, encephalopathy, delirium, and abnormal EEG occurred in four patients during combined lithium therapy. Serum lithium levels were below 1 mEq/L at the time of the toxic reaction in all cases. All patients had previously received another phenothiazine. Three of these patients developed symptoms within eight days of initiating combination therapy.
 - c) The addition of lithium to neuroleptic therapy exacerbated extrapyramidal symptoms (EPS) in a small number of patients. At least five days of treatment with either oral thiothixene, haloperidol, or fluphenazine in mean to initiation of the lithium and were experiencing drug-induced extrapyramidal symptoms. Oral lithium was given in doses to achieve a therapeutic serum concentration. The maximum levels attained were 0.65 to 1.27 mEq/L in patients following the addition of lithium. However, only three patients developed marked symptoms and significantly increased symptoms included gait, shoulder shaking, elbow rigidity, and tremor.
 - d) Ten patients treated with clozapine and lithium were studied (Blake et al, 1992). Of the ten patients, five had symptoms including jerking of limbs, facial spasms and tics, tremor of hands and arms, tongue twitching, and stunted delirium. These effects reversed when lithium was discontinued or given at a lower dose. On rechallenge symptoms recurred. By keeping serum lithium no greater than 0.5 mEq/L, clozapine could be safely coadministered.
 - e) Chlorpromazine serum levels can be significantly reduced in the presence of lithium treatment. If use is discontinued, it may result in rebound elevation of chlorpromazine levels, resulting in chlorpromazine toxicity. In patients on a long-term regimen of the lithium may precipitate chlorpromazine cardiotoxicity. In this report, such toxicity was not associated with prolongation of the QTc interval. Hypotension and EPS are also possible in this situation.
 - f) However, other data do not support that such adverse events are frequent or indeed causally related to the combination. Dopamine antagonist antipsychotic drugs and lithium have been used successfully in many patients with schizophrenia. That the interaction may only become significant with very high doses of one or both drugs or with failure to monitor symptoms (Miller & Menninger, 1987).
 - g) A 69-year-old patient with oxygen-dependent chronic obstructive pulmonary disorder and a 25-year history of bipolar disorder was treated with risperidone 3 mg for the treatment of new-onset auditory and visual hallucinations. She had also been treated with lithium for more than 10 years. In addition, she was given amantadine (100 mg twice daily) for tremor. Three weeks later she experienced a decline in mental status in addition to dizziness, worsening tremors, nausea and vomiting, and hallucinations. She was then admitted to the hospital for delirium. Her lithium serum level was 1.36 mEq/L. Both risperidone and amantadine were discontinued. Although her lithium level decreased to 0.41 mEq/L, she continued to experience prodromal hallucinations for almost one week. After she started to respond to commands, she was restarted on lithium at a low dose. Five days later, she was discharged with a regimen of lithium and low-dose lorazepam. Her delirium could have been caused by the concurrent use of lithium and risperidone. Other factors could include low serum lithium level and the underlying pulmonary pathology. In addition, amantadine, which facilitates the anticholinergic effect, may have contributed (Chen & Cardasis, 1996).

3.5.1.EY Lithium

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible increased lithium concentrations and/or an increased risk of SSRI-related serotonin toxicity (myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of lithium and various SSRIs has been associated with enhanced side effects. Elevated lithium levels. The combination has resulted in neurotoxicity and increased lithium levels in one case. Symptoms of lithium toxicity and serotonin syndrome have also been reported in patients who demonstrated increased levels of concurrent fluoxetine and lithium (Muly et al, 1993a; Noveske et al, 1989a). Two studies have failed to identify an interaction between citalopram and lithium (Gram et al, 1993a; Baumann et al, 1996a). Combined administration of citalopram (40 mg daily) had no significant effect on the pharmacokinetics of citalopram or lithium. However, plasma lithium level adjustment to the lithium dose in accordance with standard clinical practice. Lithium may enhance the serotonin effect. Caution should be exercised when citalopram and lithium are coadministered (Prod Info Celexa(R), 2004). Concurrent reports of increased lithium levels and neurotoxicity, serotonin syndrome, somnolence, and mania (Salama & Evans & Marwick, 1990; Burrai et al, 1991a). No pharmacokinetic interference was apparent during a multiple-dose study of paroxetine (Prod Info Paxil CR(TM), 2003). If these two agents are to be given concomitantly, the manufacturer's clinical experience is available. Drug interactions leading to lithium toxicity have been reported when lithium is given with fluvoxamine (both in the same pharmacological class as paroxetine, eg, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor) (Prod Info Luvox(R), 1989a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients on concurrent lithium and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor therapy. In addition, monitor patients for signs and symptoms associated with serotonin syndrome (hypertension, tachycardia, hyperreflexia, clonus, rigidity, hyperthermia, and mental status changes).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of oral lithium carbonate and oral fluoxetine resulted in increased lithium levels.

woman with a bipolar affective disorder (Salama & Shafey, 1989). Fluoxetine 20 mg daily was added to a patient complaints of weakness, tiredness, decreased concentration, and early morning awakening. Lithium range of 0.75 to 1.15 mEq/L prior to fluoxetine. Fluoxetine was discontinued and the dose of lithium decreased serum level within 48 hours to 1.2 mEq/L. The neurologic symptoms subsided within seven days as the contribution of fluoxetine to lithium toxicity in this patient was obscured by the fact that the lithium was re-

b) A 53-year old woman who had been taking fluoxetine 20 mg daily and lorazepam 0.5 mg four times daily 900 mg per day added to her regimen in order to augment her response to fluoxetine. Within 48 hours, she developed a coarse tremor in her right arm. Vital signs showed a rectal temperature of 101 degrees F, an elevated leukocyte count and slightly elevated bilirubin level. After discontinuation of lithium and fluoxetine four days. At no point did the lithium levels reach a toxic level, suggesting that the patient's symptoms were due to lithium (Noveske et al, 1989).

c) Serotonin syndrome was precipitated when lithium 300 mg twice daily was added to a three-month later, the patient's lithium level was measured at 0.65 mEq/L and the dose was increased to 300 mg three times daily. The patient experienced akathisia, myoclonus, hyperreflexia, shivering, tremor, diarrhea, and initiation of cyproheptadine therapy, the patient's symptoms began to improve. The patient was discharged without further symptoms of serotonin syndrome (Muly et al, 1993).

d) Eight healthy male volunteers completed three phases of an interaction study to determine the effect of citalopram on subjects who were extensive metabolizers of sparteine, indicating normal cytochrome P450 2D6 enzyme activity. Each subject received citalopram 30 mg (1980 mg) alone daily for five days, and lithium coadministered with citalopram on treatment phase. Results showed that the concurrent administration of citalopram and lithium did not significantly affect lithium levels (Gram et al, 1993).

e) Twenty-four patients experiencing depression (DSM III criteria) were randomized under double-blind conditions to receive fluoxetine (20 mg daily) and lithium carbonate (800 mg daily) or placebo. All of the subjects had failed to respond to four weeks of treatment with fluoxetine alone. No evidence of a pharmacokinetic interaction between lithium and citalopram was observed (Baumann et al, 1996).

f) Serotonin syndrome was described in a 53-year-old patient who was stabilized on lithium 1400 mg daily and fluvoxamine 50 mg daily. Over a 10-day period the fluvoxamine dose was increased to 200 mg daily; tremor developed. After two weeks, tremor, impaired motor function, coordination, marked bilateral hyperreflexia at the ankles were seen. After 12 weeks of continued therapy, during which time no further deterioration occurred, the neuromuscular symptoms abated over a 2-week period. After four weeks the patient was discharged (Spigset, 1993).

g) Three cases of mania were reported in patients who were treated with lithium and fluvoxamine. The mania resolved within 2-3 weeks, respectively, after cotherapy was begun. Fluvoxamine was discontinued and, in two of the three cases, treatment of depression occurred with lithium alone. The third patient improved, but depression reappeared (Burrai et al, 1991).

h) In an open-labeled, placebo-controlled study, lithium 600 mg was administered to 16 subjects orally twice daily on day nine. In addition, oral sertraline 100 mg or placebo was given twice, ten hours and ten minutes after the lithium. Steady-state lithium level was only decreased by 1.4% (0.01 mEq/L) and the lithium renal clearance increased when sertraline was coadministered. Seven subjects experienced side effects, mainly tremors, after receiving lithium and sertraline, while placebo and lithium experienced side effects (Wilner et al, 1991).

3.5.1.EZ Lorcaïnide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Tambocor(R) flecainide acetate, 1998). Fluoxetine hinders the absorption of lorcaïnide at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001w).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class I antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FA Lornoxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LORNOXICAM (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants.

- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of up than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin inc
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FF Meperidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: A 43-year-old male on fluoxetine every other day experienced serotonin syndrome immediately (Tissot, 2003). If fluoxetine and meperidine are used concomitantly, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin threatening. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care at Shannon, 2005).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: A case of serotonin syndrome was reported with coadministration of fluoxetine and discouraged (Tissot, 2003). If fluoxetine and meperidine are used concomitantly, monitor closely for symptom abnormalities (including hyper-reflexia, tremor, muscle rigidity, clonus, peripheral hypertonicity, and shivering mydriasis, diaphoresis, the presence of bowel sounds, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including a be life-threatening. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive Shannon, 2005).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 43-year-old male on fluoxetine every other day experienced serotonin syndrome immediately after other medications were rosiglitazone and fenofibrate. His medical history includes type 2 diabetes, dyslip Prior to this adverse event he received meperidine and midazolam, while not on fluoxetine, without any s administered intravenous midazolam and 50 mg of intravenous meperidine. He immediately became agi verbal commands because of confusion. Blood pressure (180/100 mm Hg) and heart rate (130 bpm) inci He had diaphoresis and dilated pupils. Within 10 minutes his blood pressure started to decrease. He hac minutes, his agitation subsided, he remained sleepy and confused, and blood pressure and heart continu 98.4 degrees Fahrenheit. After 60 to 90 minutes his sensorium appeared to clear and diaphoresis resolve signs over the next 24 hours. He was treated with hydromorphone for abdominal pain without any advers fentanyl, midazolam, and propofol pre-endoscopy without any event, but had not taken fluoxetine for 2 w

3.5.1.FG Mesoridazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose data, the manufacturer of mesoridazine states that concomitant use with other drugs which prolong the QT in 2000).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and mesoridazine is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FH Methylethylgonovine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of ergotism (nausea, vomiting, vasospastic ischemia)
- 2) Summary: Because of the potential for serious toxicity including vasospasm that can occur with increased concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated. Fluoxetine and ergot derivatives are bot enzymes, and the competition for metabolism could result in an increased plasma concentration of the ergot
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4- mediated ergot metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.FI Methylphenidate

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor plasma concentrations
- 2) Summary: Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metab (SSRIs). Downward dose adjustments of the SSRI may be necessary when it is used concurrently with meth discontinuing methylphenidate, the SSRI dose may need to be adjusted as needed (Prod Info METADATE C

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Use caution when prescribing methylphenidate to patients who take an selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor. Concurrent use of methylphenidate and an SSRI may cause elevated SSRI plasma concentrations. Consider a decrease in the dose of the SSRI if coadministered. Additionally, consider adjusting the SSRI dose if necessary when initiating or discontinuing nortriptyline extended-release oral capsules, 2007).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor metabolism by methylphenidate

3.5.1.FJ Methysergide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of ergotism (nausea, vomiting, vasospastic ischemia)
- 2) Summary: Because of the potential for serious toxicity including vasospasm that can occur with increased concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated. Fluoxetine and ergot derivatives are both substrates of the enzyme CYP2D6, and the competition for metabolism could result in an increased plasma concentration of the ergot derivative.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of fluoxetine and ergot derivatives is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 3A4-mediated ergot metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.FK Metoprolol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of metoprolol adverse effects (shortness of breath, bradycardia, hypotension)
- 2) Summary: To date, little information is available related to the effects of combined fluoxetine and metoprolol between metoprolol and fluoxetine resulting in bradycardia (Walley et al, 1993a). Fluoxetine is a potent inhibitor of the enzyme CYP2D6 that catalyzes metoprolol metabolism (DeVane, 1994). Additional research is needed to further assess the pharmacokinetics.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Atenolol should be considered for fluoxetine-treated patients who require a beta blocker. Monitor patients for metoprolol adverse effects. A reduction in the metoprolol dose may be necessary.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of hepatic metabolism of metoprolol
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A case report described a possible interaction between metoprolol and fluoxetine resulting in bradycardia with metoprolol 100 mg daily developed lethargy and bradycardia within two days after fluoxetine 20 mg was discontinued and metoprolol was replaced with sotalol 80 mg twice daily. A week later fluoxetine was discontinued and bradycardia resolved. Fluoxetine is known to inhibit hepatic metabolism. Metoprolol is extensively metabolized via CYP2D6 and possibly CYP3A. Sotalol does not undergo significant hepatic metabolism (Walley et al, 1993).

3.5.1.FL Milnacipran

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of milnacipran and an SSRI may result in hypertension, coronary artery vasospasm, and life-threatening symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Prod Info SAVENOR, 2009).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of milnacipran and an SSRI may result in hypertension and coronary artery vasospasm. If these agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination), especially during treatment initiation and discontinuation.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

3.5.1.FM Mirtazapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of olanzapine with mirtazapine and tramadol in a 53-year-old male resulted in serotonin syndrome (Fetchko, 2002). If olanzapine is used concomitantly with mirtazapine and/or tramadol, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care as necessary (Boyer & Shannon, 2005).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: A case of serotonin syndrome was reported with coadministration of olanzapine, mirtazapine, and tramadol (Fetchko, 2002). If 2 or more of these drugs are used concomitantly, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (including hyper-reflexia, tremor, muscle rigidity, clonus, peripheral hypertonicity, and shivering), autonomic hyperactivity (including diaphoresis, the presence of bowel sounds, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including agitation and delirium). If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care as necessary (Shannon, 2005).

- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic pharmacologic effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 53-year-old male on mirtazapine and tramadol experienced serotonin syndrome 8 days after olanzapine 10 mg/day for depression and tramadol 150 mg/day for chronic back pain. Olanzapine 10 mg was admitted 8 days later after being found by the police wandering the streets in inappropriate dress and agitated. He was afebrile, tachycardic (120 bpm), and had flushing, twitching of his face, tremors, myoclonus, hyperreflexia, and hyperreflexia. He spoke with a stutter. He had marked dereliction, appeared perplexed, had prominent perceptual hallucinations. The creatine phosphokinase was normal. All medications were discontinued and within 12 hours he was discharged (Fetchko, 2002).

3.5.1.FN Mirtazapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and mirtazapine resulted in serotonin syndrome in a 75-year-old woman with nausea, dry mouth, intense anxiety and agitation with suicidal ideas. Other symptoms were difficulty walking, insomnia (Benazzi, 1998). If fluoxetine and mirtazapine are used together, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care (Shannon, 2005).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: A case of serotonin syndrome was reported with concomitant use of fluoxetine and mirtazapine (Benazzi, 1998). If fluoxetine and mirtazapine are used together, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (including hyper-reflexia, tremor, muscle rigidity, clonus, peripheral hypertonicity, and shivering mydriasis, diaphoresis, the presence of bowel sounds, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including a change in consciousness). If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care (Shannon, 2005).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: potentially additive pharmacologic effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Within a few hours of starting mirtazapine and shortly after stopping fluoxetine, a 75-year-old woman developed serotonin syndrome. Besides fluoxetine 20 mg/day, she was on chlorpromazine 75 mg/day, and lorazepam 2.5 mg/day. Fluoxetine was discontinued and soon afterward mirtazapine 30 mg/day was started and the dose of chlorpromazine was reduced. A few hours of starting mirtazapine, she experienced dizziness, headache, nausea, dry mouth, intense anxiety, and agitation with suicidal ideas. Her symptoms were difficulty walking, marked resting tremor of the hands, and insomnia. Over the next 3 days her symptoms improved. Fluoxetine 20 mg/day was restarted on day 5. Her symptoms improved the following day. Fluoxetine 20 mg/day was restarted on day 5. Her symptoms improved the following day. Over the next 10 days, tremor, anxiety, and insomnia improved (Benazzi, 1998).

3.5.1.FO Moclobemide

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor can result in serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1993r; Feighner et al, 1990r; Kline et al, 1989s; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990s). Although not reported specifically, a similar interaction may occur. Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and a MAO inhibitor is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating MAO inhibitor therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991t). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status changes, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. If the syndrome is not recognized and treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klinckschold, 1990). Insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added. Rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after starting tranylcypromine.
 - c) Two cases suggestive of an interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline, a selective monoamine oxidase inhibitor (Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990r). One case involved a first episode of mania being observed approximately two months after both drugs were discontinued, and no further symptoms. The other case involved diaphoresis, vasoconstriction, and cyanosis of the hands which occurred in close temporal relationship to the discontinuation of fluoxetine, with relatively quick resolution of symptoms. Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without symptoms.
 - d) In three of five cases of serotonin syndrome following overdoses, the drug combination that induced the syndrome was fluoxetine, a selective monoamine oxidase inhibitor, and citalopram. Of these three patients, moclobemide blood concentrations were within the therapeutic level, and citalopram concentrations ranged from normal to 5 times the therapeutic level (Neuhoff et al, 1990).
 - e) Moclobemide is a selective and reversible inhibitor of monoamine oxidase A (MAO-A). Based on animal studies, MAO-A and MAO-B are essential for the development of serotonin syndrome. In an effort to assess the safety of concurrent use of fluoxetine and moclobemide, 18 healthy subjects participated in a randomized, placebo-controlled, parallel study (Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990r).

dose of moclobemide 300 mg on days 1 and 24, fluoxetine 40 mg on days 2 through 8, and fluoxetine 200 mg on days 9 through 16. Patients were randomized to receive either placebo or moclobemide on an ascending dose schedule. Doses of moclobemide were increased to 200 mg on day 17, 300 mg on day 18, and 600 mg on days 19 through 23. Steady-state fluoxetine was achieved when moclobemide therapy was initiated, and did not change with the addition or increasing dose of moclobemide. There was no serotonin syndrome or any kind of a pharmacodynamic interaction between these two agents. Additional platelets almost completely as expected, but moclobemide had no effect on serotonin uptake during treatment. These findings suggest that a long wash-out period between treatment with moclobemide and fluoxetine is not necessary.

f) An 82-year-old woman developed various serotonin syndrome symptoms after changing from fluoxetine to moclobemide. She experienced agitation, confusion, and tremor, progressing to inability to answer questions. After treatment with 4 mg cyproheptadine, her condition improved significantly (Chan et al, 1998a).

3.5.1.FP Morniflumate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FQ Nabumetone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FR Nadroparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

- a)** Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
- b)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk of bleeding with treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin did not increase the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
- c)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. In subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The incidence of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7) was not significantly different (Schalekamps et al, 2005).
- d)** In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1993).
- e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 20 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.FS Naproxen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper gastrointestinal bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.
 - b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FT Naratriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Rare incidences of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination have been reported with the concurrent use of a serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) and a 5-hydroxytryptamine-1 (5HT-1) agonist (Prod Info Amerge(TM), 2002). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and coma. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as naratriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

3.5.1.FU Nebivolol

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased nebivolol exposure and plasma levels
- 2) Summary: Nebivolol is partially metabolized by the CYP2D6 isozyme. Coadministration of a single 10 mg receiving fluoxetine, a CYP2D6 inhibitor, at a dose of 20 mg/day for 21 days led to 8- and 3-fold increases in (pharmacologically active isomer). Closely monitor blood pressure in patients receiving fluoxetine and nebivolol may be necessary (Prod Info BYSTOLIC(TM) oral tablets, 2007).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of fluoxetine, a CYP2D6 inhibitor, and nebivolol led to increased nebivolol, the pharmacologically active isomer. In patients receiving these agents concomitantly, closely monitor may be necessary (Prod Info BYSTOLIC(TM) oral tablets, 2007).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated nebivolol metabolism

3.5.1.FV Nialamide

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor can result in serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1993g; Feighner et al, 1990g; Kline et al, 1989g; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990g). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and nialamide is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating MAO inhibitor therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991h). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991h). If the syndrome is not treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for at least five weeks before beginning MAO inhibitor therapy. A 28-year old woman discontinued fluoxetine for six weeks before starting therapy with tranylcypromine. Onset of fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal cramping, and various other CNS symptoms. Upon discontinuation, symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken three days after discontinuation of tranylcypromine revealed no p-aminocaproic acid level was 84 ng/mL (Coplan & Gorman, 1993f).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylcypromine (n=9) included restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure changes. In one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, and MAO inhibitors) and no adverse reactions.
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir et al, 1991). Insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added. Rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after onset of symptoms.
 - e) Two cases reports suggested a possible interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline (Suchowersky et al, 1990). In the first case, an episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. Both drugs were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, vomiting, and tachycardia, which occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued. Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.FW Niflumic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations.

