

DRUGDEX® Evaluations**IMIPRAMINE****0.0 Overview****1) Class**

- a) This drug is a member of the following class(es):

Antidepressant
Antidepressant, Tricyclic
Urinary Enuresis Agent

2) Dosing Information**a) Imipramine Hydrochloride****1) Adult****a) Depression**

- 1)** (hospitalized patients) 100 mg ORALLY per day in divided doses; may increase up to a MAX of 300 mg/day (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)
2) (outpatients) 75 mg ORALLY per day; may increase up to a MAX of 200 mg/day; usual maintenance dose 75 mg/day (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005).

b) Panic disorder

- 1)** 100-200 mg ORALLY in divided doses (1-3 doses per day), higher doses may be required if agoraphobia is present

c) Urinary incontinence

- 1)** 25 mg ORALLY at bedtime, may increase in 25 mg increments to max dose of 150mg at bedtime

2) Pediatric

- a)** safety and effectiveness in children with nocturnal enuresis below the age of 6 years have not been established; effectiveness in pediatric patients for any other condition has not been established (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)

1) Nocturnal enuresis

- a)** (children 6 to 12 y) initial, 25 mg ORALLY 1 h before bedtime, may increase in 25 mg increments to 50 mg/d or 2.5 mg/kg/d (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)
b) (children over 12 y) initial, 25 mg ORALLY 1 h before bedtime, may increase in 25 mg increments to 75 mg/d or 2.5 mg/kg/d (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)

b) Imipramine Pamoate**1) Adult****a) Depression**

- 1)** (hospitalized patients) initial, 100 to 150 mg ORALLY once daily at bedtime; may increase up to MAX usual maintenance dose, 75 to 150 mg ORALLY once daily at bedtime (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005)
2) (outpatients) 75 mg ORALLY once daily at bedtime; may increase up to a max of 200 mg/day; usual maintenance dose 75 to 150 mg ORALLY once daily at bedtime (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005)

b) Panic disorder

- 1)** 100-200 mg/day ORALLY in divided doses (1-3 doses per day), higher doses may be required if agoraphobia is present

2) Pediatric

- a)** safety and effectiveness have not been established in children (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005)

3) Contraindications**a) Imipramine Hydrochloride**

- 1)** coadministration with a MAOI or use within 14 days of discontinuing a MAOI; may cause serious reactions (eg hypertensive crisis, convulsive seizures, death) (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
2) hypersensitivity to dibenzazepines; risk of cross-sensitivity reactions (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
3) hypersensitivity to imipramine hydrochloride (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
4) myocardial infarction, during the acute recovery period (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)

b) Imipramine Pamoate

- 1)** coadministration with an MAOI or use within 14 days of discontinuing an MAOI; may cause serious reactions (eg hypertensive crisis, severe convulsive seizures, death) (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
2) hypersensitivity to dibenzazepines; risk of cross-sensitivity reactions (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
3) hypersensitivity to imipramine pamoate (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
4) myocardial infarction, during the acute recovery period (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

4) Serious Adverse Effects**a) Imipramine Hydrochloride**

- 1)** Agranulocytosis
2) Atrioventricular conduction pattern - finding
3) Cardiac dysrhythmia
4) Cerebrovascular accident
5) Decreased liver function
6) Depression, worsening
7) Heart block
8) Hypertension
9) Jaundice

- 10) Myocardial infarction
- 11) Orthostatic hypotension
- 12) Palpitations
- 13) Psychotic disorder
- 14) Seizure
- 15) Suicidal thoughts
- 16) Suicide
- 17) Syncope
- b) Imipramine Pamoate
 - 1) Agranulocytosis
 - 2) Atrioventricular conduction pattern - finding
 - 3) Cardiac dysrhythmia
 - 4) Cardiac dysrhythmia
 - 5) Cerebrovascular accident
 - 6) Decreased liver function
 - 7) Depression, worsening
 - 8) Hypertension
 - 9) Jaundice
 - 10) Myocardial infarction
 - 11) Orthostatic hypotension
 - 12) Seizure
 - 13) Suicidal thoughts
 - 14) Suicide
 - 15) Syncope
- 5) Clinical Applications
 - a) Imipramine Hydrochloride
 - 1) FDA Approved Indications
 - a) Depression
 - b) Nocturnal enuresis
 - 2) Non-FDA Approved Indications
 - a) Panic disorder
 - b) Urinary incontinence
 - b) Imipramine Pamoate
 - 1) FDA Approved Indications
 - a) Depression
 - 2) Non-FDA Approved Indications
 - a) Panic disorder

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
- B) Synonyms
 - Imipramine
 - Imipramine HCl
 - Imipramine Hydrochloride
 - Imipramine Pamoate

1.2 Storage and Stability

- A) Oral route
 - 1) Store between 59 and 86 degrees F (15 to 30 degrees C) (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995).
- B) Parenteral route
 - 1) Store between 59 to 86 degrees F (15 to 30 degrees C). Upon storing, minute crystals may form; this has no ir drug's therapeutic efficacy. Crystals will dissolve when the ampul is immersed in hot water (Prod Info Tofranil(R), al, 1994; Trissel, 1994).

1.3 Adult Dosage

Normal Dosage

Dosage in Renal Failure

Dosage in Geriatric Patients

Dosage Adjustment During Dialysis

Dosage in Other Disease States

1.3.1 Normal Dosage

Imipramine

Imipramine Hydrochloride

Imipramine Pamoate

1.3.1.A Imipramine

1.3.1.A.1 Cataplexy - Narcolepsy

See Drug Consult reference: NARCOLEPSY AND CATAPLEXY - DRUG THERAPY

1.3.1.B Imipramine Hydrochloride

Intramuscular route

Oral route

1.3.1.B.1 Intramuscular route

1.3.1.B.1.a Depression

1) Initial intramuscular dose of up to 100 milligrams/day in divided doses. Lower dosages are recommended for adolescents and for outpatients (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b; Anon, 1983a; Trissel, 1994).

1.3.1.B.2 Oral route

Agoraphobia

Bulimia nervosa

Depression

Diabetic neuropathy

Panic disorder

Urinary incontinence

1.3.1.B.2.a Agoraphobia

1) Efficacy is dose related and may require doses of 150 milligrams/day or greater (Cohen et al, 1994; Mavissakalian & Perel, 1985a)(Mavissakalian & Perel, 1994; Mavissakalian & Michelson, 1986).

1.3.1.B.2.b Bulimia nervosa

1) The doses used in the treatment of bulimia have ranged from the doses commonly used in the treatment of depression (75 to 275 milligrams/day) (Pope et al, 1983a; Pope et al, 1983; Rothschild et al, 1994).

1.3.1.B.2.c Depression

1) HOSPITALIZED PATIENTS

a) The recommended initial dose for hospitalized patients is 100 milligrams (mg) orally per day and gradually increased to 200 mg/day as required. If no response is seen after 2 weeks, then it is increased up to 250 to 300 mg ORALLY per day in divided doses (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets as high as 750 milligrams/day maintenance in divided doses have been reported (Schuckit & Fennell are not recommended).

2) OUTPATIENTS

a) The recommended initial dose for outpatients is 75 milligrams (mg) orally per day, increased daily. Usual maintenance dose ranges from 50 to 150 mg daily. The recommended maximum dose (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005).

b) Maintenance doses greater than 150 milligrams/day have been well tolerated and may be required for patients to prevent relapses, but are associated with a higher incidence of persistent side effect headache, nausea, and vomiting) (Kupfer et al, 1989). The best method, other than experience, for determining the optimal maintenance dose for a particular individual has not been established.

c) Patients with chronic depression that respond to imipramine may benefit from long-term maintenance (Kocsis et al, 1991).

1.3.1.B.2.d Diabetic neuropathy

1) Standard doses of 100 milligrams/day of imipramine may not be high enough to produce therapeutic effects in some patients with diabetic neuropathy. In one study, the therapeutic dose range was 125 milligram milligrams/day. The maximum therapeutic effect in neuropathy is reached within a week. Dosage titration should start with a dose corresponding to a plasma level of 100 to 200 nmol/L for imipramine plus desipramine should then be increased in a stepwise fashion (Sindrup et al, 1990a).

1.3.1.B.2.e Panic disorder

1) Based upon a dose-response study in patients with panic disorder with agoraphobia, IMIPRAMINE doses of 1.5 milligrams/kilogram/day (approximately 100 milligrams daily) may be effective in the treatment of some patients, whereas higher doses (3 milligrams/kilogram/day, approximately 200 milligrams daily) for the agoraphobic dimension of this disorder (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1989); (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1989a).

2) The suggested target dose is 2.25 milligrams/kilogram/day or a total (imipramine and N-desmethimipramine) plasma concentration of 110 to 140 nanograms/milliliter in the acute treatment of patients with panic disorder with agoraphobia. Higher doses were associated with good clinical response but a greater dropout rate and side effects (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1995).

1.3.1.B.2.f Urinary incontinence

1) The dose used in the treatment of urinary incontinence is 75 to 150 milligrams/day. The dose can be increased to 200 milligrams per day and titrated to clinical effect. Some patients may require the dose to be administered in divided doses throughout the day instead of single dose administration (Rabey et al, 1979; Gilja et al, 1984) (Jarvis, 1981).

2) Imipramine 25 milligrams three times daily has been used in the treatment of females with urinary incontinence to detrusor instability (Jarvis, 1981).

1.3.1.C Imipramine Pamoate

1.3.1.C.1 Oral route

Agoraphobia

Bulimia nervosa

Depression

Diabetic neuropathy

Panic disorder

1.3.1.C.1.a Agoraphobia

1) Efficacy is dose related and may require doses of 150 milligrams/day or greater (Cohen et al, 1991).

(Mavissaakalian & Perel, 1985a)(Mavissakalian & Perel, 1994; Mavissakalian & Michelson, 1986).

1.3.1.C.1.b Bulimia nervosa

1) The doses used in the treatment of bulimia have ranged from the doses commonly used in the tr depression (75 to 275 milligrams/day) (Pope et al, 1983a; Pope et al, 1983; Rothschild et al, 1994).

1.3.1.C.1.c Depression

1) HOSPITALIZED PATIENTS

a) The initial oral dose for hospitalized patients is usually 100 to 150 milligrams (mg) once daily may be increased to 200 mg/day as required. If no response is seen after 2 weeks, then the do increased up to 250 to 300 mg/day. Doses greater than 150 mg daily may be administered onc optimum dosage and tolerance have been determined. The usual maintenance dose ranges fro once daily at bedtime (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005). Doses as high as 750 milli maintenance in divided doses have been reported (Schuckit & Feighner, 1972) but are not reco

2) OUTPATIENTS

a) The usual initial oral dose for outpatients is 75 milligrams (mg) once daily at bedtime and ma to 200 mg/day. Doses greater than 75 mg daily may be administered once a day after the optim tolerance have been determined. The usual maintenance dose ranges from 75 to 150 mg once (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005).

b) Maintenance doses greater than 150 milligrams/day have been well tolerated and may be re patients to prevent relapses, but are associated with a higher incidence of persistent side effect headache, nausea, and vomiting) (Kupfer et al, 1989). The best method, other than experience the optimal maintenance dose for a particular individual has not been established.

c) Patients with chronic depression that respond to imipramine may benefit from long-term mai (Kocsis et al, 1991).

1.3.1.C.1.d Diabetic neuropathy

1) Standard doses of 100 milligrams/day of imipramine may not be high enough to produce therape some patients with diabetic neuropathy. In one study, the therapeutic dose range was 125 milligram milligrams/day. The maximum therapeutic effect in neuropathy is reached within a week. Dosage titr started with a dose corresponding to a plasma level of 100 to 200 nmol/L for imipramine plus desipr; should then be increased in a stepwise fashion (Sindrup et al, 1990a).

1.3.1.C.1.e Panic disorder

1) Based upon a dose-response study in patients with panic disorder with agoraphobia, IMIPRAMIN doses of 1.5 milligrams/kilogram/day (approximately 100 milligrams daily) may be effective in the tre some patients, whereas higher doses (3 milligrams/kilogram/day, approximately 200 milligrams daily for the agoraphobic dimension of this disorder (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1989); (Mavissakalian & Per; 1989a).

2) The suggested target dose is 2.25 milligrams/kilogram/day or a total (imipramine and N-desmeth plasma concentration of 110 to 140 nanograms/milliliter in the acute treatment of patients with panic agoraphobia. Higher doses were associated with good clinical response but a greater dropout rate s effects (Mavissakalian & Peral, 1995).

1.3.2 Dosage in Renal Failure

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) No specific dosage adjustment is necessary (Bennett et al, 1994).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) No specific dosage adjustment is necessary (Bennett et al, 1994).

1.3.4 Dosage in Geriatric Patients

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) GENERAL INFORMATION

a) Dosage reduction is recommended in elderly patients since this patient population is reported to have incidence of confusional-type reactions and other central nervous system symptoms while on tricyclic an therapy (Davies et al, 1971). A one-third to one-half reduction in tricyclic antidepressant dosage is sugge An increase in age is correlated with elevated steady-state serum levels of imipramine, desipramine and (Hicks et al, 1981a; Benetello et al, 1990).

2) DEPRESSION

a) The initial recommended dose for depression in geriatric patients is 30 to 40 milligrams orally daily; it necessary to exceed 100 milligrams/day (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005).

3) URINARY INCONTINENCE

a) In elderly patients with urinary incontinence associated with spontaneous unstable detrusor contractic imipramine is started at 25 milligrams at bedtime and increased by 25 milligrams, until the patient is cont side effects, or reaches 150 milligrams/day (Castleden et al, 1981).

b) A review for utilizing antidepressants in the treatment of depression in geriatric patients has been put 1985).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) GENERAL INFORMATION

a) Dosage reduction is recommended in elderly patients since this patient population is reported to have incidence of confusional-type reactions and other central nervous system symptoms while on tricyclic an therapy (Davies et al, 1971). A one-third to one-half reduction in tricyclic antidepressant dosage is suggested. An increase in age is correlated with elevated steady-state serum levels of imipramine, desipramine and (Hicks et al, 1981a; Benetello et al, 1990).

b) It is recommended that therapy in geriatric patients is initiated with imipramine hydrochloride tablets (orally per day (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)) since lower dosages should be used. Imipramine may be used once a total daily dosage of 75 mg or higher is established (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) ca

1.3.5 Dosage Adjustment During Dialysis

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) HEMODIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1981).

2) PERITONEAL DIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1981).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) HEMODIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1981).

2) PERITONEAL DIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1981).

1.3.6 Dosage in Other Disease States

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) DIABETES

a) Studies in mice have shown that imipramine stimulates insulin secretion in the presence of low glucose whereas it inhibits insulin secretion in the presence of high glucose levels. Imipramine should be administered to type II diabetic patients (El-Dakhakhny et al, 1996).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) DIABETES

a) Studies in mice have shown that imipramine stimulates insulin secretion in the presence of low glucose whereas it inhibits insulin secretion in the presence of high glucose levels. Imipramine should be administered to type II diabetic patients (El-Dakhakhny et al, 1996).

1.4 Pediatric Dosage

Normal Dosage

Dosage in Renal Failure

Dosage Adjustment During Dialysis

1.4.1 Normal Dosage

Imipramine

Imipramine Hydrochloride

Imipramine Pamoate

1.4.1.A Imipramine

1.4.1.A.1 Anorexia nervosa

See Drug Consult reference: ANOREXIA NERVOSA - DRUG THERAPY

1.4.1.B Imipramine Hydrochloride

1.4.1.B.1 Oral route

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, predominantly inattentive type

Depression

Nocturnal enuresis

1.4.1.B.1.a Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, predominantly inattentive type

1) The dose used ranges from 25 to 100 milligrams/day and tends to be lower than those needed to treat depression. Children tend to respond within 24 hours after initiating therapy. The monitoring of serum imipramine levels may be useful. The serum levels associated with reported responses have been 10 to 54 nanograms/ml of imipramine and 10 to 65 nanograms/milliliter of desipramine (Hussey & Wright, 1970)(Linnoila et al, 1985; Winsberg et al, 1980).

1.4.1.B.1.b Depression

1) For the treatment of depression in children the initial starting dose of imipramine is 1.5 milligrams given in 1 to 4 divided doses with dosage increased 1 milligram/kilogram every 3 to 4 days. The daily dose of imipramine should not exceed 5 milligrams/kilogram/day, and children receiving doses of 3.5 milligrams/kg or more should be closely monitored (Taketomo et al, 1992).

2) Adolescents should initially receive 30 to 40 milligrams/day. Dosages exceeding 100 mg/day are necessary (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005).

1.4.1.B.1.c Nocturnal enuresis

1) Children, aged 6 and over, should initially receive 25 milligrams orally, 1 hour before bedtime. If a response does not occur within 1 week, the dose may be increased by 25 milligrams/day: children under 12 receive a maximum daily dose of 50 milligrams and children over 12 may receive 75 milligrams (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 1995b; Taketomo et al, 1992).

2) In early-night bedwetters, it is more effective to give the drug earlier and in divided doses, ie, 25 milligrams in the afternoon and then at bedtime (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b).

3) The daily dose of imipramine should not exceed 2.5 milligrams/kilogram, or 50 milligrams at bedtime for children under 12 years of age, or 75 milligrams at bedtime if 12 years of age or older (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b; Tait et al, 1992; Denniston et al, 1994).

4) The optimization of imipramine dose in the treatment of enuresis should be guided by clinical response and serum imipramine/desipramine levels. The use of serum imipramine/desipramine levels may help determine the drug regimen and outliers. The use of a Bayesian dosing method offers no major advantage over the method used in combination using serum level data. However, the Bayesian method may be useful to avoid possible analytical errors, noncompliance, and non-steady state serum concentrations (Tamayo et al, 1992).

1.4.1.C Imipramine Pamoate

1.4.1.C.1 Oral route

1.4.1.C.1.a Depression

1) Tofranil-PM(R) should not be used in children because of the increased potential for overdose due to the capsule potency (75 mg, 100 mg, 125 mg and 150 mg capsule) (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005).

1.4.2 Dosage in Renal Failure

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) No specific dosage adjustment is necessary (Bennett et al, 1994).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) No specific dosage adjustment is necessary (Bennett et al, 1994).

1.4.4 Dosage Adjustment During Dialysis

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

1) HEMODIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1994).

2) PERITONEAL DIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1994).

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) HEMODIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1994).

2) PERITONEAL DIALYSIS

a) No dosage supplementation is required following hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis (Bennett et al, 1994).

2.0 Pharmacokinetics

Onset and Duration

Drug Concentration Levels

ADME

2.1 Onset and Duration

- A) Onset
 - 1) Initial Response
 - a) Depression, oral: 7 to 21 days (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995a); (Greenblatt & Shader, 1975).
 - 2) Peak Response
 - a) Depression, oral: 4 to 6 weeks (Eisenberg & Asnis, 1986).

2.2 Drug Concentration Levels

- A) Therapeutic Drug Concentration
 - 1) Endogenous depression, greater than 200 ng/mL (IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE) (Peselow et al, 1983; G 1977).
 - 2) Prepubertal depressive symptoms, 200 to 225 ng/mL (IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE), minimum level of 1. (Preskorn et al, 1983).
 - 3) Hyperactivity, 10 to 54 ng/mL (imipramine only) (Linnoila et al, 1979).
 - 4) Enuresis in children, no correlation (Fritz et al, 1994; Manglick & Buchanan, 1992; DeVane et al, 1984).
 - a) Some studies have shown levels of 80 to 150 ng/mL (IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE) to be effective (1980a; Fernandez de Gatta et al, 1984).
 - 5) Ventricular premature depolarizations, 74 to 385 ng/mL (IMIPRAMINE plus desipramine) (Giardina et al, 1983)
 - 6) Diabetic neuropathy, less than 100 nmol/L (IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE); 400 to 500 nmol/L required in (Sindrup et al, 1990).
- B) Time to Peak Concentration
 - 1) Oral: 1 hour (Gram & Christiansen, 1975).