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FX Nimesulide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose NSAIDs (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.FY Nortriptyline

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase in the risk of arrhythmias, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the concurrent administration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Goodnick et al, 1989).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a dose-dependent manner. The ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989).
 - b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. When fluoxetine was added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the mean trough concentration increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline three days after the start of fluoxetine. The impact of fluoxetine on the pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of fluoxetine on short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).
 - c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations when she was added to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was 20 mg daily and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily resulted in a return to baseline desipramine levels within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).
 - d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with walking when he was added to a regimen of fluoxetine 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level of desipramine returned to baseline with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).
 - e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant administration of fluoxetine. The patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg desipramine 20 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of 200 mg/day; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 100 mg daily. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).
 - f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desipramine level in a 60-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.FZ Octreotide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Octreotide and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic doses (Prod Info Sandostat(R), 1999). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of octreotide and fluoxetine is not recommended.

fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal cramping, and various other CNS symptoms. Upon discontinuation began to resolve. Blood samples taken three days after discontinuation of tranylcypromine revealed no p level was 84 ng/mL (Coplan & Gorman, 1993).

c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylc restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, ar adverse reactions.

d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours

e) Two cases reports suggested a possible interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline (Suchowersky episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. drugs were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, v occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.GD Parnaparin

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 21 (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistax threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported wi (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for sig taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, wi (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme b warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bl patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks followi mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected j SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients i treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. t treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoum reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal blee hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal t subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh ca: a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was gi mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin wa was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later c interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regim warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.GE Paroxetine

1) Interaction Effect: fluoxetine toxicity (dry mouth, sedation, urinary retention)

2) Summary: Coadministration of paroxetine with drugs that are metabolized by cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYF with caution (Prod Info Paxil CR(TM), 2002).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

- 6) Clinical Management: When paroxetine is coadministered with fluoxetine monitor patients for signs and symptoms (e.g., sedation, urinary retention, blurred vision). Fluoxetine doses may need to be reduced.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated fluoxetine metabolism

3.5.1.GF Pentamidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Pentamidine and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended doses (Lindsay et al, 1990). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of pentamidine and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of pentamidine and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.GG Pentazocine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, diaphoresis, ataxia, flushing, nausea, dizziness, and anxiety
- 2) Summary: A case of neurologic effects associated with concomitant use of fluoxetine and pentazocine has been reported (1990a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Until more data are available, concomitant use of fluoxetine and pentazocine should be avoided.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) One study reported a case in which coadministration of fluoxetine and pentazocine was associated with a severe headache. A patient taking fluoxetine 40 mg daily was administered oral pentazocine 50 mg for a severe headache. After the administration of pentazocine, the patient became hypertensive, diaphoretic, flushed, ataxic, paresthetic, nauseated, and light-headed. It is possible that an interaction between fluoxetine and pentazocine may have occurred, a hypersensitivity to pentazocine alone was not ruled out.
 - b) Fluoxetine administered seven days before surgery had no effect on kappa-opiate pentazocine analgesia produced by morphine (p less than 0.05), a mu-opiate. The duration of action of morphine analgesia was not affected. The authors point out that the effect of chronic fluoxetine administration on mu-opiate analgesia is not clear (1994).

3.5.1.GH Pentosan Polysulfate Sodium

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the use of pentosan polysulfate sodium (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs and symptoms. Patients taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, bruising, and nosebleeds (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins and protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of bleeding with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only (1.7, 95% CI; 0.8 to 3.5, p=0.14). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) in the Netherlands resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal laboratory test results. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The incidence of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI) 1.1 to 2.7) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair **e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.GI Phenezine

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor can result in serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1993e; Feighner et al, 1990e; Kline et al, 1989e; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990e). Concomitant use of phenelzine for at least five weeks between discontinuation of fluoxetine and initiation of phenelzine and at least 10 days between discontinuation of fluoxetine, or other serotonergic agents (Prod Info Nardil(R), 1995).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and phenelzine is contraindicated. Wait at least 14 days after discontinuation of fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating therapy with phenelzine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991f). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status changes, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. If the syndrome is not recognized and treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for five weeks before beginning therapy with phenelzine. One case report describes a 28-year old woman who had discontinued a 2-year fluoxetine regimen for sinus bradycardia. Upon discontinuation of tranylcypromine, the patient's symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken during the resolution of tranylcypromine revealed no presence of fluoxetine; however, the norfluoxetine level was 84 ng/mL (Coffman et al, 1995).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylcypromine (n=10) included restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure changes. In one of the patients, one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, and other drugs).
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir et al, 1995). Symptoms of insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added to the regimen. Rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after the start of tranylcypromine therapy.
 - e) Two cases suggestive of an interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline were reported (Suchowersky et al, 1995). In one case, an episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. In the second case, the drugs were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, which occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued. Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.GJ Phenindione

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control studies have shown that use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the use of phenindione (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If the patient is taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with the use of phenindione (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins. Displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following discontinuation of SSRI therapy. Patients receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin alone (n=117). The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin alone (n=117).

SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. Treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, $p=0.009$) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR ($p=0.48$ and $p=0.31$ respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on a 1-week regimen for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.GK Phenprocoumon

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, thrombocytopenia, and other hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. If taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding sites and displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).
 - b) According to a retrospective cohort study ($n=234$), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following initiation of warfarin. The study included 117 patients receiving warfarin plus SSRI ($n=117$) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. Treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, $p=0.009$) compared with warfarin only bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR ($p=0.48$ and $p=0.31$ respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
 - c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam
 - d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair
 - e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on a 1-week regimen for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.GL Phenylalanine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased incidence of tardive dyskinesia
- 2) Summary: Taking phenylalanine concomitantly with certain neuroleptic drugs may exacerbate tardive dyskinesia. Phenylalanine metabolism in certain patients may lead to phenylalanine accumulation in the brain and in turn amino acids. This may interfere with the synthesis of catecholamines (Gardos et al, 1992a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is advised if phenylalanine is administered with a neuroleptic agent. Monitor for tardive dyskinesia.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: reduced brain availability of other large neutral amino acids and interference with conversion of phenylalanine to tyrosine.
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Phenylalanine tended to increase the incidence of tardive dyskinesia in patients taking neuroleptics in a study of 21 patients with unipolar depression with tardive dyskinesia (n=11), (2) patients with no tardive dyskinesia (n=10), and (2) patients with a plasma level greater than or equal to 100 milligrams (mg) of a chlorpromazine equivalent for at least 3 months (n=10), previously exposed to a neuroleptic drug (n=10). Neuroleptic agents were taken during the study by 6 patients. Patients received powdered phenylalanine 100 mg/kilogram dissolved in orange juice after an overnight fast. Three patients in group 1 (with tardive dyskinesia) had higher (though nonsignificant) mean phenylalanine plasma levels, this group as a whole had higher (though nonsignificant) mean phenylalanine dyskinesia score (measured using the Abnormal Involuntary Movements Scale (AIMS)) nonsignificantly higher than group 2. Postloading AIMS scores were significantly positively correlated in group 1 (rs=0.347, p less than 0.05). Postloading phenylalanine level and baseline AIMS scores demonstrated a trend toward correlation coefficient 0.679, p less than 0.05). In all patients, phenylalanine loading increased plasma phenylalanine and plasma tyrosine increased 2.5 times as a result of conversion of phenylalanine to tyrosine. Plasma levels of tryptophan decreased slightly (Gardos et al, 1992).

3.5.1.GM Phenylbutazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.GN Phenytoin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of phenytoin toxicity (ataxia, hyperreflexia, nystagmus, tremor)
- 2) Summary: Several case reports indicate that concurrent use of fluoxetine and phenytoin can result in signs of phenytoin toxicity (FDA, 1994a; Jalil, 1992a; Woods et al, 1994). Alternatively, patients who are stabilized on phenytoin experience subtherapeutic concentrations of phenytoin and loss of seizure control when fluoxetine is discontinued. In a *in vitro* study, the inhibitory effects of fluoxetine on cytochrome P450 2C9 were evaluated using p-hydroxylation of phenytoin reflecting CYP2C9 activity. In *in vivo*, p-hydroxylation of phenytoin depends on the formation of 5-(p-hydroxy-phenytoin) specifically the R-component of the racemic fluoxetine mixture, impaired the formation of HPPH, which can lead to increased plasma levels (Schmider et al, 1997).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor phenytoin serum levels with the addition of fluoxetine and periodically there may be required with concomitant therapy. Serum levels of phenytoin should be monitored following the discontinuation of fluoxetine, decreases in phenytoin levels may not be clinically significant for a few weeks.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased phenytoin metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Twenty-three reported cases of fluoxetine-phenytoin interactions have resulted in large increases in phenytoin toxicity. On the average, the adverse effects began within two weeks after fluoxetine was added. The increase in plasma levels in nine evaluable cases was 161% (range 75 to 309%) and the maximum phenytoin level was 10.5 mg/L (range 4.5 to 16.5 mg/L).

ranged from 22 to 53.5 mcg/mL (therapeutic level, 10 to 20 mcg/mL) (FDA, 1994).

b) An 84-year-old woman was stabilized on phenytoin 300 mg daily. After two months of treatment, fluoxetine increased to 40 mg daily after 10 days (Jalil, 1992). Within five days of starting fluoxetine, she developed status; her phenytoin serum level had increased from 15 to 35 mcg/mL. Both phenytoin and fluoxetine withdrawal symptoms of toxicity abated. Four weeks later she was rechallenged with the same dose of fluoxetine with

c) In another case, a 57-year-old woman who had been stabilized on phenytoin 400 mg daily for a year 20 mg daily (Jalil, 1992). Ten days later she developed vomiting, vertigo, trunk ataxia, limb dysmetria, and a serum level was 47 mcg/mL. Fluoxetine was discontinued and all signs and symptoms of toxicity disappeared post-fluoxetine, the phenytoin serum level was 20 mcg/mL.

d) A 42-year-old male with a history of grand mal seizures and aggressive behavior was receiving phenytoin daily without resolution of his problems. His phenytoin level was 2.0 ng/mL and his dose was subsequently daily was added for aggression, and the patient experienced resolution of his behavioral problems and a level ranged between 10.9 ng/mL and 15.7 ng/mL during fluoxetine therapy. However, the patient discontinued experienced a recurrence of problems. Phenytoin concentration was measured at 6.6 ng/mL six weeks after a change in his phenytoin dose. This case report illustrates the need for close monitoring of phenytoin levels since subtherapeutic levels of phenytoin may result if doses of phenytoin are not readjusted following the (1999).

3.5.1.GO Pimozide

- 1) Interaction Effect: bradycardia, somnolence, and potentially increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation)
- 2) Summary: One case of bradycardia and somnolence resulting from concomitant fluoxetine and pimozide 1 Although a specific interaction study has not been conducted with these agents, due to the potential for additive of fluoxetine and pimozide is contraindicated (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsule, oral pulvule, oral solution,
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Due to the possibility of additive effects on the QT interval, the concurrent administration is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) One case has been reported in which concurrent use of pimozide 5 mg daily and fluoxetine 20 mg daily bradycardia and somnolence. The pulse rate gradually returned to normal after discontinuation of pimozide a higher fluoxetine dose also resulted in bradycardia (Ahmed et al, 1993).

3.5.1.GP Pirazolac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of internal
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.GQ Pirmenol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), 1999). Fluoxetine has demonstrated (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001z).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class Ia antiarrhythmic agents and agents that are pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.GR Piroxicam

(Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001z).

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class Ia antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.GW Procarbazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental st
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and a monoamine oxidase (M serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1 1993a; Feighner et al, 1990a; Kline et al, 1989a; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990a). Concomitant use is contr
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and procarbazine is contraindicated. Wait at least two initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can prod syndrome (Sternbach, 1991a). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and n mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991a). If the syndrome is n result.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for at least five weeks before beginning 28-year old woman discontinued fluoxetine for six weeks before starting therapy with tranylcypromine. O fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal cramping, and various other CNS symptoms. Upon discontinu began to resolve. Blood samples taken three days after discontinuation of tranylcypromine revealed no p level was 84 ng/mL (Coplan & Gorman, 1993).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranyl restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressur one of the patients were taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, ar adverse reactions.
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours
 - e) Two cases reports suggested a possible interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline (Suchowersky episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. drugs were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, v; occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinuec Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.GX Prochlorperazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest
- 2) Summary: Although citing no data, the manufacturers of some phenothiazines state that concomitant use not recommended. Q and T wave distortions have been observed in patients taking phenothiazines (Prod Inf 2002; Prod Info Thorazine(R), 2002) . Other phenothiazines may have similar effects, though no reports are t the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2003).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a phenothiazine is not recommend
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.GY Propafenone

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased serum propafenone concentrations and an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (Q arrest)
- 2) Summary: Propafenone has been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Larochelle et al, 1984). Fluoxetine h recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001e). Even though no formal drug interaction studie known to prolong the QT interval are used concomitantly. In addition, fluoxetine may inhibit cytochrome P450 propafenone (Cai et al, 1999a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is advised if fluoxetine and propafenone are used concomitantly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated propafenone metabolism; theoretical
- 8) Literature Reports

a) The metabolism of propafenone enantiomers was altered after fluoxetine treatment in 9 healthy Chinese CYP2D6 metabolizers. Subjects received a single oral dose of propafenone 400 mg both before and after clearance of both S- and P- enantiomers of propafenone decreased from approximately 75 L/hr to 50 L/hr. Compared to baseline, the elimination half life, peak concentration, and area under the curve for both enantiomers significantly increased (Cai et al, 1999).

3.5.1.GZ Propranolol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of complete heart block
- 2) Summary: Metabolism of propranolol occurs in the liver and is thought to involve cytochrome P450IID6 (CYP2D6) (DeVane, 1994a). It is theoretically possible that coadministered fluoxetine could inhibit propranolol concentrations of this beta blocker and possible toxicity. One case report describes a man who developed complete heart block when propranolol was added to propranolol therapy (Drake & Gordon, 1994a).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Fluoxetine should be prescribed cautiously to patients on propranolol therapy. A baseline ECG should be obtained prior to the initiation of fluoxetine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: impaired atrioventricular conduction
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 53-year-old male experienced a loss of consciousness two weeks after fluoxetine 20 mg daily was included propranolol 40 mg twice daily for anxiety. He had no previous cardiac history. An electrocardiogram showed sinus bradycardia. Fluoxetine and propranolol were both discontinued. Two days later, the patient reverted to sinus rhythm and the heart block was attributed to the fluoxetine-propranolol combination, since sinus rhythm returned two days after discontinuation. The patient had no previous complications from propranolol therapy. Because 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT) reuptake inhibition by fluoxetine may have potentiated the action of 5-HT, causing impaired atrioventricular conduction (Drake & Gordon, 1994a).

3.5.1.HA Propyphenazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.HB Proquazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.HC Quetiapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. No formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antipsychotics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval with fluoxetine, is not recommended. Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including quetiapine (Owens, 2001b), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Swain et al, 1992).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and antipsychotics is not recommended
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HD Quinidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of fluoxetine and quinidine toxicity and an increased risk of cardiotoxic cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I drugs known to prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Prod Info Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), 1999a). Fluoxetine therapeutic doses (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001af). In addition, quinidine inhibits CYP2D6 which may reduce fluoxetine metabolism (Nemeroff et al, 1996) and fluoxetine inhibits CYP3A4, which may reduce quinidine metabolism (Nemeroff et al, 1996).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of Class Ia antiarrhythmic agents, such as quinidine, and fluoxetine, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered fluoxetine or quinidine metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In vitro studies found that quinidine, a potent inhibitor of CYP2D6, inhibited fluoxetine N-demethylation, indicating that fluoxetine is, in part, metabolized by CYP2D6, this study showed that much of fluoxetine is metabolized by CYP2D6.

3.5.1.HE Rasagiline

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, or the selective MAO-B inhibitor selegiline, has been reported to cause serious, sometimes fatal reactions. Signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome, such as myoclonus, autonomic instability with rapid vital sign fluctuations, and mental status changes progressing to coma, have been reported with serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) and non-selective MAO inhibitors. Do not allow concomitant use of fluoxetine; the combination of rasagiline and fluoxetine should be avoided. Wait at least five weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. Wait at least five weeks or more, especially if fluoxetine has been used chronically before initiating therapy with rasagiline (Prod Info AZILECT(R) oral tablets, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and rasagiline should be avoided. Wait at least two weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. Wait at least five weeks or more, especially if fluoxetine has been used chronically and/or before initiating therapy with rasagiline.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991). If the syndrome is not treated, it can result in death.

3.5.1.HF Reviparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, gastrointestinal bleeding, and hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with fluoxetine (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs and symptoms of bleeding. When taking warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with fluoxetine (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to albumin.

protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

- b)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleedings in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients. SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients in the warfarin only group experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only treatment. The risk of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration was sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin did not increase the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.
- c)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. Hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2002).
- d)** In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1997).
- e)** An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on warfarin for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was decreased. The patient was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen increased the risk of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.HG Risperidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased plasma concentrations of risperidone
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of fluoxetine (CYP2D6 inhibitor) and risperidone (CYP2D6 substrate) has resulted in increased plasma concentrations and an increased risk of risperidone adverse effects such as serotonin syndrome, QT prolongation. The mechanism of action is inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated metabolism of risperidone by fluoxetine. One study of patients treated concurrently with fluoxetine and risperidone (Prod Info RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, 2002). Monitoring the patient for increased risperidone plasma levels and side effects may be necessary (Spinale et al, 2002). Reevaluate if fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, orally disintegrating tablets, 2002a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of fluoxetine and risperidone has resulted in increased risperidone plasma concentrations and risperidone side effects (Prod Info RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, orally disintegrating tablets, 2002). Monitor plasma risperidone levels and side effects (serotonin syndrome, extrapyramidal symptoms, and cardiotoxicity) (Spinale et al, 2002). Reevaluate the dose of risperidone when concomitant fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, orally disintegrating tablets, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated metabolism of risperidone
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine (a CYP2D6 inhibitor) 20 mg/day has been shown to increase the plasma concentration of risperidone 2-fold. Fluoxetine did not affect the concentration of 9-hydroxyrisperidone. The dosage of risperidone should be decreased (Prod Info RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, orally disintegrating tablets, 2008).
 - b) Fluoxetine, an inhibitor of cytochrome CYP2D6, may impair the elimination of risperidone, primarily by hydroxylation and, to a lesser extent, by simultaneously affecting the further metabolism of 9-hydroxyrisperidone to risperidone biotransformation. In an open, 4-week, pharmacokinetic study including 9 patients with schizophrenia, risperidone concentrations increased when fluoxetine was coadministered with risperidone. Patients received 6 mg/day for at least four weeks and received adjunctive fluoxetine therapy 20 mg/day for the management of schizophrenia. Risperidone concentrations increased from 12 ng/mL at baseline to 49 nanograms (ng)/mL (p less than 0.05) at week 4. Plasma concentrations of 9-hydroxyrisperidone (9-OH-risperidone) showed no significant increase over the 4 weeks of concurrent therapy, the active moiety (risperidone plus 9-OH-risperidone) was increased by 75% compared with baseline. The mean plasma risperidone to 9-OH-risperidone ratio also increased significantly during week 2 of concomitant therapy and were treated with anticholinergic medication. The increase in risperidone levels may be warranted in patients receiving concomitant fluoxetine and risperidone treatment.