2.3 ADME

Absorption

Distribution

Metabolism

Excretion

Elimination Half-life

Extracorporeal Elimination

2.3.1 Absorption

- A) Bioavailability
 - 1) Oral, tablet: 94% to 96% (Heck et al, 1979).
 - a) The bioavailability of IMIPRAMINE from tablet and syrup form is equivalent (Gagnon et al, 1980).
- B) Effects of Food
 - 1) None (Abernethy et al, 1984h).

2.3.2 Distribution

- A) Distribution Sites
 - 1) Protein Binding
 - a) 89% (Kristensen, 1983).
 - 1) Patients with severe burns (35% to 85% BSA) exhibit increased binding during the initial convalescence (20 days) (Martyn et al, 1984).
 - 2) The free fraction is reduced in cancer patients (Schulz & Luttrell, 1982).
 - 3) The free fraction in rheumatoid arthritis patients is slightly lower than in healthy control subjects (Kristensen, 1985).
 - 2) OTHER DISTRIBUTION SITES
 - a) Tissue
 - 1) At steady-state, tissue concentrations are greatest in the lung followed by the brain, the adipose tissue (Sallee & Pollock, 1990a).
- B) Distribution Kinetics

- 1) Volume of Distribution
 - a) 10 to 20 L/kg (Bennett et al, 1994a; Sallee & Pollock, 1990a).

2.3.3 Metabolism

- A) Metabolism Sites and Kinetics
 - 1) Liver, extensive (Gram & Christensen, 1975)(Olivier-Martin et al, 1975).
 - a) First-pass metabolism occurs with extensive metabolism to conjugated and non-conjugated metabolites (Gram et al, 1975).
 - b) N-demethylation of imipramine is under pharmacogenetic control of CYP2C19 (Morinobu et al, 1997).
 - c) Hydroxylation may become saturated resulting in drug accumulation (Brosen et al, 1986).
- B) Metabolites
 - 1) N-desmethyl metabolite (DESIPRAMINE), active (Drayer, 1976).
 - a) Patients with recurrent episodes of depression have a significantly lower IMIPRAMINE/DESIPRAMINE ratio than those who do not experience recurrences (1.73) (Tollefson et al, 1985).
 - b) DESIPRAMINE exists in a 0.3 to 15.0 ratio to IMIPRAMINE in plasma (Nagy & Treiber, 1973).
 - 2) 2-hydroxy IMIPRAMINE, active (Buckley, 1975).
 - a) Reported to depress cardiac contractility in dogs (Buckley, 1975).
 - 3) 2-hydroxydesipramine, active (DeVane & Jusko, 1981).
 - a) Serum concentration of the hydroxy metabolites may have some relationship to the drug's toxicity (DeVane & Jusko, 1981a).

2.3.4 Excretion

- A) Kidney
 - 1) Renal Excretion (%)
 - a) 0.05 to 0.1% (DESIPRAMINE only) (Gram & Christiansen, 1975).
 - 2) IMIPRAMINE metabolites are excreted in urine (Gram et al, 1971; Crammer et al, 1969).

2.3.5 Elimination Half-life

- A) Parent Compound
 - 1) ELIMINATION HALF-LIFE
 - a) 6 to 18 hours (Benetello et al, 1990a; Sutfin et al, 1984).
 - 1) The half-life of IMIPRAMINE in children ranges from 6 to 15 hours (Rancurello, 1985).
 - 2) In elderly patients the serum half-life ranges from 25 to 30 hours (Benetello et al, 1990a; Abernethy et al, 1984).
 - 3) The terminal half-life of IMIPRAMINE and the active metabolites is 1.5 to 2.0 times longer following intravenous administration than that observed following oral administration (Sutfin et al, 1984).
- B) Metabolites
 - 1) DESIPRAMINE, 12 to 36 hours (Sutfin et al, 1984).
 - 2) 2-hydroxyimipramine, 6 to 18 hours (Sutfin et al, 1984).
 - 3) 2-hydroxydesipramine, 12 to 36 hours (Sutfin et al, 1984).

2.3.6 Extracorporeal Elimination

- A) Hemodialysis
 - 1) Dialyzable: No (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995a; Asbach & Schuler, 1974; Bailey et al, 1974; Wright & Cooke)
- B) Peritoneal
 - 1) Dialyzable: No (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995a; Asbach & Schuler, 1974; Bailey et al, 1974; Wright & Cooke)

3.0 Cautions

Contraindications

Precautions

Adverse Reactions

Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy/Breastfeeding

Drug Interactions

3.0.A Black Box WARNING

- 1) Imipramine Hydrochloride
 - a) Oral (Tablet)
 - Suicidality and Antidepressant Drugs
 - Antidepressants increased the risk compared to placebo of suicidal thinking and behavior (suicidality) in child and young adults in short-term studies of major depressive disorder (MDD) and other psychiatric disorders. A warning that the use of imipramine hydrochloride or any other antidepressant in a child, adolescent, or young adult must be closely monitored.

with the clinical need. Short-term studies did not show an increase in the risk of suicidality with antidepressant placebo in adults beyond age 24; there was a reduction in risk with antidepressants compared to placebo in older. Depression and certain other psychiatric disorders are themselves associated with increases in the risk. Patients of all ages who are started on antidepressant therapy should be monitored appropriately and observed closely for clinical worsening, suicidality, or unusual changes in behavior. Families and caregivers should be advised of observation and communication with the prescriber. Imipramine hydrochloride is not approved for use in pediatric patients (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007).

2) Imipramine Pamoate

a) Oral (Capsule)

Suicidality and Antidepressant Drugs

Antidepressants increased the risk compared to placebo of suicidal thinking and behavior (suicidality) in child and young adults in short-term studies of major depressive disorder (MDD) and other psychiatric disorders. A the use of imipramine pamoate or any other antidepressant in a child, adolescent, or young adult must balance clinical need. Short-term studies did not show an increase in the risk of suicidality with antidepressants compared to placebo in adults beyond age 24; there was a reduction in risk with antidepressants compared to placebo in adults aged 24 and older. Depression and certain other psychiatric disorders are themselves associated with increases in the risk of suicidality. Patients of all ages who are started on antidepressant therapy should be monitored appropriately and observed closely for clinical worsening, suicidality, or unusual changes in behavior. Families and caregivers should be advised of the need for observation and communication with the prescriber. Imipramine pamoate is not approved for use in pediatric patients (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007).

3.1 Contraindications

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

- 1) coadministration with a MAOI or use within 14 days of discontinuing a MAOI; may cause serious reactions (eg crisis, convulsive seizures, death) (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 2) hypersensitivity to dibenzazepines; risk of cross-sensitivity reactions (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 3) hypersensitivity to imipramine hydrochloride (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 4) myocardial infarction, during the acute recovery period (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)

B) Imipramine Pamoate

- 1) coadministration with an MAOI or use within 14 days of discontinuing an MAOI; may cause serious reactions (eg crisis, severe convulsive seizures, death) (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
- 2) hypersensitivity to dibenzazepines; risk of cross-sensitivity reactions (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
- 3) hypersensitivity to imipramine pamoate (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
- 4) myocardial infarction, during the acute recovery period (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

3.2 Precautions

A) Imipramine Hydrochloride

- 1) suicidal ideation and behavior or worsening depression, increased risk, particularly in children, adolescents, or during the first few months of therapy or following changes in dosage (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 2) alcohol, excessive use; increased danger of intentional or unintentional imipramine overdose (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 3) bipolar disorder, in patients at risk; increased risk of precipitation of a mixed/manic episode with only antidepressant (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 4) cardiovascular disease, current or history; may cause cardiac conduction defects, arrhythmias, congestive heart failure, myocardial infarction, stroke, and tachycardia (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 5) concurrent use with electroshock therapy; may increase hazards of electroshock therapy (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 6) cyclic-type psychiatric disorders, history; may cause mania or hypomania (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 7) elderly patients; increased risk of developing cardiac abnormalities (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 8) excessive exposure to sunlight; may cause photosensitization (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 9) glaucoma, narrow-angle, history of; due to anticholinergic effects of imipramine hydrochloride (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 10) hepatic function, significantly impaired (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 11) hyperthyroidism or concurrent use of thyroid medications; may increase risk of cardiovascular toxicity (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 12) intraocular pressure, increased; exacerbation of condition due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 13) neutrophil depression, pathological, may occur (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 14) renal function, significantly impaired (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 15) schizophrenia; may activate psychosis (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 16) seizure disorder, history; may lower the convulsive threshold (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 17) surgery, elective (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)
- 18) urinary retention, history of; due to anticholinergic effects of imipramine hydrochloride (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007)

B) Imipramine Pamoate

- 1) suicidal ideation and behavior or worsening depression; increased risk, particularly in children, adolescents, or during the first few months of therapy or following changes in dosage (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)
- 2) alcohol, excessive use; increased danger of intentional or unintentional imipramine overdose (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

capsules, 2007)

3) bipolar disorder; increased risk of precipitation of a mixed/manic episode with only antidepressant treatment (F TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

4) cardiovascular disease, current or history; may increase risk of tachycardia, congestive heart failure, cardiac arrhythmias, myocardial infarction (MI), and stroke (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

5) concurrent use with electroshock therapy; may increase hazards of electroshock therapy (Prod Info TOFRANIL capsules, 2007)

6) elderly patients; may increase risk of ECG changes (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

7) glaucoma, history of narrow-angle; exacerbation of condition due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info TOFRANIL capsules, 2007)

8) hyperthyroidism or concurrent use of thyroid medications; may cause cardiac toxicity (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM capsules, 2007)

9) intraocular pressure, increased; exacerbation of condition due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info TOFRANIL capsules, 2007)

10) mania/hypomania; risk of disease activation (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

11) schizophrenia; may activate psychosis (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

12) seizure disorder, history; may lower the convulsive threshold (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

13) surgery, elective (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007)

14) urinary retention, history of; exacerbation of condition due to cholinergic antagonism (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM capsules, 2007)

3.3 Adverse Reactions

Cardiovascular Effects

Dermatologic Effects

Endocrine/Metabolic Effects

Gastrointestinal Effects

Hematologic Effects

Hepatic Effects

Immunologic Effects

Musculoskeletal Effects

Neurologic Effects

Otic Effects

Psychiatric Effects

Renal Effects

Reproductive Effects

Respiratory Effects

Other

3.3.1 Cardiovascular Effects

Abnormal ECG

Cardiac dysrhythmia

Cardiogenic shock

Cardiomyopathy

Cardiovascular finding

Dead - sudden death

Hypertension

Hypotension

Myocarditis

Vasoconstriction

3.3.1.A Abnormal ECG

1) Summary

- a) ECG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include INCREASED P-R-T INTERVAL, PROLONGED PR INTERVAL, INTRAVENTRICULAR CONDUCTION DELAYS, INCREASED QTc INTERVAL (QTc), and FLATTENED T WAVES (Marshall & Forker, 1982ak).
- 2) In one comparative study, phenelzine and mianserin were less likely than imipramine or amitriptyline to produce cardiac conduction abnormalities, in patients without cardiac disease. Prolongation of the PR interval was observed with imipramine but not with phenelzine or mianserin. There was a trend towards prolongation of the QRS complex with imipramine, as well as the QTc interval; no QRS changes were observed with phenelzine or mianserin and their phenelzine to decrease the QTc interval, whereas mianserin produced no effect on the QTc interval. These data suggest that mianserin and phenelzine are less likely than imipramine or amitriptyline to produce heart block in patients with cardiac conduction abnormalities (McGee et al, 1982). Mianserin appeared to be the least likely of the four agents to induce cardiac conduction abnormalities (McGee et al, 1982).
- 3) Forty-four depressed patients receiving imipramine 3.5 mg/kg/day for 4 weeks demonstrated prolonged P-R-T intervals, lowered T-wave amplitude, and increased heart rate compared to a 2 week drug-free period. None developed severe intraventricular conduction abnormalities nor high-grade AV block (Giardina et al, 1979).
- 4) IMIPRAMINE therapy in the elderly has been associated with increased heart rate and isolated ECG conduction abnormalities (shortening of the QT interval, changes in ST segments, and T waves) (Hayes et al, 1983). Two elderly, depressed patients with preexisting cardiac arrhythmias, had significant increases in PR interval, QRS segment, and QTc interval during treatment with oral imipramine 3.5 mg/kg/day. Both patients also had a reduction in atrial and ventricular pre-excitation during therapy (Bigger et al, 1977b).

3.3.1.B Cardiac dysrhythmia

1) Summary

- a) Production and suppression of atrial and ventricular arrhythmias have been reported in patients receiving imipramine (Marshall & Forker, 1982ak; Raskind et al, 1982; Levin et al, 1985; Williams & Sherter, 1971). Multifocal ventricular contractions occurred in a 62-year-old woman following withdrawal of IMIPRAMINE. The depressed patient had preexisting nonspecific intraventricular conduction delay (Regan et al, 1989).
- 2) ARRHYTHMIAS ADULT
 - a) A 25-year-old quadriplegic patient receiving oral imipramine 200 mg at bedtime developed a life-threatening arrhythmia shortly after achieving therapeutic levels (Levin et al, 1985). This may have occurred because patients frequently have autonomic supersensitivity. Thus the autonomic effects of imipramine may have caused cardiac arrhythmia.
 - b) A 37-year-old black male, who was receiving antihypertensive therapy (guanethidine, hydralazine, and propranolol), experienced cardiac standstill and died following treatment with 25 mg of imipramine TID for 5 days, despite discontinuation of all drugs (Williams & Sherter, 1971). In other reports, discontinuation of imipramine usually resulted in improvement of cardiac arrhythmias although in some cases of AV block, a pacemaker was required (Reid & Moorehead & Knox, 1965; Kantor et al, 1975). Arrhythmias, usually supraventricular or VENTRICULAR, have also been reported following acute overdose of imipramine (Brown et al, 1972; Lund-Larsen & Sivek, 1972).
 - c) The cardiovascular effects associated with imipramine therapy were evaluated in 12 men with stable cardiac disease who had become depressed following a myocardial infarction or coronary artery bypass-graft surgery (Levin et al, 1982). All other drug regimens were kept constant during the course of the study. The mean maximum imipramine dose was 125 mg/day with a mean plasma level (imipramine plus desmethylimipramine) of 194 ng/mL. During imipramine therapy some patients experienced an antiarrhythmic effect from the imipramine, observed as a reduction in premature ventricular contractions. Other cardiovascular side effects observed in this study included a decrease in PR interval, QT interval, and heart rate, and orthostatic blood pressure changes.
- 3) ARRHYTHMIAS - PEDIATRIC
 - a) The cardiovascular status of 23 pediatric patients (ages 5 to 17 years), who were candidates for imipramine therapy, was evaluated (Levin et al, 1985). The patients had a variety of cardiac arrhythmias, including sinus tachycardia, sinus bradycardia, and various degrees of AV block. The mean maximum imipramine dose was 125 mg/day with a mean plasma level (imipramine plus desmethylimipramine) of 194 ng/mL. During imipramine therapy some patients experienced an antiarrhythmic effect from the imipramine, observed as a reduction in premature ventricular contractions. Other cardiovascular side effects observed in this study included a decrease in PR interval, QT interval, and heart rate, and orthostatic blood pressure changes.

(eg, oppositional behavior, conduct disorders, and depression), were evaluated before and after the initial therapy. Each patient was started on 1.5 mg/kg/day which could be increased to a maximum of 5 mg/kg/ divided doses. The follow-up cardiovascular evaluation was conducted 10 to 14 days after clinical improvement or steady-state serum concentration of between 150 ng/mL and 250 ng/mL. Resting heart rate PR interval lengthened (average 21.2 msec) in all 23 children (p less than 0.001). One child developed N while on imipramine, but this child had a resting PR interval of 176 msec before the initiation of imipramine on these findings the authors support the recommendation that baseline electrocardiogram should be co patients. In addition, patients with a family history of sudden death, a baseline PR interval greater than that for age, or any alterations in intraventricular conduction are candidates for ambulatory Holter monitor while on imipramine therapy (Fletcher et al, 1993).

3.3.1.C Cardiogenic shock

1) An imipramine-provoked paradoxical pheochromocytoma crisis occurred in a 35-year-old male who presented with severe cardiogenic shock after taking two unknown doses of imipramine for headaches. The hypotension was unresponsive to fluids and anotropes (Ferguson, 1994). Subsequent CT scan revealed a pheochromocytoma confirmed with other diagnostic tests. Previous case reports of the adverse effects of imipramine in patients with pheochromocytoma have resulted in hypertensive crises. It appears that imipramine should be avoided or used with caution in patients with known or suspected pheochromocytoma.

3.3.1.D Cardiomyopathy

1) CONGESTIVE CARDIOMYOPATHY was reported in a 50-year-old male after receiving tricyclic antidepressant therapy (amitriptyline/perphenazine for 6 months, then imipramine 150 mg/day for 4 years). The patient experienced onset of weakness, shortness of breath, and pedal edema over 2 months prior to admission. Evaluation revealed interstitial edema on chest X-ray and EKG revealed bilateral enlargement. The patient improved somewhat with furosemide and hydralazine but remained severely disabled (functional class 3) (Howland et al, 1983). A causal relationship was not definitely established in this case.

3.3.1.E Cardiovascular finding

1) Summary

a) Some of the following adverse effects have not been associated with imipramine but have occurred with other antidepressants. These include MYOCARDIAL INFARCTION, STROKE, HEART BLOCK, precipitation of HEART FAILURE, ECG CHANGES, ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTENSION, HYPERTENSION, and TACHYCARDIA (Tofranil(R), 1995). ECG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include INCREASED HEART RATE, PROLONGED PR INTERVAL, INTRAVENTRICULAR CONDUCTION DELAY, INCREASED CORRECTED QT INTERVAL (QTc), and FLATTENED T WAVES (Marshall & Forker, 1988). Other effects reported include shock, vasoconstriction, vasospasm of the hands and feet (ACROCYANOSIS), and myocarditis have been reported in 1 to 2 patients (Appelbaum & Kapoor, 1983; Anderson & Morris, 1988; Ferguson, 1994; Morrow et al, 1994).

2) Two authors reported that tricyclic antidepressants when given in therapeutic doses are essentially free of cardiovascular effects in patients without cardiovascular disease and may improve the status of patients with arrhythmias (Glassman & Bigger, 1981; Roose et al, 1987a). The development of second degree atrioventricular block was significantly greater in patients with preexisting bundle-branch block than in patients with normal electrocardiogram. Hypotension occurred more frequently in patients with conduction abnormalities (Roose et al, 1987a).

3.3.1.F Dead - sudden death

1) According to one study, the use of higher-dose tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) was associated with an increased risk of SUDDEN CARDIAC DEATH, while lower doses did not increase this risk. In a cohort study including 481,744 cases of sudden cardiac death occurring in a community setting, researchers found that compared to non-users of TCAs was associated with a dose-related increase in the risk of sudden cardiac death. For doses lower than 100 mg (mg) (amitriptyline or its equivalent), the rate ratio was 0.97 (95% CI, 0.72 to 1.29), however this increased to 1.04 to 6.12 for doses of 300 mg or more (p=0.03, test for dose-response). In the entire cohort, users of TCA at 100 mg or higher (amitriptyline or its equivalent) had a 41% increased rate of sudden cardiac death (rate ratio, 1.41 (95% CI, 1.19 to 1.65)). However, TCAs taken in doses of less than 100 mg (amitriptyline or its equivalent) were not associated with an increased risk of sudden cardiac death in the entire cohort or in any subgroups, including persons with treated cardiovascular disease. Use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors was not associated with an increased risk of sudden cardiac death (Ray et al, 2004).

2) An 8-year-old boy died of cardiac arrest that was attributed to imipramine toxicity. Although there were no other abnormalities found on autopsy, the dose at time of death (6.9 milligrams/kilogram/day (mg/kg/day)) was in excess of the recommended dose of 5 mg/kg/day. One month after his dose had been raised to 100 mg twice daily (approximately a year after starting treatment), he complained of his heart hurting and of being dizzy. Two months later, dextroamphetamine 5 mg/day was added to his regimen and was raised to 10 mg/day one month later. Two months after his initial cardiac episode, he again complained of his heart hurting. One month later, while playing basketball, he died of cardiac arrest. On autopsy (20 hours after death), highly elevated venous and ventricular levels of imipramine and its desipramine, were the only abnormalities found (Varley, 2000).

3.3.1.G Hypertension

1) A 57-year-old female treated with 150 mg/day of imipramine for 12 days developed hypertension (Hessov). Her blood pressure before therapy was noted to be 140/90 mmHg and 3 days after initiating imipramine for endogenous depression her blood pressure rose to 150/110 mmHg. Nine days after initiating therapy the blood pressure had risen to 175/110 mmHg.

no associated changes in the EKG. Twenty-four hour urinary excretion of noradrenaline-adrenaline and vanil was normal. Dosage reduction failed to lower blood pressure and so the drug was discontinued. After 3 week pressure was close to or at controlled levels.

2) Imipramine, 75 mg at bedtime, produced a rise in diastolic blood pressure in 18 enuretic boys (mean age 10). Diastolic pressure increased by 8 +/- 6 mmHG and standing by 10 +/- 12 mmHG (Lake et al, 1979).

3.3.1.H Hypotension

1) Summary: ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTENSION has been reported in patients receiving imipramine (Glassman, Koehl & Wenzel, 1971; Glassman et al, 1979). Elderly depressed patients (n=45) may be at an increased risk for ORTHOSTATIC HYPOTENSION if they have preexisting severe heart disease, impaired left ventricular function, or concurrent cardiovascular medications. Another factor, that requires further assessment, was increased forearm resistance. Individuals with increased forearm resistance had a greater frequency of imipramine-induced orthostatic hypotension with normal or low forearm resistance. Patients were receiving therapeutic doses of imipramine (Glassman et al, 1979).

2) A 9-year-old white female treated with imipramine 25 mg twice daily for 9 days developed POSTURAL HYPOTENSION. On the fifth day of therapy, the child developed decreased appetite, dry mouth, and constipation. During the sixth day of therapy, she developed WEAKNESS, and DIZZINESS upon standing, pallor, diaphoresis, vomiting when provoked, and a rapid heart rate. Physical exam revealed a supine pulse rate of 120/min with supine blood pressure of 100/70 mmHg. Upon standing, blood pressure was noted to fall to 80/50 mmHg and pulse rate increased to 170/min, and the patient also became profusely sweating. Upon standing, blood pressure dropped to 60/0 mmHg with pulse increasing to 170/min. Discontinuation of imipramine resulted in improvement of the patient's condition over the 7 day hospital course with subsequent normalization of vital signs (Glassman & Wenzel, 1971).

3) A study of 44 depressed adults receiving therapeutic doses of imipramine (average 245 mg/day in males, 185 mg/day in females) demonstrated a significant decrease in blood pressure upon standing; average decrease during imipramine therapy was 26.1 mmHg during therapy and 10.9 mmHg prior to therapy. This decrease was independent of age, plasma imipramine concentration, or preexisting heart rate (Glassman et al, 1979).

4) Forty-five elderly patients (mean age 63.6) were initially treated with 25 mg/day imipramine with dose increased to 75 mg/day (Branconnier et al, 1983). Cardiovascular function was assessed 3 times during the course of the study (day 7 and day 28). On day 7 and day 28 the patient exhibited a significant orthostatic change in diastolic blood pressure and increase in heart rate compared to pretreatment.

5) The cardiovascular effects of imipramine, doxepin, and placebo were compared in 24 depressed patients. The tricyclic antidepressants had no effects on left ventricular ejection fraction but did cause orthostatic changes in blood pressure. The imipramine therapy was associated with a reduction in premature ventricular contractions, which were consistently seen in the placebo and doxepin treated patients. Based on the results of this study it would appear that imipramine or doxepin without an adverse effect on ventricular rhythm or hemodynamic function (Veith et al, 1983).

3.3.1.I Myocarditis

1) A 54-year-old female developed myocarditis and hepatitis after restarting imipramine therapy. The patient's hepatitis was later secondary to the myocarditis. It could not be determined if this rare hypersensitivity reaction was directly due to imipramine, its desipramine metabolite, or the combination of imipramine and desipramine (Morrow et al, 1983).

3.3.1.J Vasoconstriction

1) A 37-year-old female, developed severe and prolonged episodes of vasospasm of the hands within 10 days of discontinuation of her amitriptyline therapy and the initiation of 150 mg/day imipramine. Vasospasm reoccurred on rechallenge (Appelbaum & Kapoor, 1983).

2) ACROCYANOSIS of the hands and feet occurred in an 11-year-old girl following imipramine therapy (25 mg twice daily for approximately 10 weeks) for nocturnal enuresis (Anderson & Morris, 1988). The patient developed initial symptoms after initiation of treatment (painful swelling of metacarpophalangeal joints of the feet). Examination after 10 days revealed cold, blue and moist hands and feet which blanched on pressure. LIVEDO RETICULARIS was observed on the forearms. Withdrawal of imipramine resulted in resolution of symptoms in 3 days.

3.3.2 Dermatologic Effects

3.3.2.A Discoloration of skin

1) HYPERPIGMENTATION was described in 4 women (53 to 75 years old) receiving imipramine 150 to 375 mg/day (Ming et al, 1999). Hyperpigmentation began after 2 to 11 years of use. Coloration was described as slate gray in 2 women and as dark brown or golden brown in the other 2. The site of the reaction was in the face, chest, and arms. One woman also had a darkening of her iris. The pigmentation disappeared over 6 to 12 months in 2 of the women who discontinued imipramine.

2) A 46-year-old male was treated with imipramine 75 to 100 mg three times/day for 9 years and developed hyperpigmentation of his face, neck, and fingers (Hare, 1970). Characteristically the skin of the nose and ears was normal and the skin of the face had no ophthalmological disturbances.

3) A 48-year-old white female developed a slate-gray discoloration in sun-exposed areas, predominately her face, both hands, and eyes, after receiving imipramine 150 mg/day for five years (Hashimoto et al, 1991). These areas became lighter after discontinuation of the imipramine therapy and returned to normal within one year.

3.3.3 Endocrine/Metabolic Effects

Acute intermittent porphyria

Anticholinergic adverse reaction

Galactorrhea

Hyperthyroidism

Hypoglycemia

Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion

3.3.3.A Acute intermittent porphyria

See Drug Consult reference: DRUGS CONSIDERED UNSAFE- ACUTE PORPHYRIAS

3.3.3.B Anticholinergic adverse reaction

1) IMIPRAMINE HYDROCHLORIDE may produce a slightly higher incidence of anticholinergic side effects than the pamoate salt due to higher peak concentrations with this salt form; however, this has not been proven. Any dissimilarity when changed from one salt form to the other is most likely psychological, and is probably due to changes in bioavailability between the two products (ie hydrochloride salt - tablet, pamoate salt - capsule (Prod Info Tofranil PM(R), 19 Tofranil(R), 1990; Pers Comm, 1982a).

3.3.3.C Galactorrhea

1) A 34-year-old female treated with imipramine 75 to 100 mg/day for 6 months developed spontaneous galactorrhea. Discontinuation of imipramine resulted in subsiding of the LACTATION which recurred when therapy with imipramine resumed. During imipramine therapy, it was noted that the patient had low levels of serum serotonin and urine 5-HIAA. The author postulated that the mechanism for the galactorrhea was similar to that seen with reserpine which is due to the normal hypothalamic inhibition of pituitary prolactin secretion (Klein, 1964).

3.3.3.D Hyperthyroidism

1) A case of a 9.5-year-old female was treated with 25 mg/day oral imipramine for enuresis and also received thyroid therapy; the patient demonstrated increased restlessness, hyperkineticism, nervousness, easy fatigability, and warm skin. Physical exam revealed a resting heart rate of 120 beats/min with deep tendon reflexes noted without clonus. Lab values revealed a thyroxine level of 9.2 mg/dL and a triiodothyronine uptake of 31.9%. ECG showed sinus tachycardia with ST-T wave changes and basal metabolic rate was elevated by 33%. Discontinuing imipramine and continuing the same dose of thyroid resulted in the child becoming euthyroid (Colantonio & Orson, 1974).

3.3.3.E Hypoglycemia

1) A 50-year-old male treated with 200 mg/d of imipramine developed severe hypoglycemia (Shrivastava & Egan, 1984). Six days after starting imipramine therapy the patient complained of fatigue, dizziness, loss of weight, and incontinence. On laboratory examination, he was found to have a nonfasting serum glucose of 57 mg/dL with all other lab values within normal limits. Imipramine therapy was discontinued and his serum glucose returned to 79 mg/dL and symptoms resolved. Following an unintentional rechallenge the man began complaining of weakness and dizziness one week later. His serum glucose was 34 mg/dL. Following discontinuation of the imipramine therapy his serum glucose returned to 79 mg/dL.
2) Imipramine may increase an individual's sensitivity to insulin-induced hypoglycemia, but does not affect the regulatory response of ACTH and cortisol (Kathol et al, 1991).

3.3.3.F Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion

1) Imipramine was associated with SIADH in a 78-year-old woman during therapy for major depression. She was on imipramine 25 to 50 mg orally daily for approximately 3 months prior to admission. HYPONATREMIA was observed on admission and subsided during a 9 day interval without imipramine therapy. The patient subsequently developed bupropion and upon rechallenge with imipramine (Liskin et al, 1984).

2) A 73-year-old thin and frail white female was admitted to a psychiatric unit for evaluation after deliberate self-harm with cleaning fluid (Colgate, 1993). She was diagnosed with severe depression and started on paroxetine therapy. The paroxetine was discontinued because the depression was getting worse. A single session of electroconvulsive therapy was tried and then she was started on imipramine syrup, 25 mg twice daily. The dose was increased to 125 mg per day in divided doses, and diazepam was used in doses up to 10 mg/day to control her agitation. Over the next few weeks her condition improved, but she did fall and sustained a fractured left femur neck. Her mental condition continued to improve and her mobility deteriorated and she suffered several more falls. Physical examination revealed a profound orthostatic hypotension (40 mmHg) and she had hyponatremia (124 mmol/l) and a low serum osmolality (266 mOsm/l). Intoxication was ruled out and a diagnosis of inappropriate secretion of antidiuretic hormone was made. The patient was then held. Over the next ten days her serum sodium levels returned to the normal range.

3.3.4 Gastrointestinal Effects

Colitis

Xerostomia

3.3.4.A Colitis

1) ISCHEMIC COLITIS, requiring surgical intervention, has been reported in one patient following the ingested quantity of imipramine (Patel et al, 1992). The individual was a 38-year-old female with a past medical history hospitalized following an ingestion of unspecified quantity of imipramine. Her serum imipramine level was 1,0 micrograms/milliliter. Over the next few days her abdomen became increasingly distended with rebound tenderness and absence of bowel sounds. Laparotomy revealed a necrotic ascending and transverse colon which was resected and the patient's condition improved.

3.3.4.B Xerostomia

- 1) XEROSTOMIA is frequently associated with imipramine therapy in usual therapeutic doses (150 mg/day). Xerostomia is often associated with gum shrinkage, inflammation of the oral cavity, stomatitis, cracking of the lips, dry mouth, pseudomembrane formation, hairy tongue with white or black or bald beefy red tongue, ill-fitting dentures and oral moniliasis. Discontinuation of the drug and/or treatment with pilocarpine (5 mg four times/day) usually results in an increase of salivation (Pollack, 1964; Winer & Bahn, 1967).
- 2) Imipramine, 75 mg every day, given to 12 volunteers in a placebo controlled study caused a significant decrease in salivary secretion rate (Sheth et al, 1979a).
- 3) A comparison of 5 different antidepressants on salivary flow reveals that amitriptyline and doxepin had the highest salivation and desipramine the least (Blackwell et al, 1980). Imipramine and nortriptyline were intermediate in their effects.

3.3.5 Hematologic Effects

3.3.5.A Hematology finding

- 1) Summary
 - a) Some of the following adverse effects have not been associated with imipramine but have occurred with other antidepressants. These include BONE MARROW DEPRESSION including AGRANULOCYTOSIS, EOSINOPHILIC PURPURA, and THROMBOCYTOPENIA (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995). IMIPRAMINE-induced agranulocytosis about 10 cases have been reported (Gravenor et al, 1986).
- 2) A 59-year-old white female treated with imipramine 50 mg three times per day for 2 months developed agranulocytosis which was fatal. The patient died 2 weeks after discontinuing imipramine (Hnatko, 1965).
- 3) A 55-year-old male treated with 25 mg/day of IMIPRAMINE developed asymptomatic eosinophilia. The peripheral white blood cell count was noted to be 19,650 which gradually decreased in association with an eosinophil count of 693 (300). All through the course the patient remained asymptomatic and well. Following discontinuation of the drug the eosinophilia subsided (Penick & Carrier, 1967).

3.3.6 Hepatic Effects

3.3.6.A Hepatotoxicity

- 1) Summary
 - a) Hepatotoxicity induced by imipramine (hepatic necrosis) occurs infrequently. The mechanism by which the reaction occurs is unknown, but may be a hypersensitivity reaction. Elevations in bilirubin, alkaline phosphatase, transaminases, and other liver function tests can occur within one to two weeks of the start of therapy. Complications include pruritus, jaundice, icterus, rashes (erythematous maculopapular, desquamation, xanthelasma and splenomegaly). Most cases improve following discontinuation of therapy. However, a few patients become so severe that they either died or required a liver transplant (Hynes, 1965; Powell et al, 1968; Grace, 1970; Morrow et al, 1989; Schaefer et al, 1990).
- 2) High, single-daily dosing of imipramine may be more hazardous to the liver than divided doses. A 33-year-old female receiving 300 mg (6 mg/kg) of imipramine at bedtime along with thiothixene 10 mg and developed an elevated liver function test (Moskovitz et al, 1982). Prior to the hospitalization for worsening mental status she had been receiving 200 mg of imipramine in divided doses. On day 26 of the single daily dosage of imipramine therapy, liver function tests revealed the following subjective complaints by the patient. The test revealed an elevation in liver enzymes. No baseline liver function tests were obtained at the time of hospitalization, but a previous liver function test taken one month after the initiation of therapy was normal. Antihepatitis A and B antibodies and HAA tests were negative. The imipramine therapy and the thiothixene therapy was continued. Two weeks following the discontinuation of the imipramine therapy the liver function tests returned to normal.
- 3) A 11-year-old boy developed fulminant HEPATIC FAILURE seven days after being started on imipramine for enuresis (Schaefer et al, 1990). Histologically, the liver showed massive HEPATOCELLULAR NECROSIS with proliferation and loss of parenchymal volume. Mild amounts of acute and chronic inflammation were found in the liver. Hepatocellular necrosis occurred predominantly in the pericentral areas with focal hemorrhage encircling the necrotic areas. The damage was so extensive a liver transplant was required.
- 4) A rare hypersensitivity reaction to imipramine is the development of myocarditis and HEPATITIS (Morrow et al, 1989).

3.3.7 Immunologic Effects

3.3.7.A Cross sensitivity reaction

1) Two patients developed a skin rash during therapy with desipramine (Norpramin(R)) and amitriptyline (Elavil, 1982). Discontinuation of these medications in each patient resulted in subsidence of the skin rash. Doxepin in the patient receiving desipramine and imipramine was substituted in the patient receiving amitriptyline. On recurrence of the rash did not occur. These data would suggest that substitution of a structurally dissimilar agent is a viable alternative in patients developing allergic skin reactions.

3.3.8 Musculoskeletal Effects

Fracture of bone, Nonvertebral

Hip fracture

Myasthenia gravis

3.3.8.A Fracture of bone, Nonvertebral

1) In a prospective, population-based, cohort study (n=7983) with a mean follow-up of 8.4 years, there was a nonvertebral fracture in adult participants older than 55 years of age (mean age of 77.5 years) who were currently using tricyclic antidepressant (TCA), including amitriptyline, clomipramine, dosulepine, doxepine, imipramine, maprotiline, and opipramol, compared to those who were not exposed to antidepressants. Current TCA use was associated with an increased risk of nonvertebral fracture (hazard ratio (HR), 1.6; 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.08 to 2.15) with no antidepressant use. Current TCA use was also associated with an increased risk of nonvertebral fracture (HR, 1.02 to 2.5) compared with past antidepressant use (n=1217). Duration of TCA use of greater than 6 months was associated with an increased risk of fractures when compared with no antidepressant use and with past antidepressant use. Fractures of the hip (most frequent), wrist, humerus, and pelvis were reported (Ziere et al, 2008).

3.3.8.B Hip fracture

1) An increased incidence of hip fracture was reported in elderly patients receiving psychotropic agents. This study was a control evaluation of 1021 patients with hip fractures and 5606 control patients. An increased risk of hip fracture was observed with the use of hypnotic/anxiolytic agents with a long elimination half-life (greater than 24 hours), tricyclic antidepressants, and antipsychotic agents. Current users were defined as subjects who had received a prescription in the 30 days prior to admission date for the initial hospitalization. The long half-life hypnotic/anxiolytic agents studied were lorazepam, clonazepam, and barbiturates (excluding phenobarbital). The tricyclic antidepressants included amitriptyline, imipramine; antipsychotic agents evaluated were thioridazine, haloperidol, chlorpromazine, and perphenazine. In contrast, shorter-acting hypnotic/anxiolytic agents (half-life of 24 hours or less) were not associated with an increased risk of hip fracture in these patients. The most frequently used agents in this category were diphenhydramine, hydroxyzine, and promethazine. The increased risk of hip fracture observed in this study was directly related to the doses of the drug and was not confounded by dementia. Additional studies are needed to confirm these results in other populations and to evaluate the effects of other psychotropic drugs that have less pronounced sedative effects (1987).

3.3.8.C Myasthenia gravis

See Drug Consult reference: DRUG-INDUCED MYASTHENIA GRAVIS

3.3.9 Neurologic Effects

Akathisia

Central nervous system finding

Cerebral ischemia

Gilles de la Tourette's syndrome

Impaired psychomotor performance

Myoclonus

Seizure

Suicidal thoughts

Tremor

3.3.9.A Akathisia

1) One patient developed akathisia while receiving imipramine therapy and 4 others developed the same with desipramine, trazodone, or tranylcypromine. The imipramine patient was a 54-year-old female who was treated with imipramine for depression. After titrating the dose of imipramine to 150 mg/day, the patient complained of a feeling in her legs and the inability to remain still. Propranolol 10 mg three times daily was started, and the symptoms completely resolved within several hours of the first dose. Discontinuation of the propranolol resulted in a recurrence of symptoms within 24 hours (Zubenko et al, 1987).

3.3.9.B Central nervous system finding

1) Summary

a) Some of the following adverse effects have not been associated with imipramine but have occurred with antidepressants. These include NUMBNESS, TINGLING, PARESTHESIAS of the extremities, ATAXIA, EXTRAPYRAMIDAL SYMPTOMS, PERIPHERAL NEUROPATHY, SEIZURES, EEG CHANGES, CONFUSION STATES with HALLUCINATIONS especially in the elderly, DISORIENTATION, DELUSIONS, FORGETFULNESS, ANXIETY, RESTLESSNESS, AGITATION, INSOMNIA, NIGHTMARES, HYPOMANIA, and exacerbation of Tourette's syndrome (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995; Davies et al, 1971). PARANOIA, AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR (Rampling, 1979; Petti, 1979), psychomotor impairment (Clayton et al, 1977a), delirium (Godwin, 1983), myoclonus (Garvey 1987), akathisia (Zubenko et al, 1987), and Tourette's syndrome (Parraga & Cochran, 1992) have been reported with the use of imipramine; SUICIDAL IDEATION is a potential side effect of imipramine (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995). LEARNING IMPAIRMENT in a social context is NOT seen with tricyclic antidepressants (Gillis, 1992).