3.5.1.HH Ritonavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: reduced olanzapine effectiveness
- 2) Summary: An open-label study involving 14 healthy volunteers revealed a significant alteration in pharmacokinetics of olanzapine when administered in the presence of ritonavir. Baseline blood samples were drawn at 10 mg tablet. Venous blood samples were then obtained at specified times. After a 14-day washout period, subjects received 400 mg BID for 4 days, then 500 mg BID for 4 days. Blood samples were again drawn at specified times.

were as follows: Statistically significant reductions in the mean olanzapine area under the plasma concentration-time curve (AUC) (p less than 0.001); the half-life by 50% (from 32 hr to 16 hr) (p less than 0.00001) and the peak plasma concentration (C_{max}) by 50% (from 9 ng/mL to 4.5 ng/mL) (p less than 0.002). The oral clearance of olanzapine increased by 115% (from 20 L/hr to 43 L/hr). Olanzapine is usually well-tolerated and a clear relationship between plasma concentrations and toxicity has not been defined. Further study (Penzak et al, 2002).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for olanzapine efficacy. Doses of olanzapine may need to be adjusted. Patients stabilized on olanzapine and ritonavir, who have their ritonavir discontinued, should be monitored for increased systemic exposure to olanzapine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: induction or CYP1A2- and glucuronosyl transferase-mediated metabolism of olanzapine

3.5.1.HI Ritonavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: alterations in cardiac and/or neurologic function
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of fluoxetine 30 mg twice daily for eight days and ritonavir 600 mg as a single dose resulted in a 20% increase in the area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) of ritonavir but no changes in the ritonavir maximum concentration (C_{max}). Clinical experience has revealed reports of cardiac and neurologic events when ritonavir and fluoxetine have been coadministered.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor the patient for changes in cardiac and/or neurologic function.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.HJ Rizatriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concomitant use of a 5HT-1 agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Immitrex(R), 1998). Because a similar interaction between SSRIs and rizatriptan may occur (Prod Info Maxalt(R), 1998a). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and coma. The triptan and the SSRI may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. When the triptan and the SSRI are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (FDA, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as rizatriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different prescriber. When the triptan and the SSRI are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Twelve healthy volunteers received paroxetine 20 mg daily for two weeks and a single dose of rizatriptan 5 mg. The pharmacokinetics of rizatriptan were not altered by the administration of paroxetine (Prod Info Maxalt(R), 1998).

3.5.1.HK Rofecoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI hospitalizations was less than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI hospitalizations (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.HL Selegiline

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with fluoxetine and selegiline may result in a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Prozac(R), 1999g; Sternbach, 1991m; C Kline et al, 1989k; Suchowersky & de Vries, 1990k). Concomitant use is contraindicated. A minimum of 14 days should elapse before initiating therapy with fluoxetine. At least five weeks should elapse after discontinuing fluoxetine prior to initiating therapy with EMSAM(R) transdermal patch, 2006).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of fluoxetine and selegiline is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks before initiating fluoxetine therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing fluoxetine before initiating therapy with selegiline.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant use of serotonin specific reuptake inhibitors and monoamine oxidase inhibitors can produce serotonin syndrome (Sternbach, 1991). Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and mental status changes, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor (Sternbach, 1991). If the syndrome is not treated, it can be fatal.
 - b) It has been suggested that fluoxetine therapy be discontinued for five weeks before beginning therapy with selegiline. One case report describes a 28-year old woman who had discontinued a 2-year fluoxetine regimen for selegiline. Over the next few days the patient developed fever, paresthesias, confusion, abdominal pain, and tremor. Upon discontinuation of selegiline, the patient's symptoms began to resolve. Blood samples taken during therapy revealed no presence of fluoxetine; however, the norfluoxetine level was 84 ng/mL (Coffman et al, 2006).
 - c) Adverse reactions reported when fluoxetine was given concomitantly with phenelzine (n=9) or tranylcypromine (n=9) included restlessness (42%), mental status changes (42%), myoclonus (33%), diarrhea (33%), and blood pressure changes. One of the patients was taking other medications (ie, benzodiazepines, neuroleptics, anticonvulsants, and other drugs) at the time of the adverse reactions.
 - d) Ten hours after her last dose of fluoxetine, a 45-year-old woman began tranylcypromine therapy (Klir et al, 1991). Insomnia, and unsteady gait were reported on the second day. Thioridazine and tryptophan were added. Rigidity of the arms and legs, and hyperreflexia. She died in the intensive care unit of a hospital 44 hours after beginning therapy.
 - e) Two cases suggestive of an interaction between fluoxetine and selegiline were reported (Suchowersky et al, 1990). One episode of mania being observed approximately one month after adding selegiline to fluoxetine therapy. The other episode of mania occurred after adding fluoxetine to selegiline therapy. Both episodes of mania were discontinued, and no further details were provided. The second case involved diaphoresis, which occurred in close temporal relationship to adding fluoxetine and selegiline. Both drugs were discontinued. Rechallenge with fluoxetine alone occurred without incident.

3.5.1.HM Sematilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmic agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1999). It has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HN Sertindole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antipsychotics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval with fluoxetine, is not recommended. Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including quetiapine (Owens, 2001b), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Swanson et al, 1992).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and antipsychotics is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HO Sibrafiban

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PAXIL(R) release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified

- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.HP Sibutramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, ment
- 2) Summary: Sibutramine inhibits the reuptake of norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin. In addition, the 1 M2, also inhibit the reuptake of these neurotransmitters. A hyperserotonergic state, termed serotonin syndrond concurrently with a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor. Coadministration of sibutramine and selective serot (Prod Info Meridia(R), 1997).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Sibutramine should not be administered with serotonergic agents, including selectiv increased risk of serotonin syndrome.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and manifests as restlessness, m hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. If the syndrome is not recognized and correctly treated

3.5.1.HQ Sotalol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 1; been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HR Spiramycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest
- 2) Summary: Spiramycin and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended tl Stramba-Badiale et al, 1997). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadminis interval is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of spiramycin and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HS St John's Wort

- 1) Interaction Effect: reduced olanzapine efficacy
- 2) Summary: This interaction is based on in vitro information that St. John's Wort induced CYP1A2 enzymes reduced blood theophylline concentrations and loss of efficacy (Nebel et al, 1999). Since olanzapine is metat olanzapine may be similarly affected. If St. John's Wort and olanzapine are taken together, their dosages shc that increased dosages of olanzapine may be required. Discontinuation of St. John's Wort should be done ca increase and dose reduction may be required.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concomitant use of olanzapine with St. John's Wort. If patients elect to remain consistent dosing. Olanzapine dosage may need to be increased. Patients should not discontinue St. John's downward adjustments in olanzapine dose may be necessary as well as monitoring for increased side effects constipation, dry mouth, asthenia).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: induction of cytochrome P450 1A2 enzymes by St. John's Wort

3.5.1.HT St John's Wort

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, ment
- 2) Summary: Case reports describe the onset of serotonin syndrome-like symptoms, mania, and hypomania sertraline, fluoxetine, and paroxetine therapy (Spinella & Eaton, 2002c; Barbanel et al, 2000a; Waksman et a a syndrome resembling sedative/hypnotic intoxication after adding St. John's Wort to paroxetine therapy (Go serotonin reuptake and may have mild monoamine oxidase inhibitory activity (Singer et al, 1999; Thiede & W serotonin reuptake inhibitors may result in serotonin syndrome.
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Patients should be advised to wait two weeks after stopping St. John's Wort before therapy. If a patient plans to replace selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) therapy with St. John's Wort taken into consideration, waiting at least 5 half-lives for the SSRI to be metabolized out of the body.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Five cases have been reported of serotonin syndrome in the elderly after combining prescription antidepressants with St. John's Wort. Case 1 developed dizziness, nausea, vomiting and a headache 4 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 milligrams daily. Her symptoms resolved 2 to 3 days after stopping all medications. Case 2 developed dizziness, nausea, vomiting and a headache 4 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg twice daily combined with sertraline 75 mg daily. His symptoms resolved 2 days after stopping all medications, and he resumed sertraline use without complications. The third case developed nausea, vomiting and a headache 4 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg twice daily combined with sertraline 50 mg daily. His symptoms improved and taking cyproheptadine 4 mg three times daily. Case 4 developed nausea, anxiety, restless, and irritability three times daily combined with sertraline 50 mg daily. Cyproheptadine 4 mg twice daily was administered 1 week after stopping the medication. Cases 1 through 4 resumed their prescriptive sertraline after symptoms resolved. Case 5 developed nausea, vomiting and restlessness 3 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg three times daily. She continued to take St. John's Wort but discontinued the nefazodone and over 1 week her therapy with nefazodone, but continued therapy with St. John's Wort and mild to moderate symptoms of serotonin syndrome (1999).
 - b) A 50-year-old female taking St. John's Wort 600 mg daily experienced symptoms of sedative intoxication while taking paroxetine 20 mg. She was incoherent, groggy, slow-moving, and complained of nausea and weakness. She was receiving paroxetine 40 mg daily for eight months without adverse effects. After a night of sleep, she returned to baseline (1998).
 - c) A 61-year-old female experienced restlessness and involuntary movements of her extremities after beginning St. John's Wort 600 mg daily. The patient reported agitation and akathisia 8 hours after discontinuing St. John's Wort. She presented with diaphoresis and involuntary movement of all extremities with hyperreflexia and rigidity. Blood pressure was normal. After admission, blood pressure increased to 200/116 mmHg and heart rate increased to 145 beats per minute. Urine drug screen was negative. The patient was managed with supportive care and lorazepam 2 mg (2000).
 - d) A 28-year-old male developed a manic syndrome following comedication with St. John's Wort and sertraline. He had been on sertraline replacement therapy following bilateral orchidectomy 2 years earlier, but testosterone levels were subtherapeutic. He was taking 50 milligrams daily for depression following a 2 week trial of St. John's Wort per patient preference (dose not specified). The patient was instructed to discontinue St. John's Wort, but continued it despite this advice. The patient's physician, believing that he did not need further treatment. Over 2 months, the patient had an elevated mood, could not afford, and was ultimately arrested for stealing fuel for the car. On arrest, he was referred to psychiatric hospital for mania. He was observed to be over-aroused, distractible, have flight of ideas, and grandiose delusions. The authors state the possibility of the manic state resulting from sertraline therapy alone, and that St. John's Wort may have potentiated the manic state. Since the patient's testosterone level was subnormal, the possibility of testosterone deficiency predisposed the patient to mania (Barbanel et al, 2000).
 - e) A 42-year-old female experienced symptoms consistent with a mixed hypomanic episode following discontinuation of Ginkgo biloba, and St. John's Wort. The symptoms resolved following discontinuation of Ginkgo and St. John's Wort. She had a mild traumatic brain injury with fluoxetine 20 milligrams (mg) twice daily and buspirone 15 mg twice daily for persistent anxiety and the patient began taking St. John's Wort in unspecified doses. Melatonin was considered unlikely to have contributed to her symptoms. Ginkgo biloba and St. John's Wort are possible contributors since they may potentiate antidepressants, and considering the temporal relationship between symptoms and discontinuation of the herbs and resolution of symptoms. However, the brain injury was considered a contributing factor (Eaton, 2002b).

3.5.1.HU Sulfamethoxazole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cotrimoxazole and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (2001ah; Lopez et al, 1987). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of cotrimoxazole and fluoxetine is not recommended
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HV Sulfinpyrazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.HW Sulindac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 7.1 to 19.5 and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.HX Sulodexide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 200
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.HY Sultopride

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. In formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antipsychotics and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval, is not recommended. Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including quetiapine (Owens, 2001b), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sw)
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and antipsychotics is not recommended
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.HZ Sumatriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concurrent use of a serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Immitrex(R), 2002). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in a serotonin syndrome. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware of these symptoms and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2002).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as sumatriptan, and an SSRI, such as fluoxetine, may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

- threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Prod Info tapentadol imm
- 3) Severity: major
 - 4) Onset: unspecified
 - 5) Substantiation: theoretical
 - 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of tapentadol and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition used together, monitor the patient closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, treatment initiation and dose increases (Prod Info tapentadol immediate release oral tablets, 2008).
 - 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

3.5.1.IE Tedisamil

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class prolong the QTc interval is not recommended (Allen et al, 2002; Prod Info Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules, 14 been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of class III antiarrhythmic agents and agents that pro recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.IF Telithromycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, telithromycin should be coadmin also known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine (Owens, 2001d; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2001o).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of telithromycin with other agents that can prolong th recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.IG Tenidap

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.IH Tenoxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of in
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant

- 6) Clinical Management: Use caution when prescribing fluoxetine to patients who take tetrabenazine. Patient tetrabenazine should have their daily dose of tetrabenazine decreased by half if coadministration with fluoxetine and tetrabenazine may cause elevated tetrabenazine levels. Monitor for increased tetrabenazine side effects depression, anxiety, akathisia, and nausea (Prod Info XENAZINE(R) oral tablets, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated tetrabenazine metabolism by fluoxetine

3.5.1.IL Thioridazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine inhibits the metabolism of thioridazine through inhibition of CYP2D6. The resulting QTc prolongation (Prod Info Mellaril(R), 2000). Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Mellaril(R), 2000). Although citing no data, the manufacturer of thioridazine states that concomitant use with other drugs is contraindicated (Prod Info Mellaril(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and thioridazine is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated thioridazine metabolism; additive effect

3.5.1.IM Tiaprofenic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
 - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased bleeding (Prod Info TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.IN Ticlopidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info TICALID(R) release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.IO Tinzaparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008) (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme that metabolizes tinzaparin.

warfarin, is metabolized (Riesenman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleedings in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following treatment. Mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected controls. SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 corresponding total incidences of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The risk of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. Bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690) for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.7). Gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2008).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Clair et al, 1993).

e) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. The patient was on fluoxetine 20 mg daily for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given fluoxetine 20 mg 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later cerebral interparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.IP Tipranavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased fluoxetine plasma concentrations
- 2) Summary: Although the drug interaction between fluoxetine and tipranavir/ritonavir has not been studied, tipranavir/ritonavir may result in increased fluoxetine plasma concentrations. Fluoxetine doses may need to be reduced (Prod Info APTIVUS(R) oral capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent administration of fluoxetine and tipranavir/ritonavir may increase fluoxetine plasma concentrations. These agents are coadministered and consider adjusting the fluoxetine dose as needed upon initiation of tipranavir/ritonavir (Prod Info APTIVUS(R) oral capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.IQ Tirofiban

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info Tirofiban(R) release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.IR Tolmetin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events include petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LORANAR(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info LORANAR(R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent NSAID use.

- 1) Interaction Effect: trazodone toxicity (sedation, dry mouth, urinary retention) or serotonin syndrome (hyper changes)
- 2) Summary: When given concurrently, trazodone and fluoxetine have been reported to be therapeutically effective in speech dysfunction in a 43-year old man following traumatic brain injury (Patterson et al, 1997a). There has been a serotonin syndrome due to interactions between selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and antidepressants (George & Alderman & Lee, 1996). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation characterized by hyperthermia, myoclonus and changes in mental status (Sternbach, 1991y). Further clinical studies are needed for serotonin syndrome associated with this drug combination.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Due to the potential for impairment in trazodone metabolism, patients should be monitored. Occasional dosage reductions of trazodone may be required. Serotonin syndrome, characterized by hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, status changes, may also occur during concomitant therapy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased trazodone clearance
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Five cases of elevated antidepressant levels, four involving tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, and amitriptyline), have been reported. After the addition of fluoxetine, the ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 31% in the patient on trazodone. The trazodone-treated patient developed sedation and confusion.
 - b) A 44-year-old man developed symptoms characteristic of serotonin syndrome due to a possible interaction. The patient had been taking fluoxetine 40 mg daily and trazodone 100 mg daily for approximately two months; he experienced disorientation, tremor, diaphoresis, and anxiety, followed by uncontrollable shaking and loss of consciousness. With cyproheptadine 4 mg orally, symptoms resolved over the next 30 minutes. Trazodone was discontinued and fluoxetine was given 40 mg daily without further complications (George & Godleski, 1996).
 - c) Serotonin syndrome was also reported in a 29-year-old woman taking trazodone and paroxetine. The patient had been on trazodone 150 mg at bedtime for approximately three months for depression and insomnia. The patient's depressive symptoms improved. Trazodone was subsequently decreased to 50 mg daily at bedtime for two weeks before paroxetine 20 mg daily was added. After the first dose of paroxetine, the patient became agitated, confused, shaky, and diaphoretic. Upon discontinuation of paroxetine, intermittent myoclonus in all extremities, hyperreflexia, tremor, and diaphoresis. After discontinuation of paroxetine, the patient's symptoms resolved (Reeves & Bullen, 1995).
 - d) A 43-year-old male with traumatic brain injury developed speech dysfunction during therapy with fluoxetine. The patient was treated with trazodone 150 mg at bedtime for chronic pain as a result of a fall. After undergoing a comprehensive rehabilitation, fluoxetine 20 mg every morning was added to the patient's regimen for treatment of symptoms. During therapy with fluoxetine, the patient began to slur his speech and later exhibited a slow rate of speech, incoherence, and word-finding difficulties. After discontinuation of fluoxetine and tapering of trazodone the patient's speech difficulty resolved and returned to normal over the next week (Patterson et al, 1997).
 - e) The pharmacokinetic effect of trazodone and fluoxetine cotherapy was studied in 27 inpatients with a diagnosis of major depressive disorder. Trazodone 100 mg daily, followed one week later with the addition of fluoxetine 20 mg daily, compared to a placebo had no significant effect on the plasma concentrations of trazodone or its active metabolite, mCPP. When fluoxetine was combined with trazodone, levels of mCPP increased from a mean baseline value of 1.0 to 1.5. This increase was also associated with an improvement in the clinical response to the antidepressants (Maes et al, 1997).

3.5.1.IX Trifluoperazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Although citing no data, the manufacturers of some phenothiazines state that concomitant use with fluoxetine is not recommended. Q and T wave distortions have been observed in patients taking phenothiazines (Prod Info Thorazine(R), 2002; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2003). Other phenothiazines may have similar effects, though no reports are available for the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Prozac(R), 2003).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a phenothiazine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.IY Trimethoprim

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cotrimoxazole and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Cotrimoxazole, 2001ah; Lopez et al, 1987). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the concomitant use of cotrimoxazole and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of cotrimoxazole and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.IZ Trimipramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation) and an increase in

de pointes, cardiac arrest)

- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval (Prozac(R), 2001h; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done (coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine, 1999). In addition, concurrent use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch et al, 1994).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Fluoxetine increased the level of tricyclic antidepressants (nortriptyline, imipramine, desipramine) in a ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patients. Three patients developed constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable gait) as a result of the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989a).
 - b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. When added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the curve increased by 342%. Desipramine trough concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline throughout the same study compared pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of short-term increases in desipramine plasma concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994).
 - c) A 75-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine serum concentrations when levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime prior to fluoxetine therapy. Following the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was 200 mg daily and the desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 200 mg daily within two weeks (Bell & Cole, 1988).
 - d) A 33-year-old depressed male developed adverse effects of dry mouth, tinnitus, and difficulties with walking on a 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood level of desipramine was 244 ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (Goodnick, 1989).
 - e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL on a regimen of 300 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms, sedation, and confusion with a desipramine level of 200 mg/day; eleven days later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 150 mg daily. Eight days later, the desipramine level was 122 ng/mL (Downs et al, 1989).
 - f) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and desipramine was reported to result in an increased desipramine level in a 70-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (Preskorn et al, 1990).

3.5.1.JA Tryptophan

- 1) Interaction Effect: serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Tryptophan is metabolized to serotonin, and fluoxetine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prozac(R), 2001h; Fontaine, 1986a; Boyer & Blumhardt, 1992). It is possible that combining these agents may result in excess serotonin syndrome".
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If tryptophan and fluoxetine are coadministered, monitor patients for signs of serotonin syndrome (myoclonus, mental status changes). It may be necessary to reduce doses of one or both agents or to discontinue one or both agents.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive adverse effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In a case series, the concurrent use of fluoxetine 50 to 100 mg daily and L-tryptophan 1 to 4 g daily resulted in nervous system toxicity (agitation, poor concentration, nausea, diarrhea, paresthesias, palpitations, chills, insomnia) within a few days. Tryptophan was discontinued and the symptoms disappeared (Steiner & Fontaine, 1986a).
 - b) Concurrent paroxetine (another SSRI) and tryptophan have been linked to headache, nausea, and sweating. Tryptophan administration increases serotonin concentration in the central nervous system and paroxetine receive potent serotonin reuptake inhibitors should be advised not to take L-tryptophan.