3.3.9.C Cerebral ischemia

1) A 59-year-old male treated with usual therapeutic doses of imipramine for mild depression developed cerebral attacks (Brechtler, 1968). Two weeks after starting drug therapy PARESTHESIA over the entire left side of his face with short attacks of SPEECH DISTURBANCES. The drug was discontinued but PARESIS continued to progress and total stenosis of the medial cerebral artery. Although no definite cause and effect relationship was established the author postulated that tricyclic antidepressants may cause recurrent ischemic attacks in persons with partial blockage of the cerebral arteries.

3.3.9.D Gilles de la Tourette's syndrome

1) Two children experienced tics or Tourette's syndrome that may have been precipitated by imipramine (Parraga 1992). Motor (throat clearing, head shaking) and vocal tics (stuttering, echolalia, palilalia, profane utterances) developed two weeks after treatment with imipramine (75 to 100 mg/day) for attention deficit hyperactivity disorder concurrent depression. The tics remained despite discontinuation of the imipramine. Remission of the tics was achieved through the use of haloperidol and thioridazine.

3.3.9.E Impaired psychomotor performance

1) A placebo-controlled study of healthy male volunteers demonstrated DETERIORATION OF DRIVING SKILL in those who received 25 mg imipramine three times a day compared with 10 who received placebo and 10 who were controls (Clayton 1977a).

3.3.9.F Myoclonus

1) A high incidence of myoclonus was reported during cyclic antidepressant therapy with imipramine, desipramine, amitriptyline, doxepin, trazodone, nortriptyline, and maprotiline (Garvey & Tollefson, 1987). Ninety-eight patients with depression (93) or panic disorder were treated with these agents in initial doses of 50 mg daily of imipramine increasing to a maximum of 300 mg daily after several weeks. Of these patients, 39 (40%) developed myoclonus during therapy, with the myoclonus being clinically significant in 9 (9%) and resulting in withdrawal of the antidepressant medication change. Myoclonus occurred within one month of initiation of therapy in 81% of the 39 patients, with 25 developing myoclonus within 2 weeks; the mean dose of antidepressant administered at the time of myoclonus was 250 mg daily in imipramine equivalents, which was similar to the mean dose utilized by the patients not developing myoclonus (250 mg daily). Myoclonus was reversible upon withdrawal of the antidepressant but persisted if medication changes were made; however, spontaneous remission of myoclonus was observed in 9 patients. No predictors for the development of myoclonus were observed.

3.3.9.G Seizure

1) Summary

a) Imipramine has been shown to decrease the convulsive threshold (Misurec & Nahunek, 1969) and has been documented to cause seizure disorders including the occurrence of GRAND MAL TONIC-CLONIC SEIZURES with or without seizure histories. Three reports have cited cases in pediatric patients (Fromm et al, 1972; Petti & Campbell, 1975b). However, cases of grand mal seizures occurring in younger adults (30 years old) have been reported (Fromm et al, 1972; Kaufmann, 1974). Discontinuation of the tricyclic antidepressant and/or instituting anticonvulsant therapy usually results in control of seizures.

2) A 25-year-old female that had been treated with 4 weeks therapy of imipramine (150 mg/day) and cloraze developed a seizure following the abrupt discontinuation of clorazepate therapy (Simons, 1983). Since the seizure solely contributed to the abrupt discontinuation of the clorazepate therapy, the author feels that all patients receiving prescriptions for antidepressants and benzodiazepines should avoid the abrupt discontinuation of the benzodiazepines. See Drug Consult reference: COMPARATIVE INCIDENCE OF SEIZURES FROM ANTIDEPRESSANTS

3.3.9.H Suicidal thoughts

1) Adult and pediatric patients being treated with antidepressants for major depressive disorder who experience anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility (aggressiveness), impulsivity, akathisia (psychic restlessness), hypomania, or mania may be at risk of suicidal ideation and behavior (SUICIDALITY). This risk is similar to treating patients with other psychiatric and nonpsychiatric disorders. If these symptoms are observed, they should be reevaluated and it may be necessary to discontinue medications when symptoms are severe, sudden in onset, or different from the patient's initial symptoms. Patients and their caregivers should be provided with the Medication Guide for this drug (Anon, 2004).

2) A causal role for antidepressants in inducing suicidality has been established in pediatric patients. Anyone using antidepressants in a child or adolescent must balance this risk with the clinical need. In pooled analyses of placebo-controlled trials of nine antidepressants (citalopram, fluoxetine, fluvoxamine, paroxetine, sertraline, bupropion, mirtazapine, nefazodone, and venlafaxine extended-release) including over 4400 pediatric patients with major depressive disorder, obsessive compulsive disorder, or other psychiatric disorders, a greater risk of suicidal behavior or ideation in the first few months of therapy was demonstrated in patients receiving antidepressants as compared with placebo (respectively). The risk of suicidality was most consistently observed in the trials that included patients with major depressive disorder, but there were signs of risk emerging from trials in other psychiatric indications, such as obsessive compulsive disorder and social anxiety disorder. No suicides occurred in these trials. The risk of suicidality during longer-term treatment (beyond several months) in pediatric patients is not known. It is also unknown whether this risk extends to adults (Anon, 2004).

3.3.9.I Tremor

1) Imipramine-induced TREMOR occurred in a 61-year-old male. Following doses of 75 mg daily for 3 days, he developed a marked action tremor of the upper extremities which was smooth and rhythmic (6 to 9 cycles per second) and interfered with routine activities. The tremor did not worsen when the dose of imipramine was increased to 150 mg daily. Propranolol (20 mg twice a day) produced attenuation of the tremor within 25 to 48 hours (Kronfol et al, 1983).

2) Some patients with panic disorder on imipramine therapy may develop a jitteriness syndrome (Yeragani et al, 1983). This condition is characterized by jitteriness, restlessness, trouble sitting still, insomnia, increased energy, increased heart rate, and possibly decreased serum iron level. Whether iron supplementation will prevent or treat this syndrome remains to be determined.

3.3.11 Otic Effects

3.3.11.A Ototoxicity

1) TINNITUS has been reported in 4 patients: a 37-year-old female, a 30-year-old female, a 15-year-old female, and a 61-year-old male, all receiving 50 to 150 mg imipramine daily. Tinnitus disappeared when the imipramine dose was reduced. The females and the male required a change in therapy (Racy & Ward-Racy, 1980).

2) Five additional reports of tinnitus secondary to imipramine therapy have been published (Tandon et al, 1983). All patients had no history of tinnitus or other otologic abnormalities. All patients developed tinnitus during the second or third week of treatment, with doses of 150 to 250 mg daily of imipramine (combined plasma imipramine-desipramine levels 450 ng/mL). The tinnitus subsided spontaneously within 2 to 4 weeks without any specific treatment in all patients. In 3 patients, imipramine was maintained and in 2 patients, it was increased. Based upon a chart review of 475 patients treated at the University of Michigan Medical Center, the authors indicate that approximately 1% of patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants develop tinnitus.

3) A 38-year-old depressed female developed ringing in her ears one week after the dose of imipramine was increased to 150 mg/day (Laird & Lydiard, 1989). She had no history of ear problems and denied using aspirin or other salicylate medication. The tinnitus was only mildly bothersome and no abnormalities could be found on physical examination. The dose of imipramine was increased to 150 mg/day during the second week. The tinnitus persisted for approximately six weeks and then diminished without any changes in drug therapy.

3.3.12 Psychiatric Effects

Aggressive behavior

Delirium

Psychotic disorder

Sleep disorder

3.3.12.A Aggressive behavior

- 1) A 26-year-old male treated with a single oral dose of imipramine for cataplexy developed a feeling of aggression that increased intensely over the next half hour with the patient struggling to keep control. The patient was noted to be staggering, and feelings of drunkenness. It was noted that the patient had previously received diazepam and (Rampling, 1976). In addition, increased aggression was reported in 2 depressed boys, ages 12 and 6 years, on imipramine therapy (Pallmeyer & Petti, 1979).
- 2) Four cases of rapid onset untoward aggressiveness was associated with the use of tricyclic antidepressants. In these cases the aggressive behavior coincided with the reintroduction of the tricyclic antidepressant. The mechanism of the paradoxical response of rapid onset and qualitative characteristics of their reaction are consistent with a problem in the reticular formation which is the rationale for their usefulness in cataplexy (Rampling, 1978).

3.3.12.B Delirium

- 1) Summary
 - a) Risk factors for the development of tricyclic-induced delirium include high tricyclic serum concentration, organic brain disease, and concomitant neuroleptic therapy (Godwin, 1983).
- 2) A 31-year-old hospitalized female developed delirium during imipramine therapy; the patient had no known psychiatric history (Godwin, 1983). Initially she presented with a hypomanic reaction (characterized by restlessness, hyperactivity, lability of mood, and insomnia) that later developed into the delirium reaction (disorientation to time and place, incoherent speech, periods of blank stares, periods of unresponsiveness, visual distortions, hallucinations) while on imipramine therapy. Plasma imipramine concentrations were in the low end of the therapeutic range. Thus, in some patients delirium may occur in some patients as an idiosyncratic reaction unrelated to imipramine serum concentration.

3.3.12.C Psychotic disorder

- 1) Summary
 - a) Psychotic reactions following doses of imipramine ranging from 75 to 600 mg/day have been reported and included DISORIENTATION, AGITATION, CONFUSION, RESTLESSNESS, INSOMNIA, tremor, ATAXIA, HALLUCINATIONS, PARANOIA and other abnormal manifestations. Some data suggests that these effects occur more frequently in elderly patients and/or those receiving higher doses. Discontinuation of the drug results in the resolution and disappearance of the symptoms (Kane & Keeler, 1964; Ananth, 1973; Wilson et al, 1974; Schuller Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995).
- 2) A high number of geriatric patients on tricyclic antidepressant therapy have developed confusional reactions characterized by restlessness, sleep disturbances, FORGETFULNESS, agitation, disorientation, and DELUSIONS. This reaction appears to be dose-related and is possibly due to the central anticholinergic effects of these drugs. These episodes are reported to develop within the first 2 weeks of drug therapy and are usually self-limiting, lasting from 3 to 20 days. Reduction of dosage or discontinuation of the drug appears to result in resolution of these confusional reactions (Davies et al, 1971).

3.3.12.D Sleep disorder

- 1) Imipramine can markedly suppress REM sleep (REM time, REM activity, and number of REM periods) in adults (Shain et al, 1990).

3.3.13 Renal Effects**3.3.13.A Nephrotoxicity**

- 1) A 65-year-old white male was treated with doses of up to 100 mg three times/day of imipramine for 24 days and developed RENAL DAMAGE (Sathanathan & Gershon, 1973c). The patient developed symptoms of anorexia, confusion, disorientation, and tremulousness in association with elevated BUN (80 mg/dL) and creatinine (2.5 mg/dL). Urine output fell to 725 mL/day despite a fluid intake of approximately 2.5 L. Discontinuation of imipramine resulted in improvement of this clinical condition and abnormal laboratory values returning to normal by the third day.

3.3.14 Reproductive Effects**3.3.14.A Sexual dysfunction**

- 1) ERECTILE DYSFUNCTION and EJACULATORY DELAY or loss has been reported in depressed and non-depressed patients on a minimum daily dose of 75 mg. Pain on ejaculation (Couper-Smartt & Rodham, 1973; Simpson et al, 1965; Grizenberg et al, 1991) and loss of libido (Jenkins et al, 1976) as well as increased libido has been reported (Simpson et al, 1965).
- 2) The occurrence of sexual dysfunction associated with antidepressant therapy is frequent. Decreases in sexual function occur in 8% of males and 16% of females treated with placebo, 80% of males and 57% of females treated with imipramine and 50% of males and 27% of females treated with imipramine (Harrison et al, 1985). Sexual dysfunctions reported include DECREASE IN LIBIDO, excitement, and orgasm and a delay in ejaculation. Similar results have been reported by the same group of investigators (Harrison et al, 1986).
- 3) Other investigators feel that long-term treatment with imipramine has no negative effect on sexual function (Harrison et al, 1994). Instead they feel that the presence of depressive symptoms is associated with diminished libido or decreased sexual pleasure. An evaluation of 90 patients with a major depressive disorder treated with imipramine found no relationship between imipramine and sexual function in the total group or the females alone. The number of males included in the study was inadequate to draw any conclusions regarding population.
- 4) A 51-year-old male was treated with an initial dose of 75 mg/day which was reduced to oral imipramine 25 mg/day.

weeks and developed erectile IMPOTENCE at the higher dose. Potency rapidly returned upon decreasing the 25 mg/day (Greenberg, 1965).

5) ANORGASMIA has been reported in a woman treated with imipramine therapy and disappeared when de was substituted for the imipramine (Sovner, 1983).

See Drug Consult reference: DRUG-INDUCED SEXUAL DYSFUNCTION

3.3.15 Respiratory Effects

3.3.15.A Acute respiratory distress syndrome

1) A 15-year-old was admitted to the emergency department following the ingestion of 5 grams (150 mg/kg) approximately 45 minutes prior to arrival (Flaherty et al, 1986). Within 5 hours of ingestion the patient develop hypoxemia, increased QS/QT, and decreased lung compliance. At that time a diagnosis of adult respiratory d (ARDS) was made. Positive end-expiratory pressure (PEEP) resulted in an improvement in lung compliance, shunting. Whether or not the development of adult respiratory distress syndrome ARDS was a direct result of overdose or the development of bradycardia, hypoxemia, metabolic acidosis, hypotension or physostigmine t unknown.

3.3.16 Other

Drug tolerance - finding

Withdrawal sign or symptom

3.3.16.A Drug tolerance - finding

1) Tolerance to the therapeutic effects of IMIPRAMINE therapy has been reported in a small number of patie Baldessarini, 1985). Usually these patients initially respond to therapy and then weeks to months later they re continued antidepressant therapy. Remission can usually be regained by increasing the dose of the medicati medication. The exact mechanism for the development of this tolerance is not known.

3.3.16.B Withdrawal sign or symptom

1) Withdrawal symptoms have been associated with the discontinuation of tricyclic antidepressant therapy a to 55% of the patients. These symptoms frequently occur within the first 24 to 48 hours after cessation of the withdrawal period is characterized by general somatic malaise (muscle aches, coryza, excessive sweating), (nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, and abdominal pain), motor restlessness, and/or neuropsychiatric symptoms (dr irritability, agitation, and recurrence of depressed mood). Restarting imipramine therapy generally improves tl prevent the occurrence of this withdrawal reaction, the imipramine therapy should be withdrawn gradually, wf (Sathanathan & Gershon, 1973a; Stern & Mendels, 1980; Petti & Law, 1981; Shrivastava & Itil, 1985; Prod I 1995).

2) Children withdrawn from high-dose imipramine therapy over 3 to 10 days may develop a withdrawal syndr 1981). The syndrome is characterized by nausea, vomiting, decreased appetite, tearfulness, headaches, agit It is thought that this withdrawal syndrome may be the result of a cholinergic rebound following the discontinu anticholinergic medications. Extending the duration of the tapering period may be helpful in avoiding the occu syndrome, but there is no clinical evidence to support this theory.

3) A 53-year-old woman, with a 25-year history of unipolar depression but no evidence of bipolar illness, dev cycling bipolar disorder following abrupt discontinuation of her long-term tricyclic antidepressant therapy (Jon The bipolar illness presented as hypomania 2 days after stopping drug therapy. The hypomanic period was ft depression and subsequent fluctuation between mania and depression, each lasting from 2 to 8 weeks.

4) Multifocal premature ventricular contractions (PVCs) occurred in a 62-year-old woman following withdraw: The depressed women had preexisting nonspecific intraventricular conduction delay (Regan et al, 1989). Imij daily) was tapered over a 4-day period, and then doxepin was initiated at a dose of 50 mg at bedtime. PVCs : observed the day following discontinuance of imipramine. Reinitiation of imipramine therapy (100 mg daily) p1 sinus rhythm with only occasional uniform PVCs, and no couplets, multiforms, runs, or pauses. It was felt tha drug resulted in rebound irritability with resultant aberrant rhythms. Tricyclic antidepressants should be withdr with frequent EKG monitoring, in patients with a preexisting conduction defects. In patients with no suspectec defect, monitoring for signs of ectopy should be undertaken during withdrawal.

5) Withdrawal of imipramine therapy used to treat postpsychotic depression after six months in six schizophr resulted in DEPRESSIVE RELAPSES (Siris et al, 1989). All six patients had benefit from the initial addition o their fluphenazine decanoate and benzotropine therapy. After six months the dose of imipramine was decreas weekly intervals without the patient knowledge until it was discontinued. All six patients had experienced recu depressive-like state and three manifested a coincident exacerbation of psychotic symptoms. While only one maintained on all three drugs experienced a depressive-like relapse.

3.4 Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy/Breastfeeding

A) Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy

1) Australian Drug Evaluation Committee's (ADEC) Category: C (Batagol, 1996)

a) Drugs which, owing to their pharmacological effects, have caused or may be suspected of causing harmful human fetus or neonate without causing malformations. These effects may be reversible. Accompanying text consulted for further details.

See Drug Consult reference: PREGNANCY RISK CATEGORIES

2) Crosses Placenta: Yes

3) Clinical Management

a) Due to reported teratogenic effects, use of imipramine during pregnancy should be avoided if possible, especially in the first trimester. The dangers of failure to treat major depression, however, are obvious, and in each case these are weighed against the potential for teratogenic effects. If pregnancy occurs during treatment, the patient should be monitored for possible consequences to the fetus.

4) Literature Reports

a) Imipramine has been associated with teratogenic effects, however, a clear causal relationship has not been established. In a large cohort study (Heinonen et al, 1977), of 19 mother-child pairs exposed to imipramine in the first trimester, no malformations were reported, suggesting an increased risk of teratogenic effects.

b) A review of the Finnish register of congenital malformations for 1964 to 1972 revealed 3 possible cases of effects (2 cleft lips, 1 CNS anomaly) that were related to the use of an imipramine/chloropyramine combination (Heikkila & Saxen, 1973).

c) Neonatal intoxication and withdrawal symptoms may be observed with maternal use of imipramine. Symptoms in the neonate include cyanosis, respiratory distress, vasomotor instability, irritability, hypokinesia, convulsions, increased respiratory rate, autonomic dysfunction, hypoactivity, and belly dance movements of the abdomen (Anon, 1983; Shrand, 1982).

d) Several infants have been described who developed transient respiratory and neurological symptoms possibly in relation to maternal imipramine. Of 3 infants whose mothers had used imipramine throughout the pregnancy, the infants developed postnatal symptoms of irritability, restlessness, inconsolable crying, tachypnea, cyanosis, fasciculations, and tremors. One infant developed signs of heart failure despite a normal electrocardiogram, a heart rate of 180 per minute, and absence of a congenital cardiac malformation. One infant experienced laryngeal spasms and respiratory difficulties (Eggermont et al, 1972).

e) Based on data collected through the Motherisk Program, there appear to be no differences in cognitive function, temperament and general behavior in children exposed to imipramine throughout gestation when compared to children born to mothers who were not exposed (Eggermont et al, 2002). However, among infants who were exposed to either fluoxetine or tricyclic antidepressants though those born to mothers with uncontrolled depressive symptoms showed lower cognitive and language achievement than those born to mothers who were well-controlled (Nulman et al, 2002).

B) Breastfeeding

1) American Academy of Pediatrics Rating: Drugs for which the effect on nursing infants is unknown but may be harmful (2001)

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

a) Available evidence and/or expert consensus is inconclusive or is inadequate for determining infant risk when breastfeeding. Weigh the potential benefits of drug treatment against potential risks before prescribing this drug while breastfeeding.

3) Clinical Management

a) Imipramine and its metabolite, desipramine, appear in breast milk in low concentrations. The potential for harm to the nursing infant has not been evaluated. When the maternal dose is high, exposure of the infant to the drug may be minimized by limiting the number of feeds per day (Bennett, 1996).

4) Literature Reports

a) The amount of imipramine and desipramine available to an infant is small. The amount of imipramine in breast milk was 4 to 29 ng/mL and desipramine was 17 to 35 ng/mL; a milk:plasma ratio of 1 has been suggested (Saxen, 1979).

5) Drug Levels in Breastmilk

a) Parent Drug

1) Milk to Maternal Plasma Ratio

a) 1 (Briggs et al, 1998)

b) Active Metabolites

1) desipramine (Sallee & Pollock, 1990)

3.5 Drug Interactions

Drug-Drug Combinations

Drug-Food Combinations

Drug-Tobacco Combinations

Intravenous Admixtures

3.5.1 Drug-Drug Combinations

Acecainide

Acenocoumarol

Ajmaline

Alprazolam

Amiodarone

Amisulpride

Amobarbital

Amphetamine

Amprenavir

Anisindione

Aprindine

Aprobarbital

Arbutamine

Arformoterol

Arsenic Trioxide

Astemizole

Atazanavir

Atomoxetine

Azimilide

Belladonna

Belladonna Alkaloids

Bepridil

Bethanidine

Bretylium

Bupropion

Butabarbital

Butalbital

Butalbital
Cannabis
Carbamazepine
Chloral Hydrate
Chloroquine
Chlorotrianisene
Cimetidine
Cisapride
Citalopram
Clarithromycin
Clonidine
Clorgyline
Conjugated Estrogens
Darifenacin
Dexfenfluramine
Dexmethylphenidate
Dextroamphetamine
Dicumarol
Dienestrol
Diethylpropion
Diethylstilbestrol
Diltiazem
Disopyramide
Disulfiram
Dofetilide
Dolasetron
Droperidol
Duloxetine

Enflurane
Epinephrine
Erythromycin
Esterified Estrogens
Estradiol
Estriol
Estrone
Estropipate
Eterobarb
Ethinyl Estradiol
Etilefrine
Fenfluramine
Fenfluramine
Flecainide
Fluconazole
Fluoxetine
Fluvoxamine
Formoterol
Fosamprenavir
Foscarnet
Fosphenytoin
Gatifloxacin
Gemifloxacin
Grepafloxacin
Guanadrel
Guanethidine
Guanfacine
Halofantrine

Haloperidol

Halothane

Heptabarbital

Hexobarbital

Hydroquinidine

Ibutilide

Iobenguane I 131

Iproniazid

Isocarboxazid

Isoflurane

Isradipine

Ketoconazole

Labetalol

Levomethadyl

Lidoflazine

Linezolid

Lisdexamfetamine

Lorcainide

Lumefantrine

Mazindol

Mephentermine

Mephobarbital

Mesoridazine

Mestranol

Methamphetamine

Methohexital

Methoxamine

Methylphenidate

Mibefradil
Midodrine
Moclobemide
Moxifloxacin
Nefopam
Nialamide
Norepinephrine
Octreotide
Oxilofrine
Pargyline
Paroxetine
Pemoline
Pentamidine
Pentobarbital
Phendimetrazine
Phenelzine
Phenindione
Phenmetrazine
Phenobarbital
Phenprocoumon
Phentermine
Phenylephrine
Phenytoin
Pimozide
Pirmenol
Prajmaline
Primidone
Procainamide

Procarbazine
Prochlorperazine
Propafenone
Propranolol
Propylhexedrine
Quetiapine
Quinestrol
Quinidine
Quinidine
Rasagiline
Risperidone
Ritonavir
Ropivacaine
S-Adenosylmethionine
Salmeterol
Secobarbital
Selegiline
Sematilide
Sertindole
Sertraline
Sotalol
Sparfloxacin
Spiramycin
St John's Wort
Sulfamethoxazole
Sultopride
Tapentadol
Tedisamil

Telithromycin
Terfenadine
Thiopental
Thioridazine
Tibolone
Toloxatone
Tramadol
Tranlycypromine
Trifluoperazine
Trimethoprim
Vasopressin
Venlafaxine
Verapamil
Warfarin
Ziprasidone
Zolmitriptan
Zotepine

3.5.1.A Acecainide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmics, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1991) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and flecainide (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.B Acenocoumarol

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagulant warfarin (1970c; Williams et al, 1976c). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975c).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants and oral anticoagulant therapy, the prothrombin time (PT) or INR (international normalized ratio) should be closely monitored with the addition and withdrawal of therapy and should be periodically reassessed during concurrent therapy. Achieving a stable drug regimen which provides a target level of anticoagulation may be difficult in patients on this combination, and frequent adjustments of the anticoagulant dose may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased acenocoumarol metabolism; increased acenocoumarol absorption
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all studies (1975b). This effect was not observed with warfarin.
 - b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after 8 days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged half-life and decreased volume of distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in 6 healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1976). The mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered clearance.
 - c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCA (1976b). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of warfarin. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.C Ajmaline

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. Co-administration of Class Ia antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme is unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to therapy containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity.
 - b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avoided in patients with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpful (Coull et al, 1970).
 - c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with cardiac disease and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial contractions and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. One patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations and 12 premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVD per hour after therapy. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour after therapy. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are used with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1970).

3.5.1.D Alprazolam

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased imipramine plasma concentrations
- 2) Summary: Imipramine steady state plasma concentrations increased an average of 31% when used concurrently with alprazolam at doses up to 4 mg/day. The clinical significance of this increase is unknown. A decrease in the imipramine dose should be considered for patients who are being treated with alprazolam and imipramine concurrently and who experience an increase in side effects such as dry eyes and mouth, constipation, decreased urination, or arrhythmias (Prod Info Zanax(TM) orally disintegrating tablet, 2003).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of alprazolam and imipramine may increase the plasma concentrations of imipramine. The clinical significance of this increase is unknown. If signs or symptoms of increased imipramine toxicity such as blurred vision, dry mouth, constipation, urinary retention, or arrhythmias are noticed, a downward dosage adjustment of imipramine should be considered.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.E Amiodarone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1991) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and ranolazine (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong 2003).

3.5.1.F Amisulpride

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001) (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Prod Info Pamelor(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982t).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged corrected QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. The proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.1.G Amobarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to the drug-free controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.H Amphetamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported enhanced amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A sin also occur with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been n (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most co not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs l moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been rep therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of agents and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympatho could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) o Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral i Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension ar
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agen coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXE sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism c antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transde 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm of combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure return normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine c four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transi clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desiprami 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may oc therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant dru depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.I Amprenavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased tricyclic serum concentrations and potential toxicity (anticholinergic effects, si cardiac arrhythmias)
- 2) Summary: Coadministered amprenavir may increase serum concentrations of tricyclic antidepressants, ce risk of arrhythmias or other serious adverse effects. Currently no interaction study has been conducted. Amp metabolized by cytochrome P450 3A4 enzymes in addition to being a CYP3A4 inhibitor, and tricyclics may pe this pathway for metabolism. Plasma concentrations of the tricyclic should be closely monitored and dose adj accordingly in patients also receiving amprenavir (Prod Info Agenerase(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If concomitant therapy with amprenavir and a tricyclic antidepressant is unavoidable concentrations of the tricyclic should be closely monitored and dose adjustments made accordingly. Also mo signs and symptoms of tricyclic toxicity (anticholinergic effects, sedation, confusion, cardiac arrhythmias).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450-mediated tricyclic metabolism

3.5.1.J Anisindione

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagul 1970k; Williams et al, 1976k). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975k).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants and oral anticoagulant therapy, the pr ratio or INR (international normalized ratio) should be closely monitored with the addition and withdrawal of th and should be periodically reassessed during concurrent therapy. Achieving a stable drug regimen which pro level of anticoagulation may be difficult in patients on this combination, and frequent adjustments of the antic

be required.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased anisindione metabolism; increased anisindione absorption

8) Literature Reports

a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all subjects (1975j). This effect was not observed with warfarin.

b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after 8 days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in 6 healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1976). A mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered coupling.

c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCAs (1976j). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of warfarin. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.K Aprindine

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Class I antiarrhythmics have 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 Class I antiarrhythmics known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Tambo acetate, 1998; Laroche et al, 1984; Scagliotti et al, 1982).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class I antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

8) Literature Reports

a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flattened T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982q).

b) A 68-year-old man suffering from agitated major depression was begun on a dose of desipramine 120 mg daily produced a subtherapeutic serum level of 442 nmol/L (therapeutic range = 500 to 1000 nmol/L). An increase in the dose to 150 mg daily produced excellent clinical response with no side effects. He developed atrial fibrillation and flutamide 250 mg daily was added to his therapy, and desipramine was discontinued. His arrhythmia was suppressed with propafenone 150 mg twice daily and 300 mg at bedtime. Desipramine 150 mg daily was again begun, but he experienced dry mouth, sedation, and shakiness; the desipramine serum level was measured at 2092 nmol/L. Desipramine was discontinued for five days, the side effects ceased, and desipramine therapy was resumed. The desipramine serum level was measured at 1130 nmol/L (Katz, 1991).

3.5.1.L Aprobarrital

1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects

2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.

3) Severity: minor

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.

7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to the drug-free controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.M Arbutamine

1) Interaction Effect: unreliable arbutamine test results

2) Summary: Because tricyclic antidepressants may affect heart rate, arbutamine should not be administered to patients receiving a tricyclic antidepressant, since arbutamine test results may be unreliable (Prod Info GenESA(R), 1998).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

- 6) Clinical Management: Arbutamine should not be administered to a patient receiving tricyclic antidepressant
- 7) Probable Mechanism: alteration of heart rate by the tricyclic antidepressant

3.5.1.N Arformoterol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiovascular excitation
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration of arformoterol with a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) may lead to potentiation of arformoterol's adrenergic effects on the cardiovascular system. Therefore, extreme caution is advised if arformoterol is administered to patients who are being treated with a TCA (Prod Info BROVANA(TM) inhalation solution, 2006).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Extreme caution and close observation for adverse cardiovascular effects are warranted when arformoterol is administered concurrently with a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) as the cardiovascular effects of the TCA may be potentiated by TCAs (Prod Info BROVANA(TM) inhalation solution, 2006).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: potentiation of cardiovascular effects

3.5.1.O Arsenic Trioxide

- 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 arsenic trioxide. Pharmacodynamic interactions can occur between arsenic trioxide and potentially arrhythmogenic agents such as tricyclic antidepressants that prolong the QT interval (Prod Info Trisenox(R), 2000a). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of arsenic trioxide and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982ai).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of arsenic trioxide and other drugs that may prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving amitriptyline, compared to zero out of 53 in the control group using a hospital based information system. It is recommended that amitriptyline not be used in patients with underlying cardiac disease except when debilitated and no other drugs were helpful (Moir et al, 1972a; Coull et al, 1970a).
 - b) QT/QTc prolongation should be expected during treatment with arsenic trioxide and torsades de pointes or complete heart block has been reported. Over 460 ECG tracings from 40 patients with refractory or relapsing ventricular tachycardia were evaluated for QTc prolongation. Sixteen of 40 patients (40%) had at least one QTc interval greater than 500 msec. Prolongation of the QTc was observed between 1 and 5 weeks after infusion, and then returned towards baseline by the end of 8 weeks after arsenic trioxide infusion. In these evaluations, women did not experience more pronounced QT prolongation than men, and there was no correlation between QTc prolongation and the duration of arsenic trioxide infusion (Prod Info Trisenox(R), 2000).

3.5.1.P Astemizole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic doses. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of astemizole and other drugs that prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999; Hismanal(R), 1996).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of astemizole and agents that prolong the QT interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A comprehensive discussion of the cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressants has been presented by Forker, 1982aj). Electrocardiogram effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased heart rate, prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QTc (QTc) and flattened T waves.

3.5.1.Q Atazanavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased plasma concentrations of tricyclic antidepressants (drowsiness, hypotension, etc.)
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of atazanavir and tricyclic antidepressants has not been studied. However, the combination of atazanavir and tricyclic antidepressants has the potential to produce serious and/or life-threatening adverse effects (Prod Info Reyataz(TM), 2003).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified

- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If atazanavir and tricyclic antidepressants are used concomitantly, monitor patient for signs and symptoms of tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (hypotension, akathisia, anticholinergic effects, sedation, cardiac arrhythmias).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.R 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, atomoxetine steady-state plasma concentrations are increased with selective inhibition such as imipramine. The exposure is similar to that observed in poor metabolizers. In extensive metabolizers imipramine, the area under the concentration-time curve of atomoxetine is approximately 6- to 8-fold greater, plasma concentration at steady-state is about 3- to 4-fold greater than atomoxetine alone (Prod Info Strattera).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Dosage adjustment of atomoxetine may be necessary when coadministered with imipramine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated metabolism of atomoxetine by imipramine.

3.5.1.S Azimilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, with antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong 2003).

3.5.1.T Belladonna

- 1) Interaction Effect: excessive anticholinergic activity (severe dry mouth, constipation, decreased urination, sedation, blurred vision)
- 2) Summary: The anticholinergic activity of the active alkaloids present in belladonna may predispose the patient to excessive anticholinergic activity if taken with tricyclic antidepressants. Belladonna contains L-hyoscyamine, atropine, and scopolamine with a total alkaloid content of at least 0.3% in the leaves and 0.5% in the roots (Blumenthal et al, 1998). Because belladonna is typically available as a homeopathic preparation, the clinical severity of the interaction with tricyclic antidepressants is not expected. 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, tachycardia, decreased sweating, mydriasis, blurred vision, elevated temperature, muscular weakness, and other effects. If severe effects are noted, belladonna should be discontinued immediately. In severe cases, paralytic ileus, confusion, agitation, delirium, and paranoia may be encountered as well as tachycardia, dysrhythmia, and hypotension. In severe cases, immediate medical attention should be obtained.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive anticholinergic effect

3.5.1.U Belladonna Alkaloids

- 1) Interaction Effect: excessive anticholinergic activity (severe dry mouth, constipation, decreased urination, sedation, blurred vision)
- 2) Summary: The anticholinergic activity of the active alkaloids present in belladonna may predispose the patient to excessive anticholinergic activity if taken with tricyclic antidepressants. Belladonna contains L-hyoscyamine, atropine, and scopolamine with a total alkaloid content of at least 0.3% in the leaves and 0.5% in the roots (Blumenthal et al, 1998). Because belladonna is typically available as a homeopathic preparation, the clinical severity of the interaction with tricyclic antidepressants is not expected. 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, ur tachycardia, decreased sweating, mydriasis, blurred vision, elevated temperature, muscular weakness, and effects are noted, belladonna should be discontinued immediately. In severe cases, paralytic ileus, confusion agitation, delusions, delirium, and paranoia may be encountered as well as tachycardia, dysrhythmia, and hy severe cases, immediate medical attention should be obtained.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive anticholinergic effect

3.5.1.V Bepridil

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: In US clinical trials, the QT and QTc intervals were commonly prolonged by bepridil in a dose-r (Prod Info Vascor(R), 2000). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) have been shown to prolong the QTc interval a recommended therapeutic dose (Marshall & Forker, 1982w).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of bepridil and other drugs which may prolong the QTc interval, incl antidepressants, is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.W Bethanidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased antihypertensive effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Antidepressants inhibit the uptake of bethanidine at its site of action in the adrenergic neuron. may last for several days after discontinuation of the antidepressant (Skinner et al, 1969a; Avery, 1973; Feag
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The combination of bethanidine and imipramine, as well as other tricyclic antidepre should be avoided. An alternative antihypertensive agent should be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased uptake of bethanidine into adrenergic neurons
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Adequate control of hypertension was reported in only 2 of 8 adult hypertensive patients who receive debrisoquine concurrently with a tricyclic antidepressant. In 24 control patients given the same drugs with antidepressants, blood pressure control was achieved in 18. Withdrawal of antidepressant therapy in sex resulted in postural hypotension that necessitated a reduction in dosage of bethanidine or debrisoquine (1969).

3.5.1.X Bretylium

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III anti agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sematilide (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Cla antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepres recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include incre prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, s antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interactio initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetric monitoring is advised (Yam 2003).

3.5.1.Y Bupropion

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased imipramine plasma level
- 2) Summary: Bupropion was reported to decrease clearance and increase plasma levels of imipramine and i metabolite desipramine in a 64-year-old woman (Shad & Preskorn, 1997a). Coadministration of bupropion wi metabolized by the cytochrome P450 2D6 isoenzyme, such as imipramine, should be approached with cautio initiated at the lower end of the dose range of imipramine. If bupropion is added to the treatment regimen of a

receiving imipramine, a decrease in the dose of imipramine should be considered (Prod Info Wellbutrin XL(TI Zyban(R), 2000).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: When imipramine is given with bupropion, monitor for signs of imipramine toxicity or imipramine plasma concentrations. Coadministration of imipramine with bupropion should be approached with caution. If bupropion is added to the treatment of a patient already receiving imipramine, consider decreasing the dose of imipramine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated imipramine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Bupropion was reported to decrease clearance and increase plasma levels of imipramine and its primary metabolite, desipramine, in a 64-year-old woman. This patient was treated with imipramine for 8 years prior to adding bupropion. Estimated imipramine clearance decreased from 1.7 mL/min without bupropion to 0.73 mL/min with bupropion. Additional studies are needed to confirm this observation (Shad & Preskorn, 1997).

3.5.1.Z Butabarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects with other CNS depressants
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of TCAs. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizure control by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations of TCAs may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were genotyped for polymorphisms with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.AA Butalbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased efficacy of imipramine
- 2) Summary: A 44-year old female on imipramine therapy experienced a relapse of her depressive disorder after the addition of a butalbital-containing product for headaches. Her imipramine concentration decreased by approximately 50% after the addition of butalbital, attributed to an induction of cytochrome P450 1A2 enzymes caused by butalbital (Garey et al, 1997a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Imipramine serum levels should be measured one week after the addition of butalbital. Dosage adjustments should be based on the results of the imipramine level and on the patient's response.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: induction of imipramine metabolism by butalbital
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 44-year old woman was admitted to a psychiatric unit for an exacerbation of her depression. At the time of admission, her antidepressant regimen included imipramine 300 mg daily, with an imipramine concentration of 174 ng/mL and a desipramine concentration of 134 ng/mL. These levels were considered within the normal range, and were similar to her past concentrations. Because of recurring headaches, she was prescribed a product containing butalbital 400 mg required 8 tablets (butalbital 400 mg) daily to control her headaches. The patient progressed well until two weeks after admission, when she again experienced a relapse of her depressive disorder. Concentrations at this time were imipramine 48 ng/mL and desipramine 122 ng/mL. Butalbital was the most reasonable explanation for the decrease in imipramine levels, so it was discontinued and imipramine was increased to 325 mg daily. However, further attempts at increasing imipramine concentrations were futile, since the patient restarted the butalbital-containing product from her stockpile at home (Garey et al, 1997).

3.5.1.AB Butalbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects with other CNS depressants
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of TCAs. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizure control by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.

- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the CYP2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.AC Cannabis

- 1) Interaction Effect: tachycardia and delirium
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tetrahydrocannabinol and tricyclic antidepressant therapy has increased the heart rate and delirium beyond that expected with either drug alone (Wilens et al, 1997a; Hillard & Vieweg, 1983a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is advised if patients use cannabis with a tricyclic antidepressant. Monitor heart rate and delirium closely.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possibly due to beta-adrenergic effect of cannabis coupled with the anticholinergic effects of tricyclic antidepressants
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 21-year-old female receiving oral nortriptyline 30 milligrams at bedtime for 9 months developed marked tachycardia (160 beats/minute) within 30 minutes of smoking a cannabis cigarette. The patient's heart rate returned to normal within 30 minutes before smoking the cannabis. She had used cannabis many times before starting the nortriptyline (Hillard & Vieweg, 1983).
 - b) Four cases of tachycardia, cognitive changes, and delirium have been reported in adolescent males taking tricyclic antidepressants who smoked marijuana. One of the four cases was evaluated by a physician, the other three are accounts of the event. The toxic effects were considered by the reporters to have resulted from a drug interaction. They occurred with lower doses of marijuana than are common in other reports of marijuana toxicity (usually 10-20 mg). In case 1, a 16-year-old male taking nortriptyline 75 mg/day presented with tachycardia (130 beats/minute), confusion, and short-term memory loss 30 minutes after smoking one marijuana cigarette. Symptoms resolved spontaneously after 24 hours. In case 2, an 18-year-old male taking desipramine 200 mg/day presented with tachycardia (110 beats/minute) and confusion after smoking marijuana with symptoms of edginess, severe dry mouth, lightheadedness, confusion, short-term memory impairment, and tachycardia (110 beats/minute). Symptoms resolved within 48 hours. Case 3, a 15-year-old male taking desipramine 150 mg/day and sertraline 50 mg/day, reported mood lability, irritability, and a racing heart after smoking marijuana cigarettes which resolved after 16 hours. Case 4, a 16-year-old male taking desipramine and nortriptyline reported mild shortness of breath, and elevated heart rate after smoking marijuana. This was more pronounced than the effect he experienced prior to taking desipramine (Wilens et al, 1997).

3.5.1.AD Carbamazepine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased imipramine effectiveness
- 2) Summary: In a retrospective study of 36 children suffering from hyperactivity secondary to attention deficit disorder, imipramine levels (imipramine and its metabolite desipramine) were decreased by 50% in children receiving carbamazepine compared to levels obtained with imipramine alone (Brown et al, 1990a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for clinical efficacy of the imipramine therapy and for any signs of toxicity of carbamazepine. Serum levels of both agents should be considered when either agent is added or discontinued, with appropriate adjustments made accordingly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased imipramine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In a retrospective study, of 36 children with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, the average plasma imipramine was significantly lower in patients treated with carbamazepine concurrently. The average dose of imipramine was 1.3 mg/kg in patients receiving imipramine alone, compared to an imipramine dose of 1.8 mg/kg in patients receiving both imipramine and carbamazepine. The plasma level of imipramine, desipramine, and total tricyclic antidepressant plasma levels were significantly lower in patients treated with carbamazepine concurrently. The dose of imipramine need to be increased if carbamazepine is added to therapy and the dose of imipramine may need to be decreased if carbamazepine is stopped (Brown et al, 1990).
 - b) Combination therapy with carbamazepine decreases steady-state total serum concentrations of imipramine.

concentrations of desipramine. Thirteen patients were treated with imipramine 2 mg/kg/day for 3 weeks, carbamazepine 400 mg/day was added. The ratios of total concentrations of imipramine to desipramine one and two weeks after carbamazepine intake (0.7 +/- 0.41 versus 0.63 +/- 0.36; p greater than 0.05). Free imipramine and desipramine were elevated after the addition of carbamazepine. Despite lower imipramine and desipramine total concentrations, the combination treatment with carbamazepine in depressed patients is tolerated. Dosage increase of imipramine does not appear to be necessary in the depressed patients included (Szymura-Oleksiak et al, 2001).

3.5.1.AE Chloral Hydrate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Chloral hydrate and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at therapeutic dose (Young et al, 1986; Marshall & Forker, 1982m). Even though no formal drug interaction study has been done, the coadministration of drugs known to prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of chloral hydrate and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AF Chloroquine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Chloroquine can prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachyarrhythmias, and torsades de pointes. Because tricyclic antidepressants may also prolong the QT interval and cause arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of chloroquine and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (R, 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982y).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of chloroquine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AG Chlorotrianisene

- 1) Interaction Effect: attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, etc)
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973e), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being increased (Prange, 1972e). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973e), of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogens (Krishnan et al, 1984e).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down on either the estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, dose adjustment may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In a study of depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily), while five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The ten patients receiving placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The ten patients taking estrogen and imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the ten patients taking imipramine alone. After two weeks, the five patients who received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side effect reported was drowsiness, which was reported by the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two weeks was allowed for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the presence of estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily) did not improve as much as ten patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combination had side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972d).
 - b) A case reported demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg (Khurana, 1972d). The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depersonalization. During years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg and then 7.5 mg daily. The patient became depressed, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. Upon discontinuing the combination, the side-effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from enhanced TCAs secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973d).
 - c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients'

clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the group; groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973b).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine were studied in 42 women between the ages of 11 to 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental group (three due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980b).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrogens were discontinued and benztropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution within 24 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily with amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, and had a constant desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 mg daily. She developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984d).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under the concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984c).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983b).

3.5.1.AH Cimetidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, blurred vision)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant cimetidine and imipramine therapy has resulted in inhibition of the metabolism of imipramine leading to prolonged half-life and elevated serum concentrations (Miller & Macklin, 1983a; Wells et al, 1986a; 1984b) and adverse effects (Miller & Macklin, 1983a; Sutherland et al, 1987; Wells et al, 1986a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Imipramine levels should be considered within the first few days of starting or discontinuing cimetidine. An alternative H2 blocker that does not appear to impair the metabolism of imipramine, such as rabeprazole, might be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a)** In a case report, a 32-year-old woman concurrently on cimetidine 300 mg four times daily for abdominal pain exhibited severe anticholinergic side effects and orthostatic hypotension with the addition of imipramine, (Miller & Macklin, 1983). Upon rechallenge, imipramine pharmacokinetics with and without cimetidine were compared. Concurrent administration of cimetidine 300 mg four times daily and imipramine 100 mg daily, steady state plasma concentration of imipramine was 44 hours and plasma clearance 210 mL/minute. The ratio of imipramine to desipramine calculated to be 2.6 (normal ratio 1 to 1.2). Upon discontinuation of cimetidine the elimination half-life of imipramine decreased to 23 hours and the plasma clearance increased to 355 mL/minute. The patient was able to continue on imipramine without complaints of anticholinergic side effects without cimetidine. Cimetidine also was reported to increase the bioavailability of oral imipramine doses in six healthy volunteers, in addition to impairing imipramine clearance by increasing the desipramine area under the curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).
 - b)** Six healthy young (24 to 25 year-old) volunteers participated in four randomly sequenced clinical trials to determine the effects of cimetidine administration on the pharmacokinetics of imipramine. Each clinical trial was separated by one week. Trial 1: 12.5 mg of imipramine was infused over 30 minutes. Trial 2: 300 mg of cimetidine was administered orally every six hours, starting 12 hours prior to the imipramine dose (12.5 mg intravenously infused over 30 minutes). Trial 3: 50 mg of imipramine was administered orally after an overnight fast, with the fast continued for three hours following administration of the drug. Trial 4: Cimetidine 300 mg was administered as described in trial 2 and 50 mg imipramine was administered orally as described in trial 3. The half-life for imipramine was significantly increased (15.5 hours to 22.1 hours) during cimetidine therapy in the intravenous administration group and increased (15.3 hours to 20.7 hours), but not significantly, in the oral administration group. Absolute bioavailability for orally administered imipramine nearly doubled (40% to 75%) during cimetidine therapy. On these results patients receiving concurrent cimetidine and imipramine therapy should have a 50% to 75% increase in imipramine dose in order to avoid potential imipramine toxicity or should have their plasma imipramine/desipramine ratio monitored closely (Abernethy & Kerzner, 1984b).
 - c)** Concomitant administration of cimetidine and imipramine was reported to result in psychosis (in the patient's sensorium) in a 38-year-old woman with major depression. Discontinuation of both drugs resulted in resolution of psychosis and depression within 72 hours. However, it is unclear if this patient's psychotic features were induced by the combination of these two agents (Miller et al, 1987).
 - d)** The impaired elimination of these tricyclic antidepressants is rather rapid and new steady state serum concentrations are reached quickly.

would be expected to be achieved in three to five days after initiation of cimetidine therapy. It is suggested that doses be adjusted downward by 50% when cimetidine is given concurrently with further adjustments in cimetidine determined by plasma level monitoring (Wells et al, 1986).

e) Using microsomes from 4 human livers, cimetidine was shown to inhibit the demethylation of imipramine and the hydroxylation of desmethylimipramine (Spina & Koike, 1986).

3.5.1.AI Cisapride

- 1) Interaction Effect: cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cisapride therapy has resulted in serious cardiac arrhythmias, including ventricular tachycardia, fibrillation, torsades de pointes, and QT prolongation. Because tricyclic antidepressant agents also may prolong QT and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of cisapride with a drug from this class is contraindicated (Prod Info Propulsid(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of cisapride and tricyclic antidepressants is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AJ Citalopram

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increase in the bioavailability and half-life of desipramine, the major metabolite of imipramine
- 2) Summary: Imipramine pharmacokinetics were not influenced by citalopram when the two were coadministered (Celexa(TM), 2002; Gram et al, 1993a). However, citalopram may increase exposure to desipramine, the major metabolite of imipramine. Clinical events have not been reported and, in an isolated report, citalopram was successfully substituted for paroxetine in a patient who had experienced elevated tricyclic antidepressant levels during paroxetine treatment. Citalopram is an inhibitor of cytochrome P450 2D6 enzymes, and imipramine, a tertiary amine, is converted to a secondary metabolite (desipramine) by N-demethylation. The secondary amine then undergoes hydroxylation, a process which is catalyzed by oxidative enzymes of the CYP2D6 system (Taylor, 1995).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is indicated in the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and citalopram. Monitoring of tricyclic antidepressant concentration and/or dose adjustment when there is a change in therapy with citalopram. However, citalopram may be preferred over paroxetine when tricyclic antidepressants are coadministered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of desipramine metabolism, the major metabolite of imipramine
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Eight healthy male volunteers completed three phases of an interaction study to determine the effects of citalopram on imipramine and desipramine. All subjects were extensive metabolizers of sparteine, indicating normal cytochrome P450 2D6 enzyme activity. Each subject received citalopram 40 mg alone as a single daily dose for 10 days, imipramine 100 mg single oral dose, and a single oral dose of imipramine 100 mg coadministered on day 7 of citalopram treatment. The weeks separated each treatment phase. Results showed that the concurrent administration of citalopram resulted in a 50% increase in the desipramine area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) and a similar increase in the 2-hydroxy-desipramine AUC. Also, the desipramine half-life was approximately seven hours longer when citalopram was administered (27 hours vs. 20 hours). The AUC and half-life of imipramine were not affected by citalopram. These results showed that citalopram is an inhibitor of cytochrome P450 2D6 hepatic enzymes, since many tricyclic antidepressants rely on this system for metabolism (Gram et al, 1993).
 - b) A case report describes a 45-year-old white female with major depressive disorder and dysthymia. She had received several trials of antidepressants from all available drug classes, as well as electroconvulsive therapy. Her medications included pindolol, desipramine, clonazepam, and olanzapine. Paroxetine was initiated and titrated to 60 mg/day over 3 months. The patient developed light-headedness, ataxia, and increased confusion. Paroxetine was discontinued and desipramine was initiated and titrated to 150 mg/day. After decreasing desipramine to 100 mg/day, the serum desipramine level was still 1665 ng/mL. The reduction in side effects with desipramine led to a dosage reduction of both drugs the patient's serum desipramine level was 1153 ng/mL. Paroxetine was discontinued and desipramine dose was decreased to 100 mg/day in divided doses. Citalopram was initiated and titrated to 40 mg/day. Over the next two months the patient's desipramine level decreased to 195 ng/mL. Depressive symptoms also improved. Desipramine toxicity is presumed to be caused by hepatic cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) isoenzyme I activity. The author concludes that the switch to citalopram likely is responsible for diminished desipramine levels, although alternative explanations should not be discounted (Ashton, 2000).

3.5.1.AK Clarithromycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and clarithromycin have been shown to prolong the QTc interval above the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Biaxin(R), 2002; Marshall & Forker, 1982o). Even though no formal studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval such as clarithromycin, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999h).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical

- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of tricyclic antidepressants and agents that prolong it such as clarithromycin, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.AL Clonidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased antihypertensive effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Concomitant clonidine and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may impair the antihypertensive effect of clonidine (Prod Info Catapres(R), 1996). Tricyclic antidepressants increase the release of noradrenaline, prevent re-uptake blockade. Clonidine reduces the release of noradrenaline by stimulating pre-synaptic alpha-2 adrenergic receptors whose function is to inhibit noradrenaline release (Briant et al, 1973a; Hicks et al, 1981; Hui, 1983; Glass et al, 1982). Mianserin, a tetracyclic antidepressant, was not shown to exhibit the impairment of clonidine's antihypertensive effect with tricyclic antidepressants (Elliott et al, 1981; Elliott et al, 1983).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood pressure should be monitored for an appropriate clinical response. Higher doses may be required. An alternative class of antihypertensive agents or an alternative class of antidepressants may be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: pharmacological antagonism at central alpha-2 receptors
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The interaction between clonidine and desipramine was studied in five hypertensive patients. The results of a blind placebo controlled study showed that the introduction of the tricyclic antidepressant led to the loss of control in four of the five subjects within two weeks. The rise in the arterial pressure was more prominent in the supine position than in the erect. The average blood pressure increase in the desipramine period compared to the placebo was 22/15 mm Hg in the lying position and 12/11 mm Hg standing (Briant et al, 1973).
 - b) Eleven drug-free patients who met the Research Diagnostic Criteria for Major Depressive Disorder were given clonidine to determine the effects of desipramine on central adrenergic function. Patients were given a clonidine infusion for 3 weeks of treatment with desipramine. Results showed that the sedative and hypotensive effects of clonidine were significantly inhibited after three weeks of treatment with desipramine. This interaction was also seen at a higher dose but did not reach clinical significance. The authors concluded that the effects that were observed during the study were due to an acute drug effect, rather than to a chronic adaptive change (Glass et al, 1982).
 - c) One case report describes a 65-year-old man who was experiencing perineal pain following the excision of a perineal carcinoma. Pain management of amitriptyline 75 mg nightly and sodium valproate 500 mg three times daily was used after slow-release morphine only had a limited effect. A clonidine spinal intrathecal injection of 75 micrograms was given when it was felt that the patient had become tolerant to opioid treatment. Within five minutes, the patient's severe pain, which resolved within 30 minutes after diamorphine was given. Two mechanisms for this interaction are postulated. In the first, the pain could have been the result of a clonidine-cholinergic interaction. In the second, the augmentation of serotonergic transmission may have unmasked an effect of clonidine at central receptors (Hardy & Wells, 1988).

3.5.1.AM Clorgyline

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982e; Spiker & Brodribb et al, 1994e; Neuvonen et al, 1993b). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Steinberg et al, 1993). Consequently, coadministration of TCAs and MAOIs is contraindicated in most cases. If TCAs and MAOIs must be administered concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine. Monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971e; White & Simpson, 1984d).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of a tricyclic antidepressant, such as imipramine with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI), such as clorgyline is contraindicated. If imipramine is replaced by clorgyline, a 2-week washout period should elapse after clorgyline is discontinued before therapy with imipramine begins (Prod Info imipramine oral tablet, 2003). There is no specific washout period for replacing imipramine treatment with clorgyline. However, it is advisable to gradually taper the tricyclic antidepressant dosage before starting treatment with the MAOI (Rennett et al, 1993).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers (Prod Info amitriptyline hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been reported with the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965b; Brachfeld et al, 1963a; Winston, 1971b; Schuckit et al, 1971; Spiker & Pugh, 1976b). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine re-uptake at the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965b).
 - b) The development of serotonin syndrome due to administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy has been reported. In a double-blind, crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, the subjects were given clorgyline and clomipramine in a crossover design. The subjects who received clomipramine after clorgyline developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, the subjects were given clorgyline and clomipramine in a crossover design. The subjects who received clomipramine after clorgyline developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, the subjects were given clorgyline and clomipramine in a crossover design. The subjects who received clomipramine after clorgyline developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome.

patients had received clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and clomipramine therapy. After taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse in both legs, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after with upper motor neuron symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patient's symptoms several hours later, and both patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse (1982d).

c) A 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for several months was switched to 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and fever which then progressed to further impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient's symptoms were described by diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved a few days later after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993e).

d) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. After the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodrick et al, 1994d).

e) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with isocarboxazid and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone with no complications. It was only when the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (de la Fuente et al, 1986a).

f) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating by pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987c).

g) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg or its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971b; Schuckit et al, 1971d; White & Simpson, 1984c; Rom & Benner, 1972a). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991b). Alternatively, the patient previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies show that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991b). Numerous studies in refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (1977b; Schuckit et al, 1971d; Ashcroft, 1975b).

3.5.1.AN Conjugated Estrogens

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension)
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973c), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being simultaneously increased (Prange, 1972c). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973c) and of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on a new antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984c).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down on the estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, a washout may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In one study, depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily), while five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The 10 patients receiving placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking estrogen and imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramine alone. After two weeks, the five patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness, which was reported by the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two weeks was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the presence of estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl estradiol 25 mcg daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combination had side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).
 - b) A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy and signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All laboratory

Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects from enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side effects. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups; groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 to 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental group (three due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrogen was discontinued and benztropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily with amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, and had a constant desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 mg daily developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under the concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1980). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the CNS system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.AO Darifenacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased imipramine exposure and potentially increased adverse effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of darifenacin and imipramine may result in substantially increased exposure to its active metabolite desipramine. The mean maximum concentration (C_{max}) and area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) of imipramine increased 57% and 70%, respectively, when used together with darifenacin 30 mg once daily. Note: The recommended dose of darifenacin is 7.5 or 15 mg once daily. The AUC of desipramine, the active metabolite of imipramine, increased 3.6-fold. Caution should be used with the coadministration of darifenacin and CYP2D6 substrates with a narrow therapeutic window, such as tricyclic antidepressants, including imipramine (Prod Info Enblex, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Use caution with the coadministration of darifenacin and other CYP2D6 substrates with a narrow therapeutic window, such as imipramine. Monitor for imipramine toxicity.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: competitive inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated imipramine metabolism

3.5.1.AP Dexfenfluramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (arrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports

- a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agent. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increase in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXE sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
- b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
- c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg of combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure return to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).
- d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Fle Flemenbaum, 1990).
- e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.AQ Dexmethylphenidate

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted with amphetamine-like drugs (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most combinations have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetic agents could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXE sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Fle Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agent. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increase in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXE sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg of combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure return to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Fle Flemenbaum, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.AR Dextroamphetamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted with amphetamine-like drugs (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most combinations have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).

also occur with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.