3.5.1.JB Valdecoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info L CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

- a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The amount of upper GI bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin had a 7.1 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding.
- b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.JC Vasopressin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine and vasopressin have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Vasopressin, 1990). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and vasopressin is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.JD Venlafaxine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest) (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Venlafaxine and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Effexor(R) XR, 2000). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration is not recommended. In addition, the concurrent use of venlafaxine and fluoxetine may result in serotonergic effects.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of venlafaxine and fluoxetine is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation; additive serotonergic effect

3.5.1.JE Warfarin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies of concurrent use of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, nosebleeds, and hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with fluoxetine (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When fluoxetine and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding. Warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, with fluoxetine (Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

a) Fluoxetine is thought to inhibit the cytochrome P450 2C9 isoenzyme (CYP2C9). This is the enzyme by which warfarin is metabolized (Rieseman, 1995). In addition, both fluoxetine and warfarin are tightly bound to plasma proteins and may compete for protein-binding displacement of either drug is present (Prod Info Coumadin(R), 1999).

b) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy or within 2 weeks following SSRI therapy. The mean age of 72 +/- 7 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with randomly selected patients receiving warfarin only. The SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nine patients in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 586.4 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The incidence of treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 3.49 (95% CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The incidence of bleeding at the time of concomitant administration were sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI to warfarin increased the risk of bleeding (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The results of the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model.

c) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization due to nongastrointestinal bleeding. In a study of hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were admitted for abnormal INR. Subjects also taking coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range, 1 to 4690 days). The risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval 1.1 to 2.8) was not significantly different (Schalekam et al, 2007).

d) In 6 reported cases, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy. In a seventh case, INR increased during combined fluoxetine and warfarin therapy.

a woman initially treated with fluoxetine and, secondarily, started on warfarin (Woolfrey et al, 1993; Claire) An 83-year-old man died from cerebral hemorrhage secondary to increased warfarin concentrations. week for atrial fibrillation with a target INR between 2 and 3. The patient's other drugs included lisinopril, acetaminophen. After being seen for symptoms of depression, anxiety, and insomnia, the patient was given 3 to 4 times per day. Eight days later, the patient's INR increased to 4.8, and the dose of warfarin was later seen for symptoms of drug delirium, including confusion, incoherence, and speaking irrationally was discontinued. The next day the patient presented to the hospital with left-sided weakness and later a large intraparenchymal hemorrhage. The authors proposed that the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen of warfarin and diazepam, resulting in delirium and loss of anticoagulant control (Dent & Orrock, 1997).

3.5.1.JF Xemilofiban

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and use of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events: hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; release capsules, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.JG Ziprasidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, ziprasidone should not be co-administered with drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including fluoxetine (Prod Info Geodon(TM), 2002; Prod Info Prozac(R), 2002)
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of ziprasidone with other agents that can prolong the QTc interval should be avoided.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) It has been shown that ziprasidone prolongs the QTc and that this represents a risk of potentially fatal torsades de pointes. Prolongation is dose-related. It is not yet known whether ziprasidone will cause torsades de pointes or in combination with other drugs. In a study, ziprasidone increased the QTc interval, compared to placebo, by approximately 10 milliseconds (msec); fluoxetine increased the QTc interval by 9 to 14 msec more with ziprasidone than with risperidone, olanzapine, quetiapine, or thioridazine (Prod Info Geodon(R), 2002).

3.5.1.JH Zolmitriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome and an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation)
- 2) Summary: Zolmitriptan and fluoxetine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Prod Info Zomig(R), 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the combination of zolmitriptan and an SSRI is not recommended. Additionally, concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome. Serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart beat, rapid change in body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans and SSRIs may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2001).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as zolmitriptan, and an SSRI, such as fluoxetine, may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination). Additionally, concurrent administration of zolmitriptan and an SSRI may increase the risk of cardiotoxicity due to additive QT prolongation effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation; additive effects on the QTc interval
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of zolmitriptan were unaffected by 4 weeks of pretreatment with fluoxetine 20 mg daily.

3.5.1.JI Zolpidem

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of hallucinations
- 2) Summary: Short-term combined therapy with fluoxetine and zolpidem was determined to be safe by a study. In a study, a single dose of zolpidem followed by one washout day, the subjects were given a daily dose of fluoxetine on days 28 through 32. There were no significant changes in either fluoxetine or zolpidem plasma concentrations. All subjects tolerated well, either individually or combined (Allard et al, 1998a). However, the publication of five case reports elucidates potential interactions between zolpidem and various antidepressant medications. Five patients reported

zolpidem and antidepressant medication. The hallucination episodes all lasted longer than one hour, but res

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Observe patients for hallucinatory activity. Alternative anti-insomnia medication may
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

a) A study conducted by Lorex Pharmaceuticals and Boston Research and Science Consulting demonstrates therapy with fluoxetine and zolpidem. In this study, 29 healthy female volunteers were given a single evening washout day. This was followed by a daily morning dose of fluoxetine 20 mg on days 3 through 27. On day 28, zolpidem was added. Steady state plasma concentrations of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine were reached (determined by serial venous blood sampling). There were no significant differences in area under concentration curve (AUC) or reach peak concentration (Tmax) after one or five consecutive doses of zolpidem in conjunction with fluoxetine. Pharmacokinetic mean parameters were observed for zolpidem: AUC 917.04 ng/hr/mL on day 28, 978.7 ng/hr/mL on day 32, Tmax 1.67 hr on day 28, 1.54 hr on day 32. For fluoxetine the following parameters were observed: AUC 2879.63 ng/hr/mL on day 32, Cmax 133.48 ng/mL on day 27, 142.23 ng/mL on day 32, Tmax 8.28 hr on day 32. A significant difference was a higher half-life value for zolpidem on day 32, the fifth consecutive dose of zolpidem (1998).

b) The Washington Poison Center reports that they received five different calls from patients experiencing hallucinations while taking zolpidem and antidepressant medication. Four of the five reports came from patients taking serotonin reuptake inhibitor antidepressants being taken were desipramine, fluoxetine, sertraline, venlafaxine, and bupropion. The hallucinations lasted longer than one hour, but the patients' symptoms resolved without further sequelae. The authors conclude that the mechanism by which the combination of zolpidem and antidepressants might cause hallucinations has not been firmly established (Elko et al, 1998).

3.5.1.JJ Zomepirac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008) (Prod Info LEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this effect is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressants. The amount of upper gastrointestinal bleeding was greater than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs.

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as fluoxetine) has been associated with increased risk of bleeding (TORADOL(R) oral tablets, 2007).

3.5.1.JK Zotepine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Fluoxetine has been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose. In the absence of formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antipsychotics and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval, is not recommended. Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including quetiapine (Owens, 2001b), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Swanson et al, 1992).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluoxetine and antipsychotics is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.2 Drug-Food Combinations

3.5.2.A Ethanol

- 1) Interaction Effect: excessive central nervous system depression
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of olanzapine and ethanol will potentiate the orthostatic hypotension observed with olanzapine. A study of ethanol (45 mg/70 kg) had no effect on olanzapine pharmacokinetics, these drugs should not be taken concurrently. The depressive effects of both drugs (Prod Info Zyprexa(R), 1999d).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of olanzapine and ethanol should be avoided if at all possible. If the

caution should be used.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive central nervous system depression

4.0 Clinical Applications

Monitoring Parameters

Patient Instructions

Place In Therapy

Mechanism of Action / Pharmacology

Therapeutic Uses

Comparative Efficacy / Evaluation With Other Therapies

4.1 Monitoring Parameters

A) Therapeutic

1) Physical Findings

a) Signs of improvement in bipolar symptoms.

1) Positive symptoms (distortion of normal function) include hallucinations, irritability, delusions, incoher

2) Negative symptoms (loss or diminution of function) include blunted affect, emotional or social withdra

b) Improvement in target symptoms associated with depression (depressed mood, suicidal thoughts or inten sleep patterns, lack of pleasure/interest in usual activities, feeling of excessive guilt/worthlessness, psychom thinking/concentration/memory).

B) Toxic

1) Laboratory Parameters

a) Fasting blood glucose levels should be assessed in any patient who exhibits symptoms of hyperglycemia. treatment and regularly thereafter in patients with diabetes mellitus, with borderline increased blood glucose l 200 mg/dL), or with risk factors for diabetes mellitus (i.e., obesity, family history of diabetes) (Prod Info SYME

b) Lipid profile evaluations should be done at the beginning of treatment and periodically during therapy to r triglycerides, LDL, and HDL (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

c) ECG at baseline and periodically during treatment (Pacher & Kecskemeti, 2004)

d) Serum sodium levels should be monitored (levels lower than 110 mmol/L have been reported). There is a the syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion) in patients receiving concomitant diuretics, pat hyponatremia is confirmed, fluoxetine/olanzapine should be discontinued and medical management may be r

2) Physical Findings

a) Abnormal bleeding should be monitored for ecchymoses, hematomas, epistaxis and petechiae especially NSAIDs, warfarin or other anticoagulants.

b) Allergic reactions including anaphylaxis and rash should be monitored. Systemic reactions possibly relate If an etiology for these reactions cannot be identified, fluoxetine/olanzapine therapy should be discontinued (f

c) Body temperature dysregulation should be monitored for signs of dehydration, excessive or lack of sweati able to produce urine. Activities such as exercising strenuously, extreme heat exposure, concomitant anticho body temperature.

d) Body weight should be monitored regularly during treatment (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

e) Hyperglycemia symptoms should be monitored regularly in all patients for signs of polydipsia, polyuria, po symptoms of hyperglycemia during atypical antipsychotic treatment should undergo fasting blood glucose tes resolved when the atypical antipsychotic was stopped; however, some patient required ongoing anti- diabetic (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

f) Hyponatremia (as a result of SIADH) should be monitored including symptoms of headache, difficulty conc weakness, and unsteadiness. More severe symptoms include hallucination, syncope, seizure, coma, and res increased risk of hyponatremia in patients receiving concomitant diuretics, patients who are volume depleted. fluoxetine/olanzapine therapy should be discontinued and medical management may be necessary.

g) If intolerable withdrawal symptoms occur following a decrease in dose or when therapy is being discontint previously prescribed dose and taper the dose at a more gradual rate. Symptoms may include dysphoric moc disturbances, anxiety, confusion , headache, lethargy, emotional lability, insomnia, and hypomania (Prod Info

h) Involuntary, dyskinetic movements should be monitored periodically. There is an increased incidence of t females with some irreversible cases. Risk benefit of continued treatment should be assessed if symptoms d 2009).

i) Mania/hypomania may be activated in patients with undiagnosed bipolar disorder. Monitoring is recomme (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

j) Orthostatic hypotension, including dizziness, tachycardia, bradycardia, and syncope should be monitored i patients with cardiovascular or cerebrovascular disease, or conditions which might predispose patients to hyp

concomitant antihypertensive drugs) (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009)

k) Monitor patients receiving antidepressants for worsening of depression, suicidality, or unusual changes in behavior (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009) especially at the initiation of therapy or during dose adjustment. Such monitoring should include at least weekly visits with their family members or caregivers during the initial 4 weeks of treatment, then visits every other week for the clinically indicated beyond 12 weeks. Families and caregivers should be advised of the need for close observation and communication with the prescriber (US Food and Drug Administration, 2004).

l) Patients who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility, aggressive behavior, or mania may be at an increased risk for worsening depression or suicidality. If these symptoms are observed, it may be necessary to discontinue medications when symptoms are severe, sudden in onset, or were not part of the patient's medical history (US Food and Drug Administration, 2004).

m) Seizures should be monitored, especially in patients with a history of seizure disorder or with comorbidities.

n) Serotonin syndrome or neuroleptic malignant syndrome-like reactions should be monitored including mental status changes (agitation, delirium, hallucinations, or coma), tachycardia, labile blood pressure, hyperthermia, neuromuscular aberrations (muscle rigidity, hyperreflexia, or clonus), and autonomic abnormalities (dilated pupils, tachycardia, or hypotension). There may be an increased risk of this reaction with concomitant use of serotonergic drugs (including selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors, triptans, tricyclic antidepressants, or antipsychotics) or dopamine antagonists, all of which are not recommended during fluoxetine/olanzapine therapy. Discontinue fluoxetine/olanzapine if serotonin syndrome or neuroleptic malignant syndrome-like reactions occur (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

4.2 Patient Instructions

A) Olanzapine/Fluoxetine (By mouth) Fluoxetine Hydrochloride/Olanzapine

Treats depression that is a part of bipolar disorder or that does not respond to other antidepressants. This medicine is a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) antidepressant.

When This Medicine Should Not Be Used:

You should not use this medicine if you have had an allergic reaction to olanzapine (Zyprexa®) or fluoxetine (Prozac®). Do not use this medicine if you have used an MAO inhibitor (MAOI) such as Eldepryl®, Marplan®, Nardil®, or Parnate® within the past 14 days. Do not use this medicine for at least 5 weeks after you stop using Symbyx®. You should not use this medicine if you are using pimozide (Orlacor®).

How to Use This Medicine:

Capsule

Your doctor will tell you how much of this medicine to use and how often. Do not use more medicine or use it more often than your doctor tells you. This medicine should come with a Medication Guide. Read and follow these instructions carefully. Ask your doctor for more information. Ask your pharmacist for the Medication Guide if you do not have one. Your doctor might ask you to sign some information.

You may take this medicine with or without food.

If a Dose is Missed:

If you miss a dose or forget to use your medicine, use it as soon as you can. If it is almost time for your next dose, skip the missed dose. Do not use extra medicine to make up for a missed dose.

How to Store and Dispose of This Medicine:

Store the medicine in a closed container at room temperature, away from heat, moisture, and direct light.

Ask your pharmacist, doctor, or health caregiver about the best way to dispose of any leftover medicine after the expiration date has passed.

Keep all medicine away from children and never share your medicine with anyone.

Drugs and Foods to Avoid:

Ask your doctor or pharmacist before using any other medicine, including over-the-counter medicines, vitamins, or herbal products. Make sure your doctor knows if you are using digitoxin, linezolid (Zyvox®), omeprazole (Prilosec®), rifampin (Imitrex®), tramadol (Ultram®), tryptophan, or vinblastine. Tell your doctor if you are using a blood thinner (such as warfarin) for mental illness (such as clozapine, fluvoxamine, haloperidol, lithium, tryptophan, Clozaril®, Haldol®, or Luvion®), levodopa, Sinemet®, or Stalevo®), phenothiazine medicine (such as prochlorperazine, Compazine®, Mellaril®), or medicine for heart rhythm problems (such as flecainide, propafenone, Rythmol®, or Tambocor®).

Make sure your doctor knows if you are also using a pain or arthritis medicine (such as aspirin, diclofenac, ibuprofen, Daypro®, Motrin®, Orudis®, Relafen®, or Voltaren®), medicine for seizures (such as carbamazepine, phenytoin, or valproic acid), depression (such as amitriptyline, desipramine, imipramine, nortriptyline, Aventyl®, Elavil®, Norpramin®, Paroxetine®, or Zoloft®), diazepam, Librium®, Valium®, or Xanax®), or blood pressure medicine (such as atenolol, lisinopril, Cozaar®, Diovan®, Lotrel®, Norvasc®, Prinivil®, Toprol®, or Zestril®).

Do not drink alcohol while you are using this medicine.

Tell your doctor if you are using any medicines that make you sleepy. These include sleeping pills, cold and allergy medicines, and sedatives.

Tell your doctor if you are also using any other medicine that contains olanzapine or fluoxetine. Some other medicines include Prozac®, Prozac Weekly™, or Sarafem®.

Warnings While Using This Medicine:

Make sure your doctor knows if you are pregnant, or if you have diabetes, seizures, bleeding problems, liver or kidney problems, glaucoma, trouble swallowing, or a history of neuroleptic malignant syndrome (NMS), breast cancer, or severe depression.

have any kind of heart or circulation problems, including heart disease, low blood pressure, high blood pressure, history of heart attack or stroke.

Do not breastfeed while you are using this medicine.

For some children, teenagers, and young adults, this medicine can increase thoughts of suicide. Tell your doctor if your child starts to feel more depressed and has thoughts about hurting themselves. Report any unusual thoughts especially if they are new or are getting worse quickly. Make sure the doctor knows if you or your child have had an increase in energy, or start to act reckless. Also tell the doctor if you or your child have sudden or strong feelings of being violent, or scared. Let the doctor know if you, your child, or anyone in your family has bipolar disorder (manic depression). This medicine may raise or lower your blood sugar, or it may cover up symptoms of very low blood sugar (hypoglycemia). Your doctor will need to check your blood at regular visits while you are using this medicine. Be sure to keep your blood sugar under control. This medicine may increase your cholesterol and fats in the blood. If this condition occurs, your doctor may give you a certain amount of cholesterol and fats in the blood.

This medicine may increase your weight. Your doctor may need to check your weight regularly during treatment. If you develop new hives or a skin rash, even a mild one, stop using this medicine and call your doctor right away. This medicine may cause a serious condition called serotonin syndrome when it is taken with certain medications or other medicines.

Tardive dyskinesia (a movement disorder) may occur and may not go away after you stop using the medicine. Tell your doctor if your child has any of the following symptoms while taking this medicine: lip smacking or puckering, puffing out the tongue, uncontrolled chewing movements, or uncontrolled movements of the arms and legs.

You might get overheated while using this medicine. Drink plenty of water during hot weather, while exercising, or when you get too hot, you might feel dizzy, weak, tired, or confused. You might have an upset stomach or vomit. Call your doctor if staying away from the heat does not cool you down.

Some side effects are more likely to happen in elderly people who have memory problems or other reduced mental abilities. A person who will be using this medicine has forgetfulness or confusion related to aging (such as Alzheimer's disease). This medicine may make you dizzy or drowsy. Avoid driving, using machines, or doing anything else that could be dangerous. Also feel lightheaded when getting up suddenly from a lying or sitting position, so stand up slowly.

Do not stop using this medicine suddenly without asking your doctor. You may need to slowly decrease your dose. If your symptoms do not improve or if they get worse, call your doctor.

Possible Side Effects While Using This Medicine:

Call your doctor right away if you notice any of these side effects:

- Allergic reaction: Itching or hives, swelling in your face or hands, swelling or tingling in your mouth or throat, chest pain, or difficulty breathing.
- Bloody or black, tarry stools.
- Change in how much or how often you urinate.
- Changes in behavior, or thoughts of hurting yourself or others.
- Chest pain, shortness of breath, or coughing up blood.
- Confusion, weakness, and muscle twitching.
- Fast, slow, uneven, or pounding heartbeat.
- Feeling very thirsty or hungry.
- Fever, unusual sweating, or feeling too hot.
- Lightheadedness or fainting.
- Muscle pain, tenderness, or weakness.
- Muscle stiffness, spasms, or other muscle movements you cannot control (especially in your face or mouth).
- Pain in your lower leg (calf).
- Seizures or tremors.
- Severe stomach pain, or vomiting of blood or material that looks like coffee grounds.
- Sudden or severe headache, problems with vision, speech, or walking.
- Swelling in your hands, ankles, or feet.
- Trouble breathing or swallowing.
- Trouble sleeping, racing thoughts, feeling very nervous, energetic, or restless.
- Unusual bleeding or bruising.
- Yellowing of your skin or the whites of your eyes.

If you notice these less serious side effects, talk with your doctor:

- Blurred vision.
- Diarrhea.
- Dry mouth, sore throat, or hoarseness.
- Increase in appetite.
- Joint pain or swelling.
- Sleepiness or unusual drowsiness.
- Tiredness.
- Trouble concentrating.
- Trouble having sex.
- Weight gain.

If you notice other side effects that you think are caused by this medicine, tell your doctor.