7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission

8) Literature Reports

a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).

b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).

c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).

d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).

e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with stimulant therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.AS Dicumarol

1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagulants (Prod Info DICUMAROL(R) oral tablets, 1970e; Williams et al, 1976e). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975e).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving oral anticoagulant therapy, the prothrombin time ratio or INR (international normalized ratio) should be closely monitored with the addition and withdrawal of treatment with imipramine, and reassessed periodically during concurrent therapy. Adjustments of the dicumarol dose may be necessary to maintain the desired level of anticoagulation.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased dicumarol metabolism; increased dicumarol absorption

8) Literature Reports

a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in plasma levels and an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all subjects (Pond et al, 1975d). This effect was not observed with warfarin.

b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after eight days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged and decreased volume of distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in six healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1976d). A mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered clearance.

c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCA therapy (Pond et al, 1976d). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of anticoagulant. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.AT Dienestrol

1) Interaction Effect: attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, etc.)

2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973g), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being maintained (Prange, 1972g). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973g). The clinical importance of this interaction is primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on or changed to estrogen therapy (Krishnan et al, 1984g).

- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, d may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible estrogen-enhanced hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and estrogen (10 micrograms/day), while 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and ethinyl estradiol (25 micrograms/day). The 10 patients that received placebo did not improve over the 6 weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking estrogen alone. However, after 2 weeks, the 5 patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness which affected the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to residual estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, 5 women received imipramine 150 milligrams daily and 50 micrograms daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, this combination had severe side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972f).
 - b) A case reported by (Khurana, 1972f) demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogen 2.5 milligrams and imipramine 100 milligrams. The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depression. After 2 years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 milligrams and then 7.5 milligrams. She became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. It is proposed that the side-effects resulted from effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973f).
 - c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973c).
 - d) The effect of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum clomipramine concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result is due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980c).
 - e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogen 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. Conjugated estrogen was discontinued and benzotropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction of symptoms within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 milligrams/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuation of amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 milligrams/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the combination and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984d).
 - f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptive pills (10 micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27 to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984d).
 - g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1983c). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983c).

3.5.1.AU Diethylpropion

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been reported (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported when therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects.

matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the group: groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973f).

d) The effect of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 to 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980e).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. Conjugated estrogen was discontinued and benztropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogens 1 milligram/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1 milligram/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984f).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27 to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984f).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984e). Estrogens are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in decreased clearance and toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983e).

3.5.1.AW Diltiazem

- 1) Interaction Effect: imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, sedation)
- 2) Summary: Diltiazem decreased imipramine oral clearance by 35% (statistically significant) compared to placebo in a randomized, crossover study in 12 healthy subjects (Hermann et al, 1992c). Diltiazem increased imipramine oral clearance by 30% compared to placebo which was also significant; the clinical significance of this is not known.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for anticholinergic side effects of imipramine if diltiazem is added to therapy. Imipramine may be appropriate. Conversely, if diltiazem is discontinued, monitor continued clinical efficacy of imipramine and adjust dosage accordingly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine clearance
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Imipramine serum concentrations may be altered if administered concomitantly with diltiazem. Follow-up study of imipramine 100 mg/day on day 4 of a 7 day course of diltiazem 90 mg/q8h during a controlled study, the imipramine clearance decreased by 35% resulting in a significant increase (35%) in the peak serum concentration. This increase failed to occur when the drug was given to those receiving placebo. Monitor drug levels for effectiveness when adding or decreasing diltiazem dosages (Hermann et al, 1992b).

3.5.1.AX Desipramide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the combination of Class Ia antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme is unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to therapy containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity.
 - b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989).

amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avoided with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpful (Coull et al, 1970).

c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with seizures and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. One patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations and premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hour. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are given with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1970).

3.5.1.AY Disulfiram

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased bioavailability of imipramine
- 2) Summary: Increased elimination half-life, higher peak plasma levels, and decreased total body clearance when administered during disulfiram therapy have been demonstrated (Ciraulo et al, 1985). The clinical significance finding is unknown.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor the patient for excessive adverse effects to imipramine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: disulfiram-induced inhibition of imipramine hepatic metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Two healthy men who had been detoxified for 14 days participated in a study to determine the effect on the pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine. Doses of imipramine 12.5 mg were administered intravenously and disulfiram 500 mg daily therapy and after 14 days of therapy with disulfiram. The protocol for desipramine was the same but was performed only in one subject. For imipramine, the area under the concentration-time curve increased by 32.5% and 26.8% after disulfiram administration in patient 1 and patient 2, respectively. The elimination half-life also increased by 18.3% and 13.6%, respectively, while the total body imipramine clearance decreased by 18.3% and 13.6%, respectively. Desipramine showed a 32.3% increase in the AUC when administered with disulfiram. The elimination half-life also increased by 19.8% and the total body clearance decreased 24.3% (Ciraulo et al, 1985).

3.5.1.AZ Dofetilide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.BA Dolasetron

- 1) Interaction Effect: cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and dolasetron have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Marshall & Forker, 1982b). 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 Class III antiarrhythmics, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999a; Prod Info Anzemet(R), 1997).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of dolasetron with other agents that may prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.BB 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. formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of droperidol and other drugs known to interval, including tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (Prod Info Inapsine(R), 2002; Marshall & For
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of droperidol and tricyclic antidepressants is not reco
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.BC Duloxetine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity (anticholin sedation, confusion, cardiac arrhythmias)
- 2) Summary: The coadministration of duloxetine with a tricyclic antidepressant is likely to increase bioavailait agent, increasing the risk of adverse events. Duloxetine is a moderately potent inhibitor of CYP2D6. When a CYP2D6 substrate desipramine 50 mg and duloxetine 60 mg twice daily were coadministered, the desipramin 3-fold over baseline (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Use caution with the combined use of duloxetine with tricyclic antidepressants (TCA/ therapy with duloxetine and a TCA is unavoidable, plasma concentrations of the tricyclic should be closely m adjustments made accordingly (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008). Also, monito and symptoms of TCA toxicity (anticholinergic effects, sedation, confusion, and cardiac arrhythmias).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: duloxetine inhibition of CYP2D6-mediated tricyclic agent metabolism

3.5.1.BD Enflurane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest risk of seizure activity)
- 2) Summary: Enflurane may prolong the QT interval in some patients (Owens, 2001). Because tricyclic antid also prolong the QT interval and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of enflurane a antidepressants is not recommended (Marshall & Forker, 1982a). Concomitant administration of amitriptyline anesthesia has been reported to result in seizures in two cases (Sprague & Wolf, 1982a).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concurrent use of enflurane and tricyclic antidepressants, particularly in patie of seizure activity or when hyperventilation or high concentrations of enflurane will be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Two case reports of patients on amitriptyline therapy who experienced seizure activity while receiving anesthesia have been documented (Sprague & Wolf, 1982). The first patient, a 42-year old female, was 100 mg daily. Anesthesia was induced with fentanyl, enflurane, and nitrous oxide. Approximately three h anesthesia was induced, clonic movements of the patient's right hand and forearm were noted. Enfluran was 1% at the time. Changes in ventilation did not affect the involuntary movements, so enflurane was d replaced with halothane 1%. The movements decreased in frequency and amplitude and subsequently c approximately one minute. The second case report involved a 39-year old male who was taking amitripty Anesthesia was maintained with enflurane 1% to 2%, and intermittent clonic movements started in the ri approximately one hour into the surgery. Enflurane was discontinued and halothane was instituted, which involuntary movements to disappear in approximately two minutes. No further movements were seen du three hours of anesthesia.

3.5.1.BE Epinephrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia
- 2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions c drugs to volunteers on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also bee 1980; Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significa changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these d together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be inst their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake

for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the presence of estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl estradiol 20 mcg daily but did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combination had side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).

b) A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy, signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab values were normal. Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects were due to enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups because the groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine were studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 45. Three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental group (three due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrogen was discontinued and benztropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution within 24 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily with amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, and had a constant desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 mg daily. Symptoms developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (less than 50 mcg ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% ($p < 0.05$) as evident by an increase in the area under the concentration-time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1980). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.BH Estradiol

1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, etc.)
2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973c), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being simultaneously increased (Prange, 1972c). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973). The clinical importance is primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogen (Krishnan et al, 1984c).

3) Severity: minor

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: established

6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down or up of the estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, discontinuation may be required.

7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant

8) Literature Reports

a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In one study, depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, five received imipramine (150 mg daily) and placebo, five received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (20 mcg daily), while five received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The 10 patients receiving placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking estrogen and imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramine alone. After two weeks, the five patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness, which was more pronounced in the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two weeks was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the presence of estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl estradiol 20 mcg daily but did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combination had side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).

- b)** A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy, signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg a daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab v Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the sid from enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).
- c)** In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the begin there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the c matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the group: groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior t different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).
- d)** The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with or Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental grc side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of se concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this res due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).
- e)** The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidep concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjug 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrc discontinued and bantzopine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution withi Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily wh amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 m developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours follo discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).
- f)** The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contracept less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).
- g)** Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 19 are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result and toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the cer system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.BI Estriol

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypo
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or d estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973c), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity bein simultaneously (Prange, 1972c). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, be of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started o (Krishnan et al, 1984c).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, d may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. I depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. Ten patients received pla imipramine (150 mg daily) and placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estr daily), while five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The 10 received placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking estrogen and in demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramin after two weeks, the five patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness, whi the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two wee for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the pr estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl (daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combin side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).
 - b) A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy, signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg a daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab v Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the sid

from enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the begin there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the c matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the group; groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior t different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with or Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental grc side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of se concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this res due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidep concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjug 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrc discontinued and benzotropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution withi Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily wh amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 m developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours follo discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contracept less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 19 are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result and toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the cer system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.BJ Estrone

1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypo
2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or d estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973c), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity bein simultaneously (Prange, 1972c). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, be of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started o (Krishnan et al, 1984c).

3) Severity: minor

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: established

6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, d may be required.

7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant

8) Literature Reports

a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. I depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. Ten patients received pla imipramine (150 mg daily) and placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estr daily), while five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The 10 received placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking estrogen and in demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramin after two weeks, the five patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness, whi the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two we for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the pr estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl e daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combin side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).

b) A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg a daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab v Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the sid from enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the begin there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the c

matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the groups; groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 to 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental group (side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrogen discontinued and benzotropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution within 24 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily with amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, and had a constant desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 mg daily. Symptoms developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under the concentration-time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the CNS system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.BK Estropipate

1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension)
2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973c), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being enhanced simultaneously (Prange, 1972c). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973c), of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogens (Krishnan et al, 1984c).

3) Severity: minor

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: established

6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down of estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, discontinuation may be required.

7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant

8) Literature Reports

a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In a study of depressed female prisoners, ten patients were randomly assigned to four treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and placebo, five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily), while five patients received imipramine (150 mg daily) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg daily). The 10 patients receiving placebo did not improve over the six weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking estrogen and imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramine alone. After two weeks, the five patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness, which was more pronounced in the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of two weeks was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to the presence of estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, five women received imipramine 150 mg and ethinyl estradiol 25 mcg daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the patients on the combination therapy had side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972b).

b) A 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 mg and imipramine 100 mg developed lethargy, signs of depersonalization. After two years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 mg daily. The patient became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All laboratory values were within normal limits. Upon discontinuing the estrogen, the side effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from enhanced TCA effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1972b).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects on clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the groups; groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973a).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18-35. Three women took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 mg at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the four-week study, three control patients (two due to side-effects) and five in the experimental group (three due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result is due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980a).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 mg daily for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 mg daily for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move continuously. Estrogens were discontinued and benztropine 2 mg was administered, resulting in marked reduction and resolution within 24 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily with amitriptyline 50 mg daily for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline, the patient was confused, restless, and had an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuing amitriptyline. A third case reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1.25 mg daily and amitriptyline 50 mg daily developed within a few hours after taking the first dose of amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984b).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (less than 0.05 mg of ethinyl estradiol) from 27% to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the area under the concentration-time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984a).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984). Estrogens are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the CNS system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983a).

3.5.1.BL Eterobarb

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects.
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the CYP2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.BM Ethinyl Estradiol

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, etc.)
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973i), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being simultaneously increased (Prange, 1972i). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973i) and of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogens (Krishnan et al, 1984i).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down of the estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, discontinuation may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In a study of depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo and imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and estrogen (10 micrograms/day), while 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and ethinyl estradiol (25 micrograms/day). The 10 patients that received placebo did not improve over the 6 weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking placebo.

alone. However, after 2 weeks, the 5 patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness affected the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to residual estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, 5 women received imipramine 150 milligrams; estradiol 50 micrograms daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the combination had severe side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1973).

b) A case report demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 milligrams and imipramine 100 milligrams (Khurana, 1972h). The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depression. After 2 years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 milligrams and then 7.5 milligrams. She became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. When she discontinued the estrogen, the side-effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973h).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups; the groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973e).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime with oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (3 due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum clomipramine concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980d).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. Conjugated estrogen was discontinued and benztropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction of symptoms within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline administration, she was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuation of amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the combination and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (100 micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27 to 44% ($p < 0.05$) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984e).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984). TCAs are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983d).

3.5.1.BN Etilefrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia
- 2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of epinephrine in patients on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these drugs are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed to inform their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). Imipramine showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and isoproterenol (3- to 5-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).
 - b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that

receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, cerebral subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.BO Fenfluramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported in patients on therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and dysrhythmias.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Price et al, 1990a).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.BP Fenfluramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of imipramine toxicity (sedation)
- 2) Summary: When fenfluramine was added to imipramine therapy, the blood concentration of imipramine plus desipramine was dramatically increased in a 55-year old female. The increased blood levels caused the patient to fall asleep (Fogelson, 1997a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If fenfluramine is used in combination with imipramine, the patient should be monitored for sedation, hypertension and dysrhythmias.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of imipramine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 55-year old female patient was maintained on imipramine 350 mg daily for several years, with imipramine plus desipramine blood levels ranging from 218 mcg/L to 145 mcg/L. After four weeks of treatment with fenfluramine three times daily, the patient fell asleep while driving. The imipramine plus desipramine level was 704 mcg/L, which may have inhibited the cytochrome p450 isoenzyme responsible for metabolizing imipramine (Fogelson, 1997a).
 - b) A study was conducted in 15 patients with DSM-III major depression who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine given for at least four weeks. Fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks was then given. There was a transient or sustained clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Price et al, 1990a).

3.5.1.BQ Flecainide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class I antiarrhythmics have 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 Class I antiarrhythmics known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Tambo acetate, 1998; Laroche et al, 1984; Scagliotti et al, 1982).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class I antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982q).
 - b) A 68-year-old man suffering from agitated major depression was begun on a dose of desipramine 120 mg daily produced a subtherapeutic serum level of 442 nmol/L (therapeutic range = 500 to 1000 nmol/L). An increase in the dose to 150 mg daily produced excellent clinical response with no side effects. He developed atrial fibrillation and a 150 mg daily was added to his therapy, and desipramine was discontinued. His arrhythmia was suppressed with propafenone 150 mg twice daily and 300 mg at bedtime. Desipramine 150 mg daily was again begun, at which time he experienced dry mouth, sedation, and shakiness; the desipramine serum level was measured at 2092 nmol/L. When desipramine was discontinued for five days, the side effects ceased, and desipramine therapy was resumed. The desipramine serum level was measured at 1130 nmol/L (Katz, 1991).

3.5.1.BR Fluconazole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Case reports have described QT prolongation and torsades de pointes associated with fluconazole (Marshall & Forker, 1999). Several tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Marshall & Forker, 1982x). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of drugs known to prolong the QTc interval is not recommended.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of fluconazole and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.BS Fluoxetine

- 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), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982h). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done which demonstrate QT prolongation, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants known to prolong the QTc interval, such as fluoxetine, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999d). In a study, the use of fluoxetine and TCAs such as desipramine, nortriptyline, and imipramine has resulted in significant increases in serum concentrations (Preskorn et al, 1994a; Preskorn et al, 1994a; Aranow et al, 1989a; Downs et al, 1989a; Gooch & Cole, 1988a).
- 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 study. In the addition of fluoxetine, the ratio of antidepressant level to dose increased by 109% to 486% in the patient who developed clinical symptoms (anticholinergic effects, constipation, urinary hesitancy, sedation, unstable vital signs, and the increased levels (Aranow et al, 1989).
 - b) Fluoxetine statistically and clinically significantly increased desipramine concentrations in 18 healthy subjects. Fluoxetine (20 mg daily) was added to desipramine (50 mg daily), the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 278% and the area under the concentration-time curve increased by 342%. Desipramine concentrations continued to be 198% above baseline three weeks after fluoxetine was discontinued. The impact of fluoxetine on the pharmacokinetics of desipramine when combined with sertraline. The impact of sertraline was minimal in small and 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. Desipramine serum levels ranged from 109 to 150 ng/mL with oral doses of 300 mg at bedtime. Following fluoxetine therapy. Following the addition of oral fluoxetine 20 mg daily to the regimen, the desipramine serum level increased to 212 ng/mL within five days. The fluoxetine dose was increased to 40 mg/day three days later. The desipramine serum level was 419 ng/mL after four days. A worsening of depression and severe fatigue occurred with the increases in desipramine serum levels. Withdrawal of fluoxetine and reduction in the desipramine dose to 150 mg daily resulted in a return to baseline desipramine serum levels.

reduced the desipramine serum level to 231 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 memory while receiving fluoxetine 40 mg daily and desipramine 150 mg daily for five weeks; fluoxetine was discontinued and the blood levels of desipramine decreased from 938 to 48 ng/mL with resolution of clinical symptoms (1989).

e) A 39-year-old female experienced symptomatic increases in her desipramine levels with concomitant fluoxetine therapy, the patient's measured levels of desipramine had ranged from 148 to 160 ng/mL of 300 mg daily. Five weeks after the addition of fluoxetine 20 mg daily, she reported anticholinergic symptoms and confusion with a desipramine level of 527 ng/mL. The desipramine dose was lowered to 200 mg/day later, the level was 244 ng/mL; the patient reported decreased energy, impaired short-term memory, and speech, as well as an episode of nausea, dizziness, and syncope. The desipramine dose was reduced to 100 mg/day and adverse effects resolved in six 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 desipramine level and new onset of delirium in a 69-year-old male within 10 days of the addition of fluoxetine to the patient's regimen (1990).

3.5.1.BT Fluvoxamine

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

2) Summary: Addition of fluvoxamine to imipramine or desipramine therapy can result in significantly increased antidepressant plasma levels and signs of tricyclic toxicity (Spina et al, 1992a; Spina et al, 1993aa; Spina et al, 1993a). Fluvoxamine significantly increases imipramine half-life and reduces clearance (Spina et al, 1993a). The addition of fluvoxamine to imipramine or desipramine therapy may result in greatly increased tricyclic antidepressant plasma levels and tricyclic toxicity (Spina et al, 1992a; Spina et al, 1993aa). A bidirectional effect is suggested, in which fluvoxamine increases imipramine concentrations (by interfering with N-demethylation), and imipramine increases fluvoxamine levels (Spina et al, 1993a).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for signs of imipramine and fluvoxamine toxicity; lower doses of one drug may be required with concomitant therapy.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of combined imipramine and fluvoxamine were studied in healthy volunteers (Spina et al, 1992). After a 7-day course of fluvoxamine, imipramine half-life was significantly increased (from 23 to 41 hours) and clearance decreased (from 1.02 to 0.28 L/h/kg).

b) The addition of fluvoxamine to imipramine or desipramine in four patients was reported to result in greatly increased tricyclic antidepressant plasma levels (Spina et al, 1992). Three of four patients showed signs of tricyclic toxicity on maintenance therapy (Spina et al, 1993a). Imipramine plasma levels were three to four times higher with fluvoxamine coadministration. One patient complained of anticholinergic effects, along with tremor and confusion. This drug interaction was inhibition of demethylation of imipramine. A pharmacokinetic study in healthy volunteers demonstrated a significantly increased imipramine half-life and reduced clearance (Spina et al, 1993).

c) Metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants coadministered with fluvoxamine was studied in eight depressed patients (who received imipramine) (Hartert et al, 1993). Fluvoxamine was found to interfere with N-demethylation of imipramine. The combination of fluvoxamine and imipramine led to increased plasma levels of imipramine and decreased plasma concentrations of the N-demethylated imipramine metabolite desimipramine. In addition, TCA-fluvoxamine coadministration apparently raised plasma levels of fluvoxamine.