4.3 Place In Therapy

- A) Depression Associated with Bipolar I Disorder
 - 1) The combination of olanzapine and fluoxetine is effective for the treatment of depressive episodes associated established guidelines for the length of time patients with bipolar disorder experiencing a major depressive episode chronic illness requiring chronic treatment. The use olanzapine/fluoxetine for extended periods should periodically continued therapy(Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).
- B) Treatment-Resistant Depression
 - 1) Combination olanzapine and fluoxetine is effective for the acute treatment of treatment-resistant major depression 2 separate previous trials of antidepressant therapy. There are no established guidelines for the length of time patient treated; however, it is considered a chronic illness requiring chronic treatment. The use olanzapine/fluoxetine for should be reevaluated for benefits and risks of continued therapy (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

4.4 Mechanism of Action / Pharmacology

A) MECHANISM OF ACTION

- 1) Although the exact mechanism of the combination of olanzapine and fluoxetine is unknown, the enhanced anti-serotonin, norepinephrine, and dopamine activation. Increased norepinephrine and dopamine release in the prefrontal cortex as well as increases in serotonin, have been demonstrated in animal studies (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsules, 2007):
- 2) Olanzapine is a psychotropic agent and fluoxetine is an antidepressant. Fluoxetine is an inhibitor of the serotonin norepinephrine and dopamine transporters. The following list provides the binding affinity of olanzapine to neurotransmitters (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsules, 2007):
 - High affinity:
 - serotonin 5HT2A/2C
 - 5HT6
 - dopamine D1-4
 - histamine H-1
 - adrenergic alpha-1
 - Moderate affinity
 - serotonin 5HT3
 - muscarinic M1-5
 - Weak affinity
 - GABA-A
 - benzodiazepine
 - beta-adrenergic
- 3) The therapeutic and adverse effects of olanzapine may be due to its antagonism of certain receptors, such as M1-5 receptor antagonism, somnolence effects related to histamine H-1 receptor antagonism, and orthostatic hypotension related to histamine H-1 receptor antagonism. Fluoxetine does not contribute to the above effects because of its relatively low affinity for histamine H-1 receptors (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsules, 2007).

4.5 Therapeutic Uses

Bipolar disorder, depressed phase
 Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant

4.5.A Bipolar disorder, depressed phase

FDA Labeled Indication

1) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, yes; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Effective
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIa
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B
 See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

2) Summary:

Indicated in adults for the acute treatment of depressive episodes associated with bipolar I disorder (Prod Info SYMBYAX(TM), 2003).
 Efficacy of olanzapine/fluoxetine was established in 2 identically designed, 8-week, randomized, double-blind studies.

3) Adult:

a) Both olanzapine monotherapy and olanzapine plus fluoxetine combination therapy were more effective than placebo in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multi-center, international study, patients with bipolar I disorder. Patients who received olanzapine (n=370; 5 to 20 milligrams) or olanzapine plus fluoxetine (n=86; 6 and 25 mg/day, 6 and 50 mg/day, or 12 and 50 mg/day; mean dose, 7.4 mg/day) for 8 weeks. The primary objective of the study compared olanzapine monotherapy versus placebo with regard to reductions in depressive symptoms (as measured by the MADRS) as compared with placebo (p less than 0.05) at 8 weeks. Throughout all 8 weeks of the study, treatments with both olanzapine and olanzapine-fluoxetine combination resulted in significant reductions in depressive symptoms (as measured by the MADRS) as compared with placebo (p less than 0.05). Improvement in the mean MADRS score at weeks 4, 6, and 8 were observed with olanzapine-fluoxetine combination monotherapy (p=0.01, p=0.02, p=0.01, respectively). The rate of response (defined as at least a 50% improvement in MADRS score) was significantly higher in the olanzapine-fluoxetine combination group compared with placebo (p=0.01, p=0.02, p=0.01, respectively).

of at least 4 weeks of study) was significantly higher in olanzapine-treated patients as compared with placebo. Additionally, the response rate was significantly higher in the olanzapine-fluoxetine group as compared with placebo (p less than 0.001) and olanzapine groups (56.1% vs 39%, respectively; p=0.006). There were no statistically significant differences in rates of treatment-emergent mania. Adverse events were similar between the combination therapy olanzapine-fluoxetine group had a significantly higher rate of nausea and diarrhea (Tohen et al, 2003).

b) The efficacy of olanzapine/fluoxetine for the treatment of depressive episodes associated with bipolar disorder was evaluated in two 8-week, randomized, double-blind, controlled studies (n=403, n=385) of patients who met Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th Edition criteria for Bipolar I Disorder, Depressed utilizing flexible dosing of olanzapine/fluoxetine (6/25, 6/50, or 12/50 mg/day), and olanzapine/fluoxetine (6/25, 6/50, or 12/50 mg/day) studies included patients (greater than or equal to 18 years of age) with or without psychotic symptoms and a primary rating instrument used to assess depressive symptoms in these studies was the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) clinician-rated scale with total scores ranging from 0 to 60. The primary outcome measure of these studies was the MADRS total score. In both studies, SYMBYAX was statistically significantly superior to both olanzapine monotherapy and placebo. Adverse events were similar between the combination therapy olanzapine-fluoxetine group and olanzapine monotherapy. The primary outcome measure of these studies was the MADRS total score (Prod Info Symbyax(TM), 2003).

4.5.B Major depressive disorder, Treatment resistant

FDA Labeled Indication

1) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, yes; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence favors efficacy
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

2) Summary:

Indicated for the acute treatment of treatment-resistant major depressive disorder in adults who experienced inadequate response to antidepressant therapy (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

Reduced symptoms of major depressive disorder in patients with non-treatment resistant and treatment-resistant depression.

3) Adult:

a) Combination therapy with olanzapine/fluoxetine resulted in significantly greater reductions in the mean total (MADRS) scores when compared with olanzapine or fluoxetine alone, according to 3 clinical trials of 579 adults who did not respond to 2 antidepressant therapies of adequate dose and duration, including a randomized, double-blind study in which patients received olanzapine 6 to 18 milligrams (mg) plus fluoxetine 25 to 50 mg (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

b) Combination treatment with olanzapine and fluoxetine effectively reduced symptoms of major depressive disorder and treatment-resistant depression. In an open-label, multicenter, 76-week study, patients (n=560) with major depressive disorder and treatment-resistant depression, received combination therapy with olanzapine and fluoxetine at mean doses of 7.5 milligrams and 25 milligrams, respectively. Efficacy was assessed by mean change from baseline in the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) and Clinical Global Impression-Severity of Illness scale (CGI-S) score. At 76 weeks, there was a 67.7% (21.8 points) mean reduction in MADRS score and a 67.7% (2.2 points) mean reduction in CGI-S score. Mean change scores for both the MADRS and CGI-S were statistically significant (p=0.0001). At endpoint, 61.6% of patients were considered responders (defined as at least a 50% reduction in MADRS score) and throughout the study period, 56.3% of patients achieved remission (defined as 2 consecutive MADRS scores of 10 or less). However, 14.8% of patients who remitted, relapsed by endpoint. Patients with treatment-resistant depression had significantly more symptoms than non-treatment-resistant depression. Somnolence (47.7%), weight gain (39.8%), dry mouth (37.1%), rhinitis (22.3%), asthenia (19.3%), and tremor (18.8%) were the most commonly reported adverse events (Prod Info SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, 2009).

4.6 Comparative Efficacy / Evaluation With Other Therapies

Fluoxetine

Olanzapine

4.6.A Fluoxetine

4.6.A.1 Depression - Schizophrenia

a) Results of an 8-week, double-blind trial demonstrated that patients receiving both olanzapine and fluoxetine had significantly greater improvement in Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) and Clinical Global Impression (CGI) scores compared with olanzapine or fluoxetine medication alone. Twenty-eight patients with nonpsychotic treatment-refractory depression received olanzapine 6 to 18 milligrams/day). In addition, there were no significant differences in adverse events among the 3 different treatment groups.

4.6.B Olanzapine

4.6.B.1 Depression - Schizophrenia

a) Results of an 8-week, double-blind trial demonstrated that patients receiving both olanzapine and fluoxetine had significantly greater improvement in Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) and Clinical Global Impression (CGI) scores compared with olanzapine or fluoxetine medication alone. Twenty-eight patients with nonpsychotic treatment-refractory depression received olanzapine 6 to 18 milligrams/day). In addition, there were no significant differences in adverse events among the 3 different treatment groups.

6.0 References

1. Abramson LB, Brown AJ, & Sitaram N: A cardioacceleratory response to low-dose arecoline infusion during sleep in relationship to REM sleep induction. *Psych Res* 1985; 16:189-198.
2. Achamallah NS: Visual hallucinations after combining fluoxetine and dextromethorphan. *Am J Psychiatry* 1992; 149:148-150.
3. Addonizio G, Roth SD, Stokes PE, et al: Increased extrapyramidal symptoms with addition of lithium to neuroleptics. *Am J Psychiatry* 1992; 149:148-150.
4. Addonizio G, Roth SD, Stokes PE, et al: Increased extrapyramidal symptoms with addition of lithium to neuroleptics. *Am J Psychiatry* 1992; 149:148-150.
5. Agelink AW, Majewski T, Wurthmann C, et al: Effects of newer atypical antipsychotics on autonomic neurocardiac function: olanzapine, sertindole, and clozapine. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2001; 21(1):8-13.
6. Ahmed I, Dagincourt PG, Miller LG, et al: Possible interaction between fluoxetine and pimozide causing sinus bradycardia. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2008; 28(1):10-12.
7. Aichhorn W, Yazdi K, Kralovec K, et al: Olanzapine plasma concentration in a newborn. *J Psychopharmacol* 2008; 28(1):10-12.
8. Alderman CP & Lee PC: Comment: serotonin syndrome associated with combined sertraline- amitriptyline treatment. *Am J Psychiatry* 1500.
9. Allard S, Sainati S, Roth-Schechter B, et al: Minimal interaction between fluoxetine and multiple-dose zolpidem in humans. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:617-622.
10. Allard S, Sainati S, Roth-Schechter B, et al: Minimal interaction between fluoxetine and multiple-dose zolpidem in humans. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:617-622.
11. Allen MJ, Oliver SD, Newgreen MW, et al: Pharmacodynamic effect of continuous vs intermittent dosing of dofetilid. *Am J Ther* 2000; 53:59-65.
12. Altshuler L, Cohen L, Szuba M, et al: Pharmacologic management of psychiatric illness during pregnancy: Dilemma. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:592-606.
13. Altshuler LL, Cohen L, Szuba M, et al: Pharmacologic Management of psychiatric illness during pregnancy: dilemma. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:592-606.
14. Alwan S, Reefhuis J, Rasmussen SA, et al: Use of selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors in pregnancy and the risk of congenital anomalies. *Am J Epidemiol* 2006; 163(26):2684-2692.
15. Ambresin G, Berney P, Schulz P, et al: Olanzapine excretion into breast milk: A case report. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2000; 20(1):10-12.
16. Amdisen A: Lithium and drug interactions. *Drugs* 1982; 24:133-139.
17. Anon: American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Drugs: Use of psychoactive medication during pregnancy and lactation. *Pediatrics* 2000; 105(4):880-887.
18. Anon: American academy of pediatrics committee on drugs: transfer of drugs and other chemicals into human milk. *Pediatrics* 2000; 105(4):880-887.
19. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:148-150.
20. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:148-150.
21. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:148-150.
22. Aronoff GR, Bergstrom RF, Pottratz ST, et al: Fluoxetine kinetics and protein binding in normal and impaired renal function. *Am J Ther* 1997; 50:10-12.
23. Aubert RE; Stanek EJ; and Yao J: Risk of breast cancer recurrence in women initiating tamoxifen with CYP2D6 inhibitors. *Am J Clin Oncol* 2009. Available from URL: http://www.asco.org/ASCOv2/Meetings/Abstracts?&vmview=abst_detail accessed 2009-06-22.
24. Australian Drug Evaluation Committee: Prescribing medicines in pregnancy: An Australian categorisation of risk of foetal harm. Australian Capital Territory, Australia. 1999. Available from URL: <http://www.tga.gov.au/docs/html/n>
25. Ayd FJ: Clozapine: a unique new neuroleptic. *Int Drug Ther News* 1974; 9:1-12.
26. Bakish D: Fluoxetine potentiation by buspirone: three case histories. *Can J Psychiatry* 1991; 36:749-750.
27. Barbanel DM, Yusufi B, O'Shea D, et al: Mania in a patient receiving testosterone replacement post-orchidectomy. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2000; 20(1):84-86.
28. Barbanel DM, Yusufi B, O'Shea D, et al: Mania in a patient receiving testosterone replacement post-orchidectomy. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2000a; 20(1):84-86.
29. Batagol R (Ed): Australian Drug Evaluation Committee: Medicines in Pregnancy-An Australian categorisation. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, Australia, 1999.
30. Baumann P, Nil R, Souche A, et al: A double-blind, placebo-controlled study of citalopram with and without lithium in patients: a clinical, pharmacokinetic, and pharmacogenetic investigation. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1996; 16:307-311.
31. Baumann P, Nil R, Souche A, et al: A double-blind, placebo-controlled study of citalopram with and without lithium in patients: a clinical, pharmacokinetic, and pharmacogenetic investigation. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1996a; 16:307-311.
32. Bechara CI & Goldman-Levine JD: Dramatic worsening of type 2 diabetes mellitus due to olanzapine after 3 years of treatment. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:448-450.
33. Bell IR & Cole JO: Fluoxetine induces elevation of desipramine level and exacerbation of geriatric nonpsychotic depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:448.
34. Bell IR & Cole JO: Fluoxetine induces elevation of desipramine level and exacerbation of geriatric nonpsychotic depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:448.
35. Benazzi F: Serotonin syndrome with mirtazapine-fluoxetine combination. *Int J Geriatr Psychiatry* 1998; 13(7):495-497.
36. Benazzi F: Urinary retention with fluoxetine-haloperidol combination in a young patient. *Can J Psychiatry* 1996; 41:10-12.
37. Benazzi F: Urinary retention with fluoxetine-haloperidol combination in a young patient. *Can J Psychiatry* 1996a; 41:10-12.
38. Bergstrom RF, Goldberg MJ, Cerimele BJ, et al: Assessment of the potential for a pharmacokinetic interaction between fluoxetine and desipramine. *Ther* 1997; 62:643-651.
39. Bergstrom RF, Goldberg MJ, Cerimele BJ, et al: Assessment of the potential for a pharmacokinetic interaction between fluoxetine and desipramine. *Ther* 1997a; 62:643-651.
40. Bettinger TL, Mendelson SC, & Dorson PG: Olanzapine-induced glucose dysregulation. *Ann Pharmacother* 2000; 34:10-12.
41. Blake LM, Marks RC, & Luchins DJ: Reversible neurologic symptoms with clozapine and lithium. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2000; 20(1):10-12.
42. Blumenthal, M, Busse WR, et al (Eds): The Complete German Commission E Monographs. Berlin, Germany: Springer-Verlag, 1998.

TX, 1998, pp 87-88.

43. Bodkin JA & Teicher MH: Fluoxetine may antagonize the anxiolytic action of buspirone (letter). *J Clin Psychopharm* 1992; 12(1):11-12.
44. Boyer EW & Shannon M: The serotonin syndrome. *N Eng J Med* 2005; 352(11):1112-1120.
45. Boyer WF & Blumhardt CL: The safety profile of paroxetine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1992; 53(suppl 2):61-66.
46. Burch KF & Wells BG: Fluoxetine/norfluoxetine concentrations in human milk. *Pediatr* 1992; 89:677.
47. Burrai C, Bocchetta A, & Del Zompo M: Mania and fluvoxamine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1991; 148:1263.
48. Burrai C, Bocchetta A, & Del Zompo M: Mania and fluvoxamine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1991a; 148:1263.
49. Cai WM, Chen B, Zhou Y, et al: Fluoxetine impairs the CYP2D6-mediated metabolism of propafenone enantiomers. *Thromb Haemostasis* 1999; 66:516-521.
50. Cai WM, Chen B, Zhou Y, et al: Fluoxetine impairs the CYP2D6-mediated metabolism of propafenone enantiomers. *Thromb Haemostasis* 1999a; 66:516-521.
51. Carli M, Anand-Srivastava MB, Molina-Holgado E, et al: Effects of chronic lithium treatments on central dopaminergic targets. *Neurochem Int* 1994; 24:13-22.
52. Centorrino F, Baldessarini RJ, Frankenburg FR, et al: Serum levels of clozapine and norclozapine in patients treated with clozapine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153:820-822.
53. Centorrino F, Baldessarini RJ, Frankenburg FR, et al: Serum levels of clozapine and norclozapine in patients treated with clozapine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1996a; 153:820-822.
54. Centorrino F, Baldessarini RJ, Kando J, et al: Serum concentrations of clozapine and its major metabolites: effects of clozapine. *Psychiatry* 1994; 55:123-125.
55. Centorrino F, Baldessarini RJ, Kando J, et al: Serum concentrations of clozapine and its major metabolites: effects of clozapine. *Psychiatry* 1994a; 55:123-125.
56. Chambers CD, Hernandez-Diaz S, VanMarter LJ, et al: Selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors and risk of persistent depression. *J Med* 2006; 354(6):579-587.
57. Chambers CD, Johnson KA, Dick LM, et al: Birth outcomes in pregnant women taking fluoxetine. *NEJM* 1996; 335(12):1202-1206.
58. Chan BS, Gaudins A, Whyte IM, et al: Serotonin syndrome resulting from drug interactions. *Med J Aust* 1998; 169(12):1700-1701.
59. Chan BS, Gaudins A, Whyte IM, et al: Serotonin syndrome resulting from drug interactions. *Med J Aust* 1998a; 169(12):1700-1701.
60. Chen B & Cardasis W: Delirium induced by lithium and risperidone combination (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1996; 153(12):1669-1670.
61. Chollet CAS & Andreatini R: Effect of bupropion on sexual dysfunction induced by fluoxetine: a case report of hypersexualization. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1996; 57(12):1669-1670.
62. Christensen RC: Adverse interaction of paroxetine and cyproheptadine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1995; 56:433-434.
63. Christensen RC: Adverse interaction of paroxetine and cyproheptadine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1995a; 56:433-434.
64. Chu NS: Sympathetic response to betel chewing. *J Psychoact Drugs* 1995; 27(2):183-186.
65. Claire RJ, Servis ME, & Cram DL: Potential interaction between warfarin sodium and fluoxetine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995; 152(12):1669-1670.
66. Cohen WJ & Cohen NH: Lithium carbonate, haloperidol and irreversible brain damage. *JAMA* 1974; 230:1283-1287.
67. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995; 152(12):1669-1670.
68. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995a; 152(12):1669-1670.
69. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995b; 152(12):1669-1670.
70. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995c; 152(12):1669-1670.
71. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995d; 152(12):1669-1670.
72. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995e; 152(12):1669-1670.
73. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995f; 152(12):1669-1670.
74. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995g; 152(12):1669-1670.
75. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995h; 152(12):1669-1670.
76. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995i; 152(12):1669-1670.
77. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995j; 152(12):1669-1670.
78. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995k; 152(12):1669-1670.
79. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995l; 152(12):1669-1670.
80. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995m; 152(12):1669-1670.
81. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995n; 152(12):1669-1670.
82. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995o; 152(12):1669-1670.
83. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995p; 152(12):1669-1670.
84. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995q; 152(12):1669-1670.
85. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995r; 152(12):1669-1670.
86. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995s; 152(12):1669-1670.
87. Coplan JD & Gorman JM: Detectable levels of fluoxetine metabolites after discontinuation: an unexpected serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1995t; 152(12):1669-1670.
88. Corya SA, Andersen SW, Detke HC, et al: Long-term antidepressant efficacy and safety of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination. *Psychiatry* 2003; 64:1349-1356.
89. Corya SA, Andersen SW, Detke HC, et al: Long-term antidepressant efficacy and safety of olanzapine/fluoxetine combination. *Psychiatry* 2003a; 64:1349-1356.
90. Croke S, Buist A, Hackett LP, et al: Olanzapine excretion in human breast milk: estimation of infant exposure. *Int J Pharm* 1999; 178:1-10.
91. Dalton S, Johansen C, Mellekjoer L, et al: Use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1999; 13:59-64.
92. Dalton S, Johansen C, Mellekjoer L, et al: Use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther* 1999a; 13:59-64.
93. DeVane CL: Pharmacokinetics of the newer antidepressants: clinical relevance. *Am J Med* 1994; 97(suppl 6A):13S-18S.
94. DeVane CL: Pharmacokinetics of the newer antidepressants: clinical relevance. *Am J Med* 1994a; 97(suppl 6A):13S-18S.
95. Deahl M: Betel nut-induced extrapyramidal syndrome: an unusual drug interaction. *Movement Disord* 1989; 4(4):33-34.
96. Deahl M: Betel nut-induced extrapyramidal syndrome: an unusual drug interaction. *Movement Disord* 1989a; 4(4):33-34.

97. Dean CE: Prasterone (DHEA) and mania. *Ann Pharmacother* 2000; 34(12):1419-1422.
98. Dean CE: Prasterone (DHEA) and mania. *Ann Pharmacother* 2000a; 34(12):1419-1422.
99. Dent LA & Orrock MW: Warfarin-fluoxetine and diazepam-fluoxetine interaction. *Pharmacotherapy* 1997; 17:170-171
100. Dent LA & Orrock MW: Warfarin-fluoxetine and diazepam-fluoxetine interaction. *Pharmacotherapy* 1997a; 17:170-171
101. Deshauer D, Albuquerque J, Alda M, et al: Seizures caused by possible interaction between olanzapine and clomipramine (2):283-284.
102. Deshauer D, Albuquerque J, Alda M, et al: Seizures caused by possible interaction between olanzapine and clomipramine (2):283-284.
103. Dingemans J, Wallnofer A, Gieschke R, et al: Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic interactions between fluoxetine and development of the "serotonin syndrome". *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1998; 63:403-413.
104. Downs JM, Downs AD, Rosenthal TL, et al: Increased plasma tricyclic antidepressant concentrations in two patients. *Psychiatry* 1989; 50:226-227.
105. Downs JM, Downs AD, Rosenthal TL, et al: Increased plasma tricyclic antidepressant concentrations in two patients. *Psychiatry* 1989a; 50:226-227.
106. Drake WM & Gordon GD: Heart block in a patient on propranolol and fluoxetine (letter). *Lancet* 1994; 343:425-426.
107. Drake WM & Gordon GD: Heart block in a patient on propranolol and fluoxetine (letter). *Lancet* 1994a; 343:425-426
108. Dubnov-Raz G, Juurlink DN, Fogelman R, et al: Antenatal use of selective serotonin-reuptake inhibitors and QT interval. *Int J Psychiatry Med* 2001; 31(3):e710-e715.
109. Duggal HS & Fatchko J: Serotonin syndrome and atypical antipsychotics. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002; 159(4):672-673.
110. Dursun SM, Mathew VM, & Reveley MA: Toxic serotonin syndrome after fluoxetine plus carbamazepine (letter). *La Lancet* 1994; 343:425-426
111. Dursun SM, Mathew VM, & Reveley MA: Toxic serotonin syndrome after fluoxetine plus carbamazepine (letter). *La Lancet* 1994a; 343:425-426
112. Elko CJ, Burgess JL, & Robertson WO: Zolpidem-associated hallucinations and serotonin reuptake inhibition: a possible mechanism. *Psychopharmacology* 2003; 170(1):103-108
113. Elko CJ, Burgess JL, & Robertson WO: Zolpidem-associated hallucinations and serotonin reuptake inhibition: a possible mechanism. *Psychopharmacology* 2003.
114. Epperson C, Jatlow P, Czarkowski K, et al: Maternal fluoxetine treatment in the postpartum period: effects on placental breast-feeding mother-infant pairs. *Pediatrics* 2003; 112(5):e425-e429.
115. Ernst CL & Goldberg JF: The reproductive safety profile of mood stabilizers, atypical antipsychotics, and broad-spectrum antidepressants. *Pharmacotherapy* 2003; 23(4):42-55.
116. Evans M & Marwick P: Fluvoxamine and lithium: an unusual interaction (letter). *Br J Psychiatry* 1990; 156:286.
117. FDA: Fluoxetine-phenytoin interaction. *FDA Med Bull* 1994; 24(1):3-4.
118. FDA: Fluoxetine-phenytoin interaction. *FDA Med Bull* 1994a; 24(1):3-4.
119. FDA: Fluoxetine-phenytoin interaction. *FDA Med Bull* 1994b; 24(1):3-4.
120. FDA: Fluoxetine-phenytoin interaction. *FDA Med Bull* 1994c; 24(1):3-4.
121. Feder R: Reversal of antidepressant activity of fluoxetine by cyproheptadine in three patients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1999; 60(1):10-12
122. Feder R: Reversal of antidepressant activity of fluoxetine by cyproheptadine in three patients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1999
123. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999; 25(1):1-10
124. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
125. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
126. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
127. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
128. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
129. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
130. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
131. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
132. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
133. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
134. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
135. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
136. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
137. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
138. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
139. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
140. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
141. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
142. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
143. Feighner JP, Boyer WF, Tyler DL, et al: Adverse consequences of fluoxetine-MAOI combination therapy. *Clin Psychopharmacol Ther* 1999
144. Ferslew KE, Hagarorn AN, Harlan GC, et al: A fatal drug interaction between clozapine and fluoxetine. *J Forensic Psychiatry* 2001; 12(1):1-6
145. Fleishaker J, Ryan K, Carel B, et al: Evaluation of the potential pharmacokinetic interaction between almotriptan and fluoxetine. *Pharmacol Ther* 2001; 41:217-223.
146. Fowler JS, Wang GJ, Volkow ND, et al: Evidence that ginkgo biloba extract does not inhibit MAO A and B in living humans. *J Neurochem* 2003; 85(1):103-108
147. Gardiner SJ, Kristensen JH, Begg EJ, et al: Transfer of olanzapine into breast milk, calculation of infant drug dose, and clinical significance. *Pharmacotherapy* 2003; 23(8):1428-1431.
148. Gardos G, Cole JO, Matthews JD, et al: The acute effects of a loading dose of phenylalanine in unipolar depressed patients. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 1992; 6(4):241-247.
149. Gardos G, Cole JO, Matthews JD, et al: The acute effects of a loading dose of phenylalanine in unipolar depressed patients. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 1992a; 6(4):241-247.
150. Gatta B, Rigalleau V, & Gin H+: Diabetic ketoacidosis with olanzapine treatment. *Diabetes Care* 1999; 22:1002-1003
151. George TP & Godleski LS: Possible serotonin syndrome with trazodone addition to fluoxetine (letter). *Biol Psychiatry* 1999; 45(1):103-104

152. George TP & Godleski LS: Possible serotonin syndrome with trazodone addition to fluoxetine (letter). *Biol Psychiatry* 1999; 45(10):1334-1336.
153. Gernaat HBPE, Van De Woude J, & Touw DJ: Fluoxetine and parkinsonism in patients taking carbamazepine (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1999; 60(10):1434-1435.
154. Gernaat HBPE, Van de Woude J, & Touw DJ: Fluoxetine and parkinsonism in patients taking carbamazepine (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1999; 60(10):1434-1435.
155. Gill SS, Bronskill SE, Normand SL, et al: Antipsychotic drug use and mortality in older adults with dementia. *Ann In*
156. Goff DC, Midha KK, Brotman AW, et al: Elevation of plasma concentrations of haloperidol after the addition of fluox
157. Goff DC, Midha KK, Brotman AW, et al: Elevation of plasma concentrations of haloperidol after the addition of fluox
158. Gohn DC & Simmons TW: Polymorphic ventricular tachycardia (torsade de pointes) associated with the use of profl
- 1436.
159. Goldbloom DS & Kennedy SH: Adverse interaction of fluoxetine and cyproheptadine in two patients with bulimia ne
160. Goldbloom DS & Kennedy SH: Adverse interaction of fluoxetine and cyproheptadine in two patients with bulimia ne
161. Goldney RD & Spence ND: Safety of the combination of lithium and neuroleptic drugs. *Am J Psychiatry* 1986; 143(1):100-101.
162. Goldstein D, Corbin L, & Fung M: Olanzapine-exposed pregnancies and lactation: early experience. *J Clin Psychop*
163. Goldstein DJ, Corbin LA, & Fung MC: Olanzapine-exposed pregnancies and lactation: Early experience. *J Clin Psy*
164. Goldstein LE, Sporn J, & Brown S: New-onset diabetes mellitus and diabetic ketoacidosis associated with olanzapi
- 443.
165. Gomberg RF: Interaction between olanzapine and haloperidol (letter). *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1999; 19:272-273.
166. Gomberg RF: Interaction between olanzapine and haloperidol (letter). *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1999a; 19:272-273.
167. Gomez JC, Sacristan JA, Hernandez J, et al: The safety of olanzapine compared with other antipsychotic drugs: re
- patients with schizophrenia (EFESO study). *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000; 61(5):335-343.
168. Gonzalez-Pinto A: Mania and Tramadol-Fluoxetine Combination. *Am J Psychiatry* 2001; 158(6):964-965.
169. Goodnick PJ: Influence of fluoxetine on plasma levels of desipramine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989; 146:552.
170. Goodnick PJ: Influence of fluoxetine on plasma levels of desipramine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989a; 146:552.
171. Gordon JB: SSRIs and St. John's Wort: possible toxicity (letter)? *Am Fam Physician* 1998a; 57:950-951.
172. Gordon JB: SSRIs and St. John's wort: possible toxicity?. *Am Fam Physician* 1998; 57:950-951.
173. Gordon NC, Heller PH, Gear RW, et al: Interactions between fluoxetine and opiate analgesia for postoperative den
174. Gram LF, Hansen MGJ, Sindrup SH, et al: Citalopram: interaction studies with levomepromazine, imipramine, and
175. Gram LF, Hansen MGJ, Sindrup SH, et al: Citalopram: interaction studies with levomepromazine, imipramine, and
176. Greenblatt DJ, Preskorn SH, Cotreau MM, et al: Fluoxetine impairs clearance of alprazolam but not of clonazepam.
177. Greenblatt DJ, Preskorn SH, Cotreau MM, et al: Fluoxetine impairs clearance of alprazolam but not of clonazepam.
178. Grimsley SR, Jann MW, Carter G, et al: Increased carbamazepine plasma concentrations after fluoxetine coadmini
179. Grimsley SR, Jann MW, Carter G, et al: Increased carbamazepine plasma concentrations after fluoxetine coadmini
180. Hall J, Naranjo C, Sproule B, et al: Citalopram and fluoxetine differentially alter alprazolam concentrations (abstract
181. Haller E & Binder RL: Clozapine and seizures. *Am J Psychiatry* 1990; 147:1069-1071.
182. Hanley SP & Hampton JR: Ventricular arrhythmias associated with lidoflazine: side effects observed in a randomiz
183. Hansen TE, Dieter K, & Keepers GA: Interaction of fluoxetine and pentazocine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1990; 147(1):106-107.
184. Hansen TE, Dieter K, & Keepers GA: Interaction of fluoxetine and pentazocine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1990a; 147(1):106-107.
185. Hassaballa HA & Balk RA: Torsade de pointes associated with the administration of intravenous haloperidol. *Am J*
186. Heikkinen T, Ekblad U, Palo P, et al: Pharmacokinetics of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine in pregnancy and lactation. (*Am J Psychiatry* 1999; 156(10):1434-1435).
187. Hiemke C, Peled A, Jabarin M, et al: Fluvoxamine augmentation of olanzapine in chronic schizophrenia: pharmaco
- Psychopharmacol* 2002; 22(5):502-506.
188. Howard JE: Severe psychosis and the adrenal androgens. *Integr Physiol Behav Sci* 1992; 27:209-215.
189. Howard JE: Severe psychosis and the adrenal androgens. *Integr Physiol Behav Sci* 1992a; 27:209-215.
190. Howard JS: Severe psychosis and the adrenal androgens. *Integr Physiol Behav Sci* 1992b; 27(3):209-215.
191. Isenberg KE: Excretion of fluoxetine in human breast milk (letter). *J Clin Psych* 1990; 51:169.
192. Jacoby AG & Wiegman MV: Cardiovascular complications of intravenous vasopressin therapy. *Focus Crit Care* 1999; 19(2):106-107.
193. Jalil P: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and phenytoin: two case reports. *J Neuro*
194. Jalil P: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and phenytoin: two case reports. *J Neuro*
195. Jalil P: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and phenytoin: two case reports. *J Neuro*
196. Jalil P: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and phenytoin: two case reports. *J Neuro*
197. Jenike MA, Baer L, & Buttolph L: Buspirone augmentation of fluoxetine in patients with obsessive compulsive disor
198. Joffe RT & Sokolov STH: Co-administration of fluoxetine and sumatriptan: the Canadian experience. *Acta Psychiat*
199. Katz RJ & Rosenthal M: Adverse interaction of cyproheptadine with serotonergic antidepressants (letter). *J Clin Psy*
200. Katz RJ & Rosenthal M: Adverse interaction of cyproheptadine with serotonergic antidepressants (letter). *J Clin Psy*
201. Keck PE Jr, Strakowski SM, & McElroy SL: The efficacy of atypical antipsychotics in the treatment of depressive sy
- schizophrenia. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000; 61(suppl 3):4-9.
202. Keck PE Jr, Strakowski SM, & McElroy SL: The efficacy of atypical antipsychotics in the treatment of depressive sy
- schizophrenia. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000a; 61(suppl 3):4-9.
203. Keitner GI & Rahman S: Reversible neurotoxicity with combined lithium-haloperidol administration. *J Clin Psychop*
204. Khazan M & Mathis AS: Probable cause of torsades de pointes induced by fluconazole. *Pharmacotherapy* 2002; 22(2):209-210.
205. Kirchheiner J, Berghofer A, & Bolk-Weischedel D: Healthy outcome under olanzapine treatment in a pregnant wom
- (2):78-80.
206. Kirchheiner J, Berghofer A, & Bolk-Weischedel D: Healthy outcome under olanzapine treatment in a pregnant woma
207. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
208. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
209. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
210. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
211. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
212. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau

213. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
214. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
215. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
216. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
217. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
218. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
219. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
220. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
221. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
222. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
223. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
224. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
225. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
226. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
227. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
228. Kline SS, Mauro LS, Scala-Barnett DM, et al: Serotonin syndrome versus neuroleptic malignant syndrome as a cau
229. Kristensen JH, Ilett KF, Hackett LP, et al: Distribution and excretion of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine in human milk. J
230. Kurlan R: Acute parkinsonism induced by the combination of a serotonin reuptake inhibitor and a neuroleptic in adu
13:178-179.
231. Kurlan R: Acute parkinsonism induced by the combination of a serotonin reuptake inhibitor and a neuroleptic in adu
13:178-179.
232. Laine K, Heikkinen T, Ekblad U, et al: Effects of exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors during pregnancy
cord blood monoamine and prolactin concentrations. Arch Gen Psychiatry 2003; 60:720-726.
233. Lamberg L: Safety of antidepressant use in pregnant and nursing women. JAMA 1999; 282(3):222-223.
234. Lande G, Drouin E, Gauthier C, et al: Arrhythmogenic effects of sultopride chlorhydrate: clinical and cellular electro
1992; 11(6):629-35.
235. Lantz MS, Buchalter E, & Giambanco V: St. John's Wort and antidepressant drug interactions in the elderly. J Geri
236. Lantz MS, Buchalter E, & Giambanco V: St. John's Wort and antidepressant drug interactions in the elderly. J Geri
237. Larochelle P, Belanger L, Lemire F, et al: Dose-response effect of propafenone in patients with ventricular arrhythm
238. Lasher TA, Fleishaker JC, Steenwyk RC, et al: Pharmacokinetic pharmacodynamic evaluation of the combined adr
Psychopharmacology 1991; 104:323-327.
239. Lasher TA, Fleishaker JC, Steenwyk RC, et al: Pharmacokinetic pharmacodynamic evaluation of the combined adr
Psychopharmacology 1991a; 104:323-327.
240. Leibovitz A, Bilchinsky T, Gil I, et al: Elevated serum digoxin level associated with coadministered fluoxetine. Arch I
241. Leibovitz A, Bilchinsky T, Gil I, et al: Elevated serum digoxin level associated with coadministered fluoxetine. Arch I
242. Lemberger L, Bergstrom RF, Wolen RL, et al: Fluoxetine: clinical pharmacology and physiologic disposition. J Clin
243. Lemberger L, Bergstrom RF, Wolen RL, et al: Fluoxetine: clinical pharmacology and physiologic disposition. J Clin
244. Lemberger L, Rowe H, Bosomworth JC, et al: The effect of fluoxetine on the pharmacokinetics and psychomotor re
1988; 43:412-419.
245. Lemberger L, Rowe H, Bosomworth JC, et al: The effect of fluoxetine on the pharmacokinetics and psychomotor re
1988a; 43:412-419.
246. Licht RW, Olesen OV, Friis P, et al: Olanzapine serum concentrations lowered by concomitant treatment with carb
20:110-112.
247. Licht RW, Olesen OV, Friis P, et al: Olanzapine serum concentrations lowered by concomitant treatment with carb
2000a; 20:110-112.
248. Lim LM: Olanzapine and pregnancy (letter). Aust NZ J Psychiatry 2001; 35:856-857.
249. Lindenmayer J-P & Patel R: Olanzapine-induced ketoacidosis with diabetes mellitus (letter). Am J Psychiatry 1999;
250. Lindsay J Jr, Smith MA, & Light JA: Torsades de pointes associated with antimicrobial therapy for pneumonia. Che
251. Littrell KH, Johnson CG, Peabody CD, et al: Antipsychotics during pregnancy. Am J Psychiatry 2000; 157(8):1342.
252. Liu Z-Q, Cheng Z-N, Huang S-L, et al: Effect of the CYP2C19 oxidation polymorphism on fluoxetine metabolism in
2001; 52:96-99.
253. Lopez JA, Harold JG, Rosenthal MC, et al: QT prolongation and torsades de pointes after administration of trimeth
59:376-377.
254. Loudon JB & Waring H: Toxic reactions to lithium and haloperidol (letter). Lancet 1976; 2:1088.
255. Lucas RA, Gilfillan DJ, & Bergstrom RF: A pharmacokinetic interaction between carbamazepine and olanzapine: of
Pharmacol 1998; 34:639-643.
256. Maes M, Westenberg H, Vandoolaeghe E, et al: Effects of trazodone and fluoxetine in the treatment of major depre
pharmacodynamic interactions through formation of meta-chlorophenylpiperazine. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1997; 1
257. Maes M, Westenberg H, Vandoolaeghe E, et al: Effects of trazodone and fluoxetine in the treatment of major depre
pharmacodynamic interactions through formation of meta-chlorophenylpiperazine. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1997a;
258. Majewska MD: Neuronal actions of dehydroepiandrosterone: possible roles in brain development, aging, memory a
259. Malm H, Klaukka T, & Neuvonen PJ: Risks Associated With Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors in Pregnancy.
260. Manos G: Possible serotonin syndrome associated with buspirone added to fluoxetine. Ann Pharmacother 2000; 34
261. Manos GH: Possible serotonin syndrome associated with buspirone added to fluoxetine. Ann Pharmacother 2000a
262. Marchiando RJ & Cook MD: Probable terfenadine-fluoxetine-associated cardiac toxicity. Ann Pharmacother 1995; 2
263. Marchiando RJ & Cook MD: Probable terfenadine-fluoxetine-associated cardiac toxicity. Ann Pharmacother 1995a;
264. Markovitz PJ, Stagno SJ, & Calabrese JR: Buspirone augmentation of fluoxetine in obsessive-compulsive disorder.
265. Markowitz JS & DeVane CL: Suspected ciprofloxacin inhibition of olanzapine resulting in increased plasma concen

- 19:289-290.
266. Markowitz JS & DeVane CL: Suspected ciprofloxacin inhibition of olanzapine resulting in increased plasma concen 19:289-290.
267. Markowitz JS, Carson WH, & Jackson CW: Possible dehydroepiandrosterone-induced mania. *Biol Psychiatry* 1999
268. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressants: therapeutic usage, overdose, an 1982; 103:401-414.
269. McKenna K, Levinson AJ, Einarson A et al: Pregnancy outcome in women receiving atypical antipsychotic drugs: A Presented at the American Society for Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics Annual Meeting; Washington, DC,
270. Meltzer H, Bastani B, Jayathilake K, et al: Fluoxetine, but not tricyclic antidepressants, potentiates the 5-hydroxytry and prolactin secretion in subjects with major depression or with obsessive compulsive disorder. *Neuropsychophar*
271. Meltzer H, Bastani B, Jayathilake K, et al: Fluoxetine, but not tricyclic antidepressants, potentiates the 5-hydroxytry and prolactin secretion in subjects with major depression or with obsessive compulsive disorder. *Neuropsychophar*
272. Mendhekar DN, War L, Sharma JB, et al: Olanzapine and pregnancy (case report). *Pharmacopsychiatry* 2002; 35(
273. Metz A & Shader RI: Adverse interactions encountered when using trazodone to treat insomnia associated with flu 194.
274. Michalets EL, Smith LK, & Van Tassel ED: Torsade de pointes resulting from the addition of droperidol to an existir *Pharmacother* 1998; 32:761-765.
275. Michalets EL, Smith LK, & Van Tassel ED: Torsade de pointes resulting from the addition of droperidol to an existir *Pharmacother* 1998a; 32:761-765.
276. Miller F & Menninger J: Correlation of neuroleptic dose and neurotoxicity in patients given lithium and a neuroleptic
277. Morales N & Vermette H: Serotonin syndrome associated with linezolid treatment after discontinuation of fluoxetine
278. Moskowitz H & Burns M: The effects on performance of two antidepressants, alone and in combination with diazep 1988; 12:783-792.
279. Moskowitz H & Burns M: The effects on performance of two antidepressants, alone and in combination with diazep 1988a; 12:783-792.
280. Muly EC, McDonald W, Steffens D, et al: Serotonin syndrome produced by a combination of fluoxetine and lithium
281. Muly EC, McDonald W, Steffens D, et al: Serotonin syndrome produced by a combination of fluoxetine and lithium
282. Nagy A, Tenyi T, Lenard K, et al: Olanzapine and pregnancy (English abstract, Hungarian article). *Orv Hetil* 2001; 1
283. Nebel A, Schneider BJ, Baker RK, et al: Potential metabolic interaction between St. John's Wort and theophylline. *J*
284. Neirenberg AA, Cole JO, & Glass L: Possible trazodone potentiation of fluoxetine: a case series. *J Clin Psychiatry*
285. Nemeroff CB, DeVane CL, & Pollock BG: Newer antidepressants and the cytochrome P450 system. *Am J Psychiat*
286. Nemeroff CB, DeVane CL, & Pollock BG: Newer antidepressants and the cytochrome P450 system. *Am J Psychiat*
287. Nemeroff CB, DeVane CL, & Pollock BG: Newer antidepressants and the cytochrome P450 system. *Am J Psychiat*
288. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalo (letter). *Lancet* 1993; 342:1419.
289. Newport DJ, Calamaras MR, DeVane CL, et al: Atypical antipsychotic administration during late pregnancy: placen *Psychiatry* 2007; 164(8):1214-1220.
290. Noveske FG, Hahn KR, & Flynn RJ: Possible toxicity of combined fluoxetine and lithium (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 19
291. Noveske FG, Hahn KR, & Flynn RJ: Possible toxicity of combined fluoxetine and lithium (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 19
292. Nulman I & Koren G: The safety of fluoxetine during pregnancy and lactation. *Teratology* 1996; 53:304-308.
293. Nulman I, Rovet J, Stewart DE, et al: Child development following exposure to tricyclic antidepressants or fluoxetin study. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002; 159(11):1889-1895.
294. Nulman I, Rovet J, Stewart DE, et al: Neurodevelopment of children exposed in utero to antidepressant drugs. *NEJ*
295. Nutt JG, Rosin A, & Chase TN: Treatment of Huntington disease with a cholinergic agonist. *Neurology* 1978; 28:10
296. Nutt JG, Rosin A, & Chase TN: Treatment of Huntington disease with a cholinergic agonist. *Neurology* 1978a; 28:1
297. Oberg KC & Bauman JL: QT interval prolongation and torsades de pointes due to erythromycin lactobionate. *Pharm*
298. Oberg KC & Bauman JL: QT interval prolongation and torsades de pointes due to erythromycin lactobionate. *Pharm*
299. Ohman R & Spigset O: Serotonin syndrome induced by fluvoxamine-lithium interaction. *Pharmacopsychiatry* 1993;
300. Ohman R & Spigset O: Serotonin syndrome induced by fluvoxamine-lithium interaction. *Pharmacopsychiatry* 1993a
301. Osser DN, Najarian DM, & Dufresne RL: Olanzapine increases weight and serum triglyceride levels. *J Clin Psychia*
302. Otton SV, Wu D, Joffe RT, et al: Inhibition by fluoxetine of cytochrome P450 2D6 activity. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199
303. Otton SV, Wu D, Joffe RT, et al: Inhibition by fluoxetine of cytochrome P450 2D6 activity. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199
304. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacoth*
305. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacoth*
306. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacoth*
307. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacoth*
308. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacoth*
309. Pacher P & Kecskemeti V: Cardiovascular side effects of new antidepressants and antipsychotics: new drugs, old c 2475.
310. Patel NC, Kistler JS, James EB, et al: A retrospective analysis of the short-term effects of olanzapine and quetiapi adolescents. *Pharmacotherapy* 2004; 24(7):823-830.
311. Patterson DE, Braverman SE, & Belandres PV: Speech dysfunction due to trazodone-fluoxetine combination in tra
312. Patterson DE, Braverman SE, & Belandres PV: Speech dysfunction due to trazodone-fluoxetine combination in tra
313. Patton SW, Misri S, Corral MR, et al: Antipsychotic medication during pregnancy and lactation in women with schiz 2002; 47(10):959-965.
314. Pearson HJ: Interaction of fluoxetine with carbamazepine (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1990; 51:126.
315. Pearson HJ: Interaction of fluoxetine with carbamazepine (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1990a; 51:126.
316. Penzak S, Hon Y, Lawhorn W, et al: Influence of ritonavir on olanzapine pharmacokinetics in healthy volunteers. *J*

317. Personal communication.. Medical Information Department, Eli Lilly and Company., 10/25/96.
318. Pollak PT, Sketris IS, MacKenzie SL, et al: Delirium probably induced by clarithromycin in a patient receiving fluoxetine.
319. Pollak PT, Sketris IS, MacKenzie SL, et al: Delirium probably induced by clarithromycin in a patient receiving fluoxetine.
320. Porsolt RD, Roux S, & Drieu K: Evaluation of a ginkgo biloba extract (EGb 761) in functional tests for monoamine oxidase inhibition. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2000; 50:232-235.
321. Prakash R: Lithium-haloperidol combination and brain damage (letter). *Lancet* 1982; 1:1468-1469.
322. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluoxetine.
323. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluoxetine.
324. Preskorn SH, Beber JH, Faul JC, et al: Serious adverse effects of combining fluoxetine and tricyclic antidepressants.
325. Product Information: ABILIFY(R) oral tablets, oral solution, aripiprazole oral tablets, oral solution. Otsuka America Inc., Princeton, NJ, 2002.
326. Product Information: APTIVUS(R) oral capsules, solution, tipranavir oral capsules, solution. Boehringer Ingelheim Inc., Ridgefield, NJ, 2002.
327. Product Information: AZILECT(R) oral tablets, rasagiline oral tablets. Teva Pharmaceuticals, Kfar Saba, Israel, 2002.
328. Product Information: Amerge(TM), naratriptan hydrochloride. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2002.
329. Product Information: Anzemet(R), dolasetron. Hoechst Marion Roussel, Inc., Kansas City, MO, 1997.
330. Product Information: Apidra(TM), insulin glulisine. Aventis Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Kansas City, MO, 2004.
331. Product Information: Aralen(R), chloroquine phosphate. Sanofi Pharmaceuticals, New York, NY, 2001.
332. Product Information: Axert(TM), almotriptan. Pharmacia Corporation, Chicago, IL, 2001.
333. Product Information: BYSTOLIC(TM) oral tablets, nebivolol oral tablets. Forest Laboratories, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2002.
334. Product Information: Buspar(R), buspirone. Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, Princeton, NJ, 1994.
335. Product Information: CELEXA (R) oral tablet, solution, citalopram hydrobromide oral tablet, solution. Forest Laboratories, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2004.
336. Product Information: CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, duloxetine hcl delayed-release oral capsules. Forest Laboratories, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2004.
337. Product Information: Cafergot(R), ergotamine tartrate and caffeine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2002.
338. Product Information: Celexa(R), citalopram hydrobromide. Forest Laboratories, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2004.
339. Product Information: Cerebyx(R), fosphenytoin sodium injection. Parke-Davis, Division of Warner-Lambert, Morris Plains, NJ, 2002.
340. Product Information: Clozaril(R), clozapine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2002.
341. Product Information: Compazine(R), prochlorperazine maleate suspension. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2002.
342. Product Information: Corvert(R), ibutilide fumarate injection. Upjohn Company, Kalamazoo, MI, 1998.
343. Product Information: Coumadin(R), warfarin sodium. DuPont Pharma, Wilmington, DE, 1999.
344. Product Information: DynaCirc(R), isradipine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2000.
345. Product Information: EMSAM(R) transdermal patch, selegiline transdermal patch. Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, Princeton, NJ, 2002.
346. Product Information: EXUBERA(R) inhalation powder inhaler, insulin human [rDNA] inhalation powder inhaler. Pfizer Inc., New York, NY, 2002.
347. Product Information: Effexor(R) XR, venlafaxine. Wyeth-Ayerst Laboratories, Philadelphia, PA, 2000.
348. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999.
349. Product Information: FANAPT(TM) oral tablets, iloperidone oral tablets. Vanda Pharmaceuticals, Rockville, MD, 2002.
350. Product Information: FLOMAX(R) oral capsules, tamsulosin hcl oral capsules. Boehringer Ingelheim Pharmaceuticals, Ridgefield, NJ, 2002.
351. Product Information: Factive(R), gemifloxacin. Genesoft Pharmaceuticals, Seoul, Korea, 2003.
352. Product Information: Foscavir(R), foscarnet. AstraZeneca, Inc., Alexandria, VA, 1998.
353. Product Information: Frova(R), Frovatriptan. Endo Pharmaceuticals Inc., Chadds Ford, PA, 2004.
354. Product Information: Furoxone(R), furazolidone. Roberts Pharmaceutical Corporation, Eatontown, New Jersey, 1998.
355. Product Information: Geodon(R), ziprasidone for injection. Pfizer Inc., New York, NY, 2002.
356. Product Information: Geodon(TM), ziprasidone. Pfizer Inc., New York, NY, 2002.
357. Product Information: Haldol(R), haloperidol decanoate for injection. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceutical Corp., Raritan, NJ, 1998.
358. Product Information: Halfan(R), halofantrine hydrochloride. Research Triangle Park, NC, 1998.
359. Product Information: Hismanal(R), astemizole. Janssen Pharmaceutica Inc., Titusville, NJ, 1998.
360. Product Information: Hismanal(R), astemizole. Janssen Pharmaceutica, Piscataway, NJ, 1996.
361. Product Information: Imitrex(R) Nasal Spray, sumatriptan nasal spray. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 1998.
362. Product Information: Imitrex(R), sumatriptan. Glaxo Wellcome Inc., Research Triangle Park, NC, 1998.
363. Product Information: Imitrex(R), sumatriptan. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2002.
364. Product Information: Inapsine(TM), droperidol. Akorn, Inc., Decatur, IL, 2001.
365. Product Information: LANTUS(R) subcutaneous injection, insulin glargine, recombinant subcutaneous injection. Aventis Pharmaceuticals, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2004.
366. Product Information: LEVEMIR(R) injection, insulin detemir injection. Novo Nordisk Inc, Princeton, NJ, 2005.
367. Product Information: LITHOBID(R) slow-release oral tablets, lithium carbonate slow-release oral tablets. JDS Pharm Inc., Marlborough, MA, USA, 2004.
368. Product Information: LUNESTA(TM), eszopiclone tablets. Sepracor Inc., Marlborough, MA, USA, 2004.
369. Product Information: Lariam(R), mefloquine. Roche Laboratories, Nutley, NJ, 1999.
370. Product Information: Lexapro(TM), escitalopram. Forest Pharmaceuticals, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2003.
371. Product Information: Lorelco(R), probucol. Marion Merrell Dow, Kansas City, MO, 1991.
372. Product Information: METADATE CD(R) extended-release oral capsules, methylphenidate hcl extended-release oral capsules.
373. Product Information: Marplan(R), isocarboxazid. Roche Laboratories Inc., Nutley, NJ, 1998.
374. Product Information: Maxalt(R), rizatriptan benzoate. Merck & Co., Inc., West Point, PA, 1998.
375. Product Information: Maxalt(R), rizatriptan benzoate. Merck & Co., Inc., West Point, PA, 1998a.
376. Product Information: Mellaril(R), thioridazine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2000.
377. Product Information: Meridia(R), sibutramine hydrochloride monohydrate. Knoll Pharmaceutical Company, Mount Pleasant, SC, 2005.
378. Product Information: NOVOLOG(R), insulin aspart (rDNA origin) injection. Novo Nordisk, Inc., Princeton, NJ, 2005.
379. Product Information: Nardil(R), phenelzine. Parke-Davis, Morris Plains, NJ, 1995.
380. Product Information: Norvir(R), zidovudine. Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, IL, 1999.
381. Product Information: Orlaam(R), levomethadyl. Roxane Laboratories, Inc., 2001a.
382. Product Information: Orlaam(R), levomethadyl. Roxane Laboratories, Inc., Columbus, OH, 2001.

383. Product Information: PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, paroxetine hydrochloride oral tablets, suspension. GlaxoSR
384. Product Information: PCE(R), erythromycin particles in tablets. Abbot Laboratories, North Chicago, IL, 1997.
385. Product Information: PLAVIX(R) oral tablet, clopidogrel bisulfate oral tablet. Bristol-Myers Squibb/Sanofi Pharmace
386. Product Information: PRISTIQ(TM) oral extended-release tablets, desvenlafaxine oral extended-release tablets. WJ 2008.
387. Product Information: PROZAC(R) oral capsule, oral pulvule, oral solution, oral tablet, fluoxetine hcl oral capsule, or Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2005.
388. Product Information: PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, fluoxetine oral capsules, delay Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2008.
389. Product Information: PROZAC(R) oral capsules, oral solution, fluoxetine hcl oral capsules, oral solution. Eli Lilly an
390. Product Information: Paxil CR(TM), paroxetine HCl controlled-release tablets. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle
391. Product Information: Paxil CR(TM), paroxetine hydrochloride. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2003.
392. Product Information: Paxil(R), paroxetine hydrochloride. SmithKline Beecham Pharmaceuticals, Philadelphia, PA, 1
393. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine hydrochloride. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2003.
394. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999.
395. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999a.
396. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999b.
397. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999c.
398. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999d.
399. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999e.
400. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999f.
401. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999g.
402. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999h.
403. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999i.
404. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999j.
405. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999k.
406. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999l.
407. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001.
408. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001a.
409. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001aa.
410. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ab.
411. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ac.
412. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ad.
413. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ae.
414. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001af.
415. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ag.
416. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ah.
417. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001ai.
418. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001b.
419. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001c.
420. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001d.
421. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001e.
422. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001f.
423. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001g.
424. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001h.
425. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001i.
426. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001j.
427. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001k.
428. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001l.
429. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001m.
430. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001n.
431. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001o.
432. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001p.
433. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001q.
434. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001r.
435. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001s.
436. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001t.
437. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001u.
438. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001v.
439. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001w.
440. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001x.
441. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001y.
442. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001z.
443. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2003a.
444. Product Information: Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), quinidine gluconate. Berlex Laboratories, Wayne, NJ, 1999.
445. Product Information: Quinaglute Dura-tabs(R), quinidine gluconate. Berlex Laboratories, Wayne, NJ, 1999a.
446. Product Information: RAZADYNE(R) ER extended release oral capsules, oral tablets, oral solution, galantamine hB oral solution. Ortho-McNeil Neurologics, Inc, Titusville, NJ, 2007.

447. Product Information: RISPERDAL(R) oral tablets, oral solution, orally disintegrating tablets, risperidone oral tablets, Janssen,LP, Titusville, NJ, 2008.
448. Product Information: Redux(R), dexfenfluramine hydrochloride. Wyeth Laboratories Inc, Lexington MA, 1997.
449. Product Information: Relpax(R), eletriptan hydrobromide. Pfizer Inc., New York City, NY, 2003.
450. Product Information: Rescriptor(R), delavirdine. Pharmacia & Upjohn Company, Kalamazoo, MI, 1999.
451. Product Information: SAVELLA(R) oral tablets, milnacipran HCL oral tablets. Forest Pharmaceuticals, St Louis, MO
452. Product Information: SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule , olanzapine and fluoxetine hydrochloride oral capsule . Eli Lilly an
453. Product Information: SYMBYAX(R) oral capsule, olanzapine and fluoxetine hydrochloride oral capsule. Eli Lilly and
454. Product Information: SYMBYAX(R) oral capsules, olanzapine, fluoxetine hcl oral capsules. Eli Lilly and Company, I
455. Product Information: Sandostatin(R), octreotide. Novartis Pharmaceuticals, East Hanover, NJ, 1999.
456. Product Information: Sarafem(TM), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2002.
457. Product Information: Seldane(R), terfenadine. Product Information: Seldane(R), terfenadine. Hoechst Marion Rous
458. Product Information: Serentil(R), mesoridazine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2000.
459. Product Information: Solian(R), amisulpride tablets. Lorex Synthelabo, Maidenhead, Berkshire, UK, 1999.
460. Product Information: Stelazine(R), trifluoperazine hydrochloride. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 20
461. Product Information: Strattera(TM), atomoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2002.
462. Product Information: Symbyax(TM), olanzapine and fluoxetine capsules. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2C
463. Product Information: Symbyax(TM), olanzapine and fluoxetine capsules. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2C
464. Product Information: Symbyax(TM), olanzapine and fluoxetine capsules. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2C
465. Product Information: TORADOL(R) oral tablets, ketorolac tromethamine oral tablets. Roche Laboratories Inc, Nutle
466. Product Information: Tambocor(R) flecainide acetate. 3M Pharmaceuticals, Northridge, CA, 1998.
467. Product Information: Thorazine(R), chlorpromazine. Smithkline Beecham Pharmaceuticals, Philadelphia, PA, 2002.
468. Product Information: Tikosyn(TM) dofetilide capsules. Pfizer Inc, New York, NY, 1999.
469. Product Information: Trisenox(R), arsenic trioxide injection. Cell Therapeutics Inc., Seattle, WA, 2001.
470. Product Information: Trisenox(R), arsenic trioxide. Cell Therapeutics, Inc., Seattle, WA, 2001a.
471. Product Information: ULTRAM(R)ER extended-release oral tablets, tramadol hcl extended-release oral tablets. PriC
472. Product Information: Ultram(R), tramadol hydrochloride. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceutical, Raritan, NJ, 2001.
473. Product Information: Vascor(R), bepridil. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceuticals, Raritan, NJ, 2000.
474. Product Information: Wellbutrin XL(TM), bupropion hydrochloride extended-release tablets. GlaxoSmithKline, Rese
475. Product Information: XENAZINE(R) oral tablets, tetrabenazine oral tablets. Prestwick Pharmaceuticals, Inc, Washin
476. Product Information: ZYPREXA(R) oral tablets, IM injection, ZYPREXA(R) ZYDIS(R) orally disintergating tablets, ol disintergating tablets. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2008.
477. Product Information: ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, linezolid IV injection, oral tablets, oral su
478. Product Information: Zomig(R), zolmitriptan. AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals LP, Wilmington, DE, 2003.
479. Product Information: Zomig(R), zolmitriptan. AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals, LP, Wilmington, DE, 2001.
480. Product Information: Zyban(R), bupropion hydrochloride. Glaxo Wellcome Inc., Research Triangle Park, NC, 2000.
481. Product Information: Zyprexa(R), olanzapine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999a.
482. Product Information: Zyprexa(R), olanzapine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999.
483. Product Information: Zyprexa(R), olanzapine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999b.
484. Product Information: Zyprexa(R), olanzapine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999c.
485. Product Information: Zyprexa(R), olanzapine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 1999d.
486. Product Information: tapentadol immediate release oral tablets, tapentadol immediate release oral tablets. Ortho-M 2008.
487. Prozac package insert (Lilly—US). Issued Rev 6/97, Rec 11/97., 12/30/87.
488. Ramankutty G: Olanzapine-induced destabilization of diabetes in the absence of weight gain. *Acta Psychiatr Scand*
489. Ramassamy C, Christen Y, Clostre F, et al: The Ginkgo biloba extract, EGb761, increases synaptosomal uptake of studies. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 1992; 44:943-945.
490. Reeves RR & Bullen JA: Serotonin syndrome produced by paroxetine and low-dose trazodone (letter). *Psychosom*
491. Reeves RR & Bullen JA: Serotonin syndrome produced by paroxetine and low-dose trazodone (letter). *Psychosom*
492. Riesenman C: Antidepressant drug interactions and the cytochrome P450 system: a critical appraisal. *Pharmacoth*
493. Riesenman C: Antidepressant drug interactions and the cytochrome P450 system: a critical appraisal. *Pharmacoth*
494. Riesenman C: Antidepressant drug interactions and the cytochrome P450 system: a critical appraisal. *Pharmacoth*
495. Riesenman C: Antidepressant drug interactions and the cytochrome P450 system: a critical appraisal. *Pharmacoth*
496. Salama AA & Shafey M: A case of severe lithium toxicity induced by combined fluoxetine and lithium carbonate (let
497. Salama AA & Shafey M: A case of severe lithium toxicity induced by combined fluoxetine and lithium carbonate (let
498. Sandyk R & Hurwitz MD: Toxic irreversible encephalopathy induced by lithium carbonate and haloperidol. *S Afr Me*
499. Schalekamp T, Klungel OH, Souverein PC, et al: Increased bleeding risk with concurrent use of selective serotonin Med 2008; 168(2):180-185.
500. Schenck CH & Mahowald MW: Potential hazard of serotonin syndrome associated with dexfenfluramine hydrochlor
501. Schenck CH & Mahowald MW: Potential hazard of serotonin syndrome associated with dexfenfluramine hydrochlor 1221.
502. Schmider J, Greenblatt DJ, von Moltke LL, et al: Inhibition of CYP2C9 by selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors in v *Clin Pharmacol* 1997; 44:495-498.
503. Schneeweiss S, Setoguchi S, Brookhart A, et al: Risk of death associated with the use of conventional versus atypi *CMAJ* 2007; 176(5):627-632.
504. Seaburg HL, McLendon BM, & Doraiswamy PM: Olanzapine-associated severe hyperglycemia, ketonuria, and acic *Pharmacotherapy* 2001; 21(11):1448-1454.

505. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: Drug-drug interaction in reverse: possible loss of phenytoin efficacy as a result of fluoxetine 1999; 19:471-472.

506. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: Drug-drug interaction in reverse: possible loss of phenytoin efficacy as a result of fluoxetine 1999a; 19:471-472.

507. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: Drug-drug interaction in reverse: possible loss of phenytoin efficacy as a result of fluoxetine 1999b; 19:471-472.

508. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: Drug-drug interaction in reverse: possible loss of phenytoin efficacy as a result of fluoxetine 1999c; 19:471-472.

509. Sheitman BB, Bird PM, Binz W, et al: Olanzapine-induced elevation of plasma triglyceride levels. *Am J Psychiatry* 1999; 156:1007-1010.

510. Shen WW: Cytochrome P450 monooxygenases and interactions of psychotropic drugs: a five-year update. *Int J Ps*

511. Shen WW: Cytochrome P450 monooxygenases and interactions of psychotropic drugs: a five-year update. *Int J Ps*

512. Singer A, Wonnemann M, & Muller WE: Hyperforin, a major antidepressant constituent of St. John's wort, inhibits sodium channels. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1999; 290(3):1361-1368.

513. Skop BP, Brown TM, & Mareth TR: The serotonin syndrome associated with paroxetine. *Am J Emerg Med* 1995; 10:100-101.

514. Skop BP, Finkelstein JA, Mareth TR, et al: The serotonin syndrome associated with paroxetine, an over-the-counter antidepressant. *Emerg Med* 1994; 12:642-644.

515. Skop BP, Finkelstein JA, Mareth TR, et al: The serotonin syndrome associated with paroxetine, an over-the-counter antidepressant. *Emerg Med* 1994a; 12:642-644.

516. Sloley BD, Urichik LJ, Morley P, et al: Identification of kaempferol as a monoamine oxidase inhibitor and potential neuroprotectant. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 2000; 52:451-459.

517. Spina E, Avenoso A, Facciola G, et al: Effect of fluoxetine on the plasma concentrations of clozapine and its major metabolite. *Clin Psychopharmacol* 1998; 13:141-145.

518. Spina E, Avenoso A, Facciola G, et al: Effect of fluoxetine on the plasma concentrations of clozapine and its major metabolite. *Clin Psychopharmacol* 1998a; 13:141-145.

519. Spina E, Avenoso A, Pollicino AM, et al: Carbamazepine coadministration with fluoxetine and fluvoxamine. *Ther Dr*

520. Spina E, Avenoso A, Pollicino AM, et al: Carbamazepine coadministration with fluoxetine and fluvoxamine. *Ther Dr*

521. Spina E, Avenoso A, Scordo M, et al: Inhibition of risperidone metabolism by fluoxetine in patients with schizophrenia. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2002; 22(4):419-423.

522. Spina E, Avenoso A, Scordo M, et al: Inhibition of risperidone metabolism by fluoxetine in patients with schizophrenia. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2002a; 22(4):419-423.

523. Spinella M & Eaton LA: Hypomania induced by herbal and pharmaceutical psychotropic medicines following mild treatment. *Psychopharmacol* (4):359-367.

524. Spinella M & Eaton LA: Hypomania induced by herbal and pharmaceutical psychotropic medicines following mild treatment. *Psychopharmacol* (4):359-367.

525. Spinella M & Eaton LA: Hypomania induced by herbal and pharmaceutical psychotropic medicines following mild treatment. *Psychopharmacol* (4):359-367.

526. Spinella M & Eaton LA: Hypomania induced by herbal and pharmaceutical psychotropic medicines following mild treatment. *Psychopharmacol* (4):359-367.

527. Spring GK: Neurotoxicity with the combined use of lithium and thioridazine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1979; 40:135-138.

528. Stein MH: Tardive dyskinesia in a patient taking haloperidol and fluoxetine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1991; 148:683.

529. Stein MH: Tardive dyskinesia in a patient taking haloperidol and fluoxetine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1991a; 148:683.

530. Steinberg M & Morin AK: Mild serotonin syndrome associated with concurrent linezolid and fluoxetine. *Am J Health*

531. Steiner W & Fontaine R: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and L-tryptophan: five cases. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1991; 11:1071.

532. Steiner W & Fontaine R: Toxic reaction following the combined administration of fluoxetine and L-tryptophan: five cases. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1991; 11:1071.

533. Sternbach H: Danger of MAOI therapy after fluoxetine withdrawal (letter). *Lancet* 1988; 2:850-851.

534. Sternbach H: Danger of MAOI therapy after fluoxetine withdrawal (letter). *Lancet* 1988a; 2:850-851.

535. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991; 148:705-713.

536. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991a; 148:705-713.

537. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991b; 148:705-713.

538. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991c; 148:705-713.

539. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991d; 148:705-713.

540. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991e; 148:705-713.

541. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991f; 148:705-713.

542. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991g; 148:705-713.

543. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991h; 148:705-713.

544. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991i; 148:705-713.

545. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991j; 148:705-713.

546. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991k; 148:705-713.

547. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991l; 148:705-713.

548. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991m; 148:705-713.

549. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991n; 148:705-713.

550. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991o; 148:705-713.

551. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991p; 148:705-713.

552. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991q; 148:705-713.

553. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991r; 148:705-713.

554. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991s; 148:705-713.

555. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991t; 148:705-713.

556. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991u; 148:705-713.
557. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991v; 148:705-713.
558. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991w; 148:705-713.
559. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991x; 148:705-713.
560. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991y; 148:705-713.
561. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991z; 148:705-713.
562. Stevens JC & Wrighton SA: Interaction of the enantiomers of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine with human liver cytochrome P-450 2D6. *Drug Metabolism and Pharmacokinetics* 1991; 10:971-974.
563. Stevens JC & Wrighton SA: Interaction of the enantiomers of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine with human liver cytochrome P-450 2D6. *Drug Metabolism and Pharmacokinetics* 1991; 10:971-974.
564. Stevens JC & Wrighton SA: Interaction of the enantiomers of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine with human liver cytochrome P-450 2D6. *Drug Metabolism and Pharmacokinetics* 1991; 10:971-974.
565. Stevenson RN, Blanshard C, & Patterson DLH: Ventricular fibrillation due to lithium withdrawal - an interaction with digoxin. *Br J Psychiatry* 1988; 153:938-939.
566. Stoll AL, Cole JO, & Lukas SE: A case of mania as a result of fluoxetine-marijuana interaction. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:19-21.
567. Stoll AL, Cole JO, & Lukas SE: A case of mania as a result of fluoxetine-marijuana interaction. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:19-21.
568. Straker D, Mendelowitz A, Karlin L, et al: Near fatal ketoacidosis with olanzapine treatment (letter). *Psychosomatics* 1991; 32:100-101.
569. Stramba-Badiale M, Nador F, Porta N, et al: QT interval prolongation and risk of life-threatening arrhythmias during neonates. *Am Heart J* 1997; 133:108-111.
570. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990; 35:571-572.
571. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990a; 35:571-572.
572. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990b; 35:571-572.
573. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990c; 35:571-572.
574. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990d; 35:571-572.
575. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990e; 35:571-572.
576. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990f; 35:571-572.
577. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990g; 35:571-572.
578. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990h; 35:571-572.
579. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990i; 35:571-572.
580. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990j; 35:571-572.
581. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990k; 35:571-572.
582. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990l; 35:571-572.
583. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990m; 35:571-572.
584. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990n; 35:571-572.
585. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990o; 35:571-572.
586. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990p; 35:571-572.
587. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990q; 35:571-572.
588. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990r; 35:571-572.
589. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990s; 35:571-572.
590. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990t; 35:571-572.
591. Suchowersky O & de Vries JD: Interaction of fluoxetine and selegiline (letter). *Can J Psychiatry* 1990u; 35:571-572.
592. Sweetman S (Ed): *Martindale: The Complete Drug Reference*. London: Pharmaceutical Press. Electronic version, 11th Edition expires 06/2003.
593. Swerdlow NR & Andia AM: Trazodone-fluoxetine combination for treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1993; 150:1404-1405.
594. Swims MP: Potential terfenadine-fluoxetine interaction. *Ann Pharmacother* 1993; 27:1404-1405.
595. Swims MP: Potential terfenadine-fluoxetine interaction. *Ann Pharmacother* 1993a; 27:1404-1405.
596. Taddio A, Ito S, & Koren G: Excretion of fluoxetine and its metabolite, norfluoxetine, in human breast milk. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1991; 11:100-101.
597. Tanquary J & Masand P: Paradoxical reaction to buspirone augmentation of fluoxetine (letter). *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1991; 11:100-101.
598. Tate JL: Extrapyramidal symptoms in a patient taking haloperidol and fluoxetine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989; 146:1612-1613.
599. Tate JL: Extrapyramidal symptoms in a patient taking haloperidol and fluoxetine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989a; 146:1612-1613.
600. Taylor JJ, Wilson JW, & Estes LL: Linezolid and serotonergic drug interactions: a retrospective survey. *Clin Infect Dis* 2003; 36:1079-1088.
601. Thiede HM & Walper A: Inhibition of MAO and COMT by hypericum extracts and hypericin. *J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol* 1991; 4:134-135.
602. Thomas CJ: Brain damage with lithium/haloperidol (letter). *Br J Psychiatry* 1979; 134:552.
603. Thomas CR, Rosenberg M, Blythe V, et al: Serotonin syndrome and linezolid. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 2003; 42:1079-1088.
604. Tissot TA: Probable meperidine-induced serotonin syndrome in a patient with a history of fluoxetine use. *Anesthesiology* 2003; 60(11):1079-1088.
605. Tohen M, Vieta E, Calabrese J, et al: Efficacy of olanzapine and olanzapine-fluoxetine combination in the treatment of bipolar mania. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2003; 60(11):1079-1088.
606. Tollefson GD, Beasley CM Jr, Tran PV, et al: Olanzapine versus haloperidol in the treatment of schizophrenia and schizoaffective disorder: results of an international collaborative trial. *Am J Psychiatry* 1997; 154:457-465.
607. Torrey EF & Swallow CI: Fatal olanzapine-induced ketoacidosis. *Am J Psychiatry* 2003; 160:2241.
608. US Food and Drug Administration: 5-Hydroxytryptamine Receptor Agonists (Triptans) Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors (SSRIs) Serotonin Syndrome. US Food and Drug Administration. Rc <http://www.fda.gov/medwatch/safety/2006/safety06.htm#Triptans>.
609. US Food and Drug Administration: Worsening depression and suicidality in patients being treated with antidepressants. US Food and Drug Administration. Rockville. 2004. Available from URL: <http://www.fda.gov/cder/drug/antidepressants>.
610. Varriale P: Fluoxetine (Prozac(R)) as a cause of QT prolongation (letter). *Arch Intern Med* 2001b; 161:612.
611. Varriale P: Fluoxetine (Prozac) as a cause of QT prolongation (Letter). *Arch Intern Med* 2001; 161:612.
612. Varriale P: Fluoxetine (Prozac) as a cause of QT prolongation (Letter). *Arch Intern Med* 2001a; 161:612.

613. Waksman JC, Heard K, Jolliff H, et al: Serotonin syndrome associated with the use of St. John's Wort (*Hypericum* § *Toxicol* 2000; 38(5):521.
614. Waksman JC, Heard K, Jolliff H, et al: Serotonin syndrome associated with the use of St. John's Wort (*Hypericum* § *Toxicol* 2000a; 38(5):521.
615. Wallerstedt SM, Glerup H, Sundstrom A, et al: Risk of clinically relevant bleeding in warfarin-treated patients-*Influe Drug Saf* 2009; 18(5):412-416.
616. Walley T, Pirmohamed M, Proudlove C, et al: Interaction of metoprolol and fluoxetine. *Lancet* 1993; 341:967-968.
617. Walley T, Pirmohamed M, Proudlove C, et al: Interaction of metoprolol and fluoxetine. *Lancet* 1993a; 341:967-968.
618. Wassmann S, Nickenig G, & Bohm M: Long QT syndrome and torsade de pointes in a patient receiving fluconazole
619. White HL, Scates PW, & Cooper BR: Extracts of ginkgo biloba leaves inhibit monoamine oxidase. *Life Sci* 1996; 58
620. Wilner KD, Lazar JD, Von Deutsch DA, et al: The effects of sertraline on steady-state lithium levels and renal clear
621. Wisner KA, Gelenberg AJ, & Leonard H: Pharmacologic treatment of depression during pregnancy. *JAMA* 1999; 28
622. Woods DJ, Coulter DM, & Pillans P: Interaction of phenytoin and fluoxetine. *N Z Med J* 1994; 107:19.
623. Woods DJ, Coulter DM, & Pillans P: Interaction of phenytoin and fluoxetine. *N Z Med J* 1994a; 107:19.
624. Woolfrey S, Gammack NS, & Brown PJE: Fluoxetine-warfarin interaction. *Br Med J* 1993; 307:241.
625. Young JB, Vandermolen LA, & Pratt CM: Torsade de pointes: an unusual manifestation of chloral hydrate poisoning
626. Zall H, Therman PG, & Myers JM: Lithium carbonate: a clinical study. *Am J Psychiatry* 1968; 125:549-555.
627. Zyprexa package insert (Eli Lilly—US). *Rev Rec* 10/96., 9/96.
628. de Jong J, Hoogenboom B, van Troostwijk L, et al: Interaction of olanzapine with fluvoxamine. *Psychopharmacolog*

Last Modified: June 26, 2009

© 1974- 2009 Thomson Reuters. All rights reserved.

DRUGDEX® Consults**RECOMMENDATION, EVIDENCE AND EFFICACY RATINGS****RESPONSE**

The Thomson Efficacy, Strength of Evidence and Strength of Recommendation definitions are outlined below:

Table 1. Strength Of Recommendation		
Class I	Recommended	The given test or treatment has been proven to be useful, and should be performed or administered.
Class IIa	Recommended, In Most Cases	The given test, or treatment is generally considered to be useful, and is indicated in most cases.
Class IIb	Recommended, In Some Cases	The given test, or treatment may be useful, and is indicated in some, but not most, cases.
Class III	Not Recommended	The given test, or treatment is not useful, and should be avoided.
Class Indeterminant	Evidence Inconclusive	

Table 2. Strength Of Evidence	
Category A	Category A evidence is based on data derived from: Meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials with homogeneity with regard to the directions and degrees of results between individual studies. Multiple, well-done randomized clinical trials involving large numbers of patients.
Category B	Category B evidence is based on data derived from: Meta-analyses of randomized controlled trials with conflicting conclusions with regard to the directions and degrees of results between individual studies. Randomized controlled trials that involved small numbers of patients or had significant methodological flaws (e.g., bias, drop-out rate, flawed analysis, etc.). Nonrandomized studies (e.g., cohort studies, case-control studies, observational studies).
Category C	Category C evidence is based on data derived from: Expert opinion or consensus, case reports or case series.
No Evidence	

Table 3. Efficacy		
Class I	Effective	Evidence and/or expert opinion suggests that a given drug treatment for a specific indication is effective
Class IIa	Evidence Favors Efficacy	Evidence and/or expert opinion is conflicting as to whether a given drug treatment for a specific indication is effective, but the weight of evidence and/or expert opinion favors efficacy.
Class IIb	Evidence is Inconclusive	Evidence and/or expert opinion is conflicting as to whether a given drug treatment for a specific indication is effective, but the weight of evidence and/or expert opinion argues against efficacy.
Class III	Ineffective	Evidence and/or expert opinion suggests that a given drug treatment for a specific indication is ineffective.

Subject: RE: Updated DRUGDEX Monographs
From: "Torgerson, James E." <JETORGERSON@stoel.com>
Date: Sun, 14 Mar 2010 09:02:49 -0700
To: "Jim Gottstein" <jim.gottstein@psychrights.org>

Hi Jim:

I will pass your request on to my client and get back to you with its response as soon as I have it.

Regards,

Jim

From: Jim Gottstein [mailto:jim.gottstein@psychrights.org]
Sent: Saturday, March 13, 2010 12:24 PM
To: Torgerson, James E.
Cc: Jim Gottstein
Subject: Updated DRUGDEX Monographs

Hi Jim,

I am working on a motion for a preliminary injunction I expect to file shortly after everyone's responses to the complaint are in and in working through that it has become apparent the most recent DRUGDEX® monographs are extremely relevant. For example, the FDA approved Seroquel and Zyprexa for limited pediatric uses on December 4, 2009, which is not reflected in the DRUGDEX monographs I have. The injunction which I will be seeking would, of course, not prohibit causing or presenting claims to Medicaid for those newly approved indications. Additions to medically accepted indications as a result of new FDA approval is easy enough for me to pick up, but DRUGDEX also updates its monographs pertaining to indications that have not received FDA approval.

It seems likely the judge would order your client to provide them in the context of the motion for preliminary injunction and I can certainly subpoena them to a hearing (subject to your possible objection), but I would prefer not to have to go to the court. Therefore, I am writing to ask if your client would voluntarily provide me with copies of the most recent monographs, and updates as they occur, for the drugs included in the [Medically Accepted Indications Chart](#), plus the following drugs which I intend to add to the chart:

- alprazolam (Xanax®)
- Clonazepam (Klonopin®)
- clorazepate (Tranxene®)
- diazepam (Valium®)
- flurazepam (Dalmane®)
- lorazepam (Ativan®)

- temazepam (Restoril[®])
- zaleplon (Sonata[®])
- Zolpidem (Ambien[®])

Granting me access to DRUGDEX would certainly be acceptable to me and presumably easier for your client, but I know your client closely guards access to DRUGDEX.

Perhaps your client can grant me access to just the drugs of interest. Again, these would be the drugs included in the [Medically Accepted Indications Chart](#) as well as those listed above.

Please let me know.

--

James B. (Jim) Gottstein, Esq.
President/CEO

Law Project for Psychiatric Rights
406 G Street, Suite 206
Anchorage, Alaska 99501
USA
Phone: (907) 274-7686 Fax: (907) 274-9493
jim.gottstein[at]psychrights.org
<http://psychrights.org/>

PsychRights[®]
Law Project for
Psychiatric Rights

The Law Project for Psychiatric Rights is a public interest law firm devoted to the defense of people facing the horrors of forced psychiatric drugging. We are further dedicated to exposing the truth about these drugs and the courts being misled into ordering people to be drugged and subjected to other brain and body damaging interventions against their will. Extensive information about this is available on our web site, <http://psychrights.org/>. Please donate generously. Our work is fueled with your IRS 501(c) tax deductible donations. Thank you for your ongoing help and support.