3.5.1.BU Formoterol

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiovascular excitation

2) Summary: Concurrent administration of formoterol with a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) may lead to potentiated formoterol's adrenergic effects on the cardiovascular system. Therefore, extreme caution is advised if formoterol is administered to patients who are being treated with a TCA (Prod Info FORADIL(R) AEROLIZER(R) inhalation powder, 2006). Monitor patients closely for adverse cardiovascular effects.

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Extreme caution and close observation for adverse cardiovascular effects are warranted when formoterol is administered concurrently with a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) as the cardiovascular effects of formoterol are potentiated by TCAs (Prod Info FORADIL(R) AEROLIZER(R) inhalation powder, 2006).

7) Probable Mechanism: potentiation of cardiovascular effects

3.5.1.BV Fosamprenavir

1) Interaction Effect: increased tricyclic agent serum concentrations and potential toxicity (anticholinergic effects, confusion, cardiac arrhythmias)

2) Summary: Coadministration of fosamprenavir with a tricyclic antidepressant may provoke increased serum levels of the tricyclic antidepressant, causing a potential risk of arrhythmias or other serious adverse effects. Fosamprenavir is an inhibitor of the CYP3A4 isoenzyme in addition to being a CYP3A4 substrate. Tricyclic antidepressants are

depend on the CYP3A4 pathway for metabolism. Plasma concentrations of the tricyclic agent should be close to those of patients also receiving fosamprenavir (Prod Info LEXIVA(R) oral solution, oral tablets, 2009).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If concomitant therapy with fosamprenavir and a tricyclic antidepressant is unavoidable, concentrations of the tricyclic agent should be closely monitored. Also monitor patients for signs and symptoms of toxicity (anticholinergic effects, sedation, confusion, cardiac arrhythmias) (Prod Info LEXIVA(R) oral solution, oral tablets, 2009).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of CYP3A4-mediated tricyclic agent metabolism

3.5.1.BW Foscarnet

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Foscarnet can prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachycardia, fibrillation, and torsades de pointes. Because tricyclic antidepressants may also prolong the QT interval and cause arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of foscarnet and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (Prod Info Foscarnet(R), 1998; Marshall & Forker, 1982u).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of foscarnet and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.BX 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 also occur with fosphenytoin (Prod Info Cerebyx(R), 1999). A few case reports have indicated that imipramine inhibition of phenytoin metabolism resulting in increased serum phenytoin concentration (Petti & Campbell, 1975; Perucca & Richer, 1975). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may lower the seizure threshold in epileptic patients stabilized on anticonvulsants. This is because phenytoin is an enzyme inducer, the metabolism of antidepressants may be increased resulting in lower plasma levels.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Consider monitoring phenytoin serum levels if a tricyclic antidepressant is added to the regimen. If phenytoin is added to tricyclic antidepressant therapy, monitor for clinical efficacy of the tricyclic agent.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of phenytoin metabolism

3.5.1.BY Gatifloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Gatifloxacin may prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachycardia, fibrillation, and torsades de pointes. Although pharmacokinetic studies between gatifloxacin and other drugs that prolong the QT interval have not been performed, an additive effect cannot be excluded. Therefore, the concurrent administration of gatifloxacin and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended (Prod Info Tequin(TM), 1999).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of gatifloxacin and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.BZ Gemifloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Although pharmacokinetic studies between gemifloxacin and drugs that prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants, have not been performed, gemifloxacin should be used cautiously when given concurrently with tricyclic antidepressants (Prod Info Factive(R), 2003).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of two drugs that prolong the QT interval, such as gemifloxacin and a tricyclic antidepressant, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CA Grepafloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Healthy volunteers who received grepafloxacin during a Phase I study experienced prolongation of the QT interval. On an outpatient basis, grepafloxacin is contraindicated with other drugs that are known to also prolong the QT interval or cause torsades de pointes, including tricyclic antidepressants. When appropriate cardiac monitoring is available, such as in the hospitalized patient, these two agents should be coadministered with caution (Prod Info Raxar(R), 2003).

- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of grepafloxacin and tricyclic antidepressants is contraindicated; appropriate cardiac monitoring can be assured, such as in the hospitalized patient.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.CB Guanadrel

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased antihypertensive effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants inhibit the uptake of guanethidine and possibly guanadrel into the adrenal gland, resulting in an inhibition of its antihypertensive effect (Mitchell et al, 1967; Ober & Wang, 1973). When a patient is on concomitant tricyclic antidepressant and guanadrel therapy, caution should be exercised when the tricyclic antidepressant is discontinued, since an exaggerated effect of guanadrel may be seen (Prod Info Hylorel(R), 1995).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood pressure should be monitored for an appropriate clinical response; higher doses may be required. An alternative class of antihypertensive agents such as angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors may be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased uptake of guanadrel into adrenergic neurons

3.5.1.CC Guanethidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased antihypertensive effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants inhibit the uptake of guanethidine, and possibly guanadrel, into the adrenal gland, resulting in an inhibition of the antihypertensive effect (Gulati et al, 1966; Mitchell et al, 1967a; Ober & Wang, 1964).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood pressure should be monitored for an appropriate clinical response; higher doses of guanethidine may be required. An alternative class of antihypertensive agents, such as angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors, might be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decrease uptake of guanethidine into adrenergic neurons

3.5.1.CD Guanfacine

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased antihypertensive effectiveness
- 2) Summary: Concomitant clonidine and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may impair the antihypertensive effect of clonidine. Since the mechanism of action of guanfacine is similar to clonidine, patients stabilized on guanfacine should be monitored for a hypertensive response when TCA (i.e. desipramine or imipramine) therapy is started (Briant et al, 1983b). A case has been reported of a patient maintained on guanfacine who developed an increase in blood pressure when imipramine was added to therapy. When imipramine was discontinued, her blood pressure returned to baseline (Feely, 1991a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Blood pressure should be monitored for an appropriate clinical response; higher doses may be required. An alternative class of antihypertensive agents, such as an angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitor, may be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A case of a hypertensive female who was maintained on guanfacine 2 mg daily with mean blood pressure 150/100 mm Hg was reported (Buckley & Feely, 1991). After amitriptyline 75 mg daily was begun, her mean blood pressure increased to 180/110 mm Hg; upon discontinuation of the amitriptyline, the blood pressure returned to 136/91 mm Hg. When imipramine 50 mg daily was given, the blood pressure again returned to 137/90 mm Hg.
 - b) Concomitant clonidine and tricyclic antidepressant therapy may impair the antihypertensive effects of clonidine. Since the mechanism of action of guanfacine is similar to clonidine, patients stabilized on guanfacine should be monitored for a hypertensive response when desipramine therapy is started (Briant et al, 1973b; Hui, 1983a).

3.5.1.CE 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 tachycardia, fibrillation, and torsades de pointes. Because tricyclic antidepressants may also prolong the QT interval and cause arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of halofantrine and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (R, 1998; Marshall & Forker, 1982aa).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable

- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of halofantrine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.CF Haloperidol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info Orap(R), 2001), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001 (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Prod Info Orap(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982t).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. A proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular arrhythmias (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.1.CG Halothane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Halothane may prolong the QT interval in some patients (Owens, 2001a). Because tricyclic antidepressants also prolong the QT interval and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of halothane and antidepressants is not recommended (Marshall & Forker, 1982p).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Because of the potential for additive QT interval prolongation, the concurrent administration of halothane and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CH Heptabarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive CNS depression
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depression.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were evaluated as metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the CYP2D6 isozyme and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.CI Hexobarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive CNS depression
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depression.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.

be of value in determining appropriate dosage.

7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the 2D6 isozyme and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.CJ Hydroquinidine

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at recommended therapeutic doses. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class Ia antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

8) Literature Reports

a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme is unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to drugs containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity.

b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avoided in patients with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpful (Coull et al, 1970).

c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with cardiac disease and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial contractions and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. On patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations and 33 premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hour after treatment. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour after treatment. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are administered with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1970).

3.5.1.CK Ibutilide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation

8) Literature Reports

a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).

b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, with tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.CL Iobenguane I 131

- 1) Interaction Effect: false-negative results of scintigraphy
- 2) Summary: Imipramine, which selectively blocks the active transport of catecholamines into storage vesicle myocardial uptake of iobenguane I-131 and increases the rate of loss of iobenguane I-131 from the liver, thus scintigraphy (Sisson et al, 1987).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Imipramine should be discontinued prior to any procedure using iobenguane I-131.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: reduction of iobenguane I-131 uptake

3.5.1.CM Iproniazid

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant TCAs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982o; Spig Brodribb et al, 1994m; Neuvonen et al, 1993g). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (St TCAs and MAOIs must be used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clom desipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971n; White & Simpson, 199
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and a monoamine oxidase inhibitor should be done only with close monitoring and where the clinical benefit outweighs the potential risk. Other therapy should first be considered. Consider using a 14 day washout period between treatment with both medications clinically necessary, avoid large doses and use agents other than imipramine, clomipramine, desipramine, and
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past. Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965g; Winston, 1971g; Schuckit et al, 1971n; 1976g). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965g).

b) Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy, taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper extremity symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours after patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982n).

c) A drug interaction occurred in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for several years prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient was described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and was resolved a few days after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993o).

d) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987h).

e) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. The combination may be utilized in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to discontinue the previous antidepressant (five to ten days for TCAs and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991g). Alternatively, in a patient previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be added (Schoonover, 1983). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety disorder have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Ponto et al, 1977g; Schuckit et al, 1971m; Ashc

3.5.1.CN Isocarboxazid

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus changes)
- 2) Summary: The concurrent administration of isocarboxazid and imipramine is contraindicated (Prod Info M/ Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concurrent use of MAOI has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982g; Spigset et al, 1994g; Neuvonen et al, 1993c). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Sternbach, 1991d). MAOIs must be used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, clomipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971g; White & Simpson, 1984f).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated

- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of imipramine and isocarboxazid is contraindicated. In patients to isocarboxazid therapy from a dibenzazepine-related entity, allow at least a one-week medication-free inter initiate isocarboxazid at one-half of the normal dose for at least the first week of therapy. Also allow one week between the discontinuation of isocarboxazid and the administration of another MAO inhibitor or dibenzazepi
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOI) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers. Repto hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner et al, 1963b; Winston, 1971c; Schuckit et al, 1971f; Sargent, 1965b; Spiker & Pugh, 1976c). The mechanism of the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965c).
 - b) The development of serotonin syndrome was reported due to administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy. In a blind, crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, the subjects received clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy. After taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerk hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose of clomipramine. Both patients' symptoms resolved later, and both patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1993g).
 - c) A drug interaction was reported when a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for 10 months was switched to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and then progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The symptoms were described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993g).
 - d) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added to her therapy. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. After the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including hyperreflexia, shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodrigg et al, 1994f).
 - e) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with imipramine, isocarboxazid and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone without complications. It was only when the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (de la Fuente et al, 1986b).
 - f) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987d).
 - g) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to either a MAOI or TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg of its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971c; Schuckit et al, 1971f; White & Simpson, 1984e; Rom & Benner, 1972b). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991c). Alternatively, for patients previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies suggest that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991c). Numerous studies have shown that the combination of MAOIs and TCAs is effective in the treatment of refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Perry et al, 1977c; Schuckit et al, 1971f; Ashcroft, 1975c).

3.5.1.CO Isoflurane

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Isoflurane may prolong the QT interval in some patients (Owens, 2001c). Because tricyclic antidepressants also prolong the QT interval and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of isoflurane and antidepressants is not recommended (Marshall & Forker, 1982v).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Because of the potential for additive QT interval prolongation, the concurrent administration of isoflurane and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CP Isradipine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Isradipine can prolong the QT interval in some patients, which may result in ventricular tachycardia

fibrillation, and torsades de pointes. Because tricyclic antidepressants may also prolong the QT interval and arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of isradipine with a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended (F (R), 2000; Marshall & Forker, 1982z).

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of isradipine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.CQ Ketoconazole

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased clearance and prolonged half-life of imipramine
- 2) Summary: In a controlled study of six healthy volunteers, coadministration of ketoconazole with a single dose resulted in an increase in imipramine area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) and imipramine half-life decrease in imipramine clearance. The changes were minor, however, and deemed to be likely clinically insignificant considering the wide therapeutic range of imipramine (Spina et al, 1997a).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, downward dosage adjustment of imipramine may be necessary.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of imipramine hepatic metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A controlled study evaluated oral ketoconazole and the pharmacokinetic effects on oral imipramine in 12 healthy male volunteers. The subjects were divided into two groups and received either a single dose of imipramine 100 mg or desipramine 100 mg, both alone and after 10 days of a 14-day regimen of oral ketoconazole 200 mg. Coadministration of ketoconazole resulted in significantly increased imipramine area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) values (from 3795 +/- 918 nmol h/L to 4567 +/- 1076 nmol h/L) and significantly decreased imipramine clearance (from 1.16 +/- 0.21 L/hr/kg to 0.96 +/- 0.20 L/hr/kg). Imipramine half-life was also significantly increased with coadministration with ketoconazole, from 16.7 +/- 3.3 hours to 19.2 +/- 5.4 hours. The changes in imipramine pharmacokinetics were deemed to be minor considering the therapeutic range of the drug. During coadministration of ketoconazole with desipramine, no significant pharmacokinetic changes were observed. The authors conclude that ketoconazole inhibits the N-demethylation of imipramine by cytochrome P450 3A4, without affecting the metabolism of imipramine and desipramine, which is thought to be mediated through the cytochrome P450 2D6 pathway (Spina et al, 1997).

3.5.1.CR Labetalol

- 1) Interaction Effect: imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, sedation)
- 2) Summary: Labetalol decreased imipramine clearance by 38% (statistically significant) compared to placebo in a crossover study in 12 healthy subjects (Hermann et al, 1992). Labetalol increased imipramine area under the concentration-time curve (AUC) by 53% compared to placebo, which was also significant. The clinical significance of the pharmacokinetic interaction is undetermined.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for anticholinergic side effects of imipramine if labetalol is added to therapy. If imipramine may be appropriate. Conversely, if labetalol is discontinued, monitor continued clinical efficacy of imipramine and adjust dosage accordingly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism, increased imipramine AUC

3.5.1.CS 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 levomethadyl. Significant pharmacodynamic interactions can occur between levomethadyl and potentially arrhythmogenic agents such as tricyclic antidepressants that prolong the QT interval (Prod Info Orlaam(R), 2001).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Levomethadyl is contraindicated in patients being treated with imipramine as it may prolongation and interact with levomethadyl.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.CT Lidoflazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and lidoflazine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Hanley & Hampton, 1983; Marshall & Forker, 1982r). Even though no formal studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval such as lidoflazine, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999i).
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of lidoflazine and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.CU Linezolid

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of linezolid and a tricyclic antidepressant, such as imipramine, is contraindicated because of the risk of serotonin syndrome. If symptoms occur, consider discontinuation of either one or both of the drugs. Linezolid is a reversible, nonselective inhibitor of monoamine oxidase and may therefore interact with tricyclic antidepressants. Spontaneous reports of serotonin syndrome associated with the co-administration of linezolid and serotonergic antidepressants have been reported (Prod Info ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2008).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of linezolid and tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, is contraindicated unless the patient is closely observed for signs and/or symptoms of serotonin syndrome. If concomitant use is clinically warranted, monitor for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome, such as neuromuscular abnormalities (including hyperreflexia, muscle rigidity, clonus, peripheral hypertonicity, and shivering), autonomic hyperactivity (including tachycardia, diaphoresis, the presence of bowel sounds, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including agitation). If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agent and institute supportive care and other therapy as necessary (Boyer & Shannon, 2005; Prod Info ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: linezolid inhibition of monoamine oxidase resulting in an increased concentration of serotonin

3.5.1.CV Lisdexamphetamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted with amphetamines (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most combinations have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported when therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (arrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg with combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satek & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.CW Lorcaïnide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class I antiarrhythmics have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended ther. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmics known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Tambo acetate, 1998; Laroche et al, 1984; Scagliotti et al, 1982).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class I antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982q).
 - b) A 68-year-old man suffering from agitated major depression was begun on a dose of desipramine 120 mg daily produced a subtherapeutic serum level of 442 nmol/L (therapeutic range = 500 to 1000 nmol/L). An increase to 300 mg daily produced excellent clinical response with no side effects. He developed atrial fibrillation and 150 mg daily was added to his therapy, and desipramine was discontinued. His arrhythmia was suppressed with propafenone 150 mg twice daily and 300 mg at bedtime. Desipramine 150 mg daily was again begun, at which time he experienced dry mouth, sedation, and shakiness; the desipramine serum level was measured at 2092 nmol/L. When desipramine was discontinued for five days, the side effects ceased, and desipramine therapy was resumed. The desipramine serum level was measured at 1130 nmol/L (Katz, 1991).

3.5.1.CX Lumefantrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of QT interval prolongation
- 2) Summary: Lumefantrine is a CYP2D6 inhibitor and may cause QT interval prolongation. Concomitant use of artemether/lumefantrine and a CYP2D6 substrate (eg, amitriptyline, clomipramine, flecainide, and imipramine) may result in elevated drug levels of the CYP2D6 substrate. As some CYP2D6 substrates can also prolong the QT interval, there is a potential for additive QT prolongation. Therefore, artemether/lumefantrine should not be coadministered with CYP2D6 substrates that possess cardiac effects (Prod Info COARTEM(R) oral tablets, 2009).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Artemether/lumefantrine should not be administered concomitantly with CYP2D6 substrates such as amitriptyline, clomipramine, flecainide, and imipramine, due to the potential additive effect on QT interval prolongation (Prod Info COARTEM(R) oral tablets, 2009).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT interval prolongation

3.5.1.CY Mazindol

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted with amphetamines (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may result in moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (eg, hypertension, dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg.

of combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure return normotensive levels; reinstatement of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).

d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Fle Flemenbaum, 1990).

e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.CZ Mephentermine

1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation

2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Fle Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most combinations have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Fle Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.

7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission

8) Literature Reports

a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).

b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).

c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure return normotensive levels; reinstatement of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).

d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Fle Flemenbaum, 1990).

e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.DA Mephobarbital

1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects

2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.

3) Severity: minor

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations of the TCA may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.

7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of both CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.DB Mesoridazine

- 1) Interaction Effect:** an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary:** Although citing no data, the manufacturer of mesoridazine states that concomitant use with other drugs that prolong the QT interval is contraindicated (Prod Info Serentil(R), 2001). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) at high doses can cause QT prolongation (Marshall & Forker, 1982e).
- 3) Severity:** contraindicated
- 4) Onset:** unspecified
- 5) Substantiation:** theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management:** Concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and mesoridazine is contraindicated
- 7) Probable Mechanism:** additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.DC Mestranol

- 1) Interaction Effect:** possible attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension)
- 2) Summary:** In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973i), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being maintained (Prange, 1972i). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973j), of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogen (Krishnan et al, 1984i).
- 3) Severity:** minor
- 4) Onset:** delayed
- 5) Substantiation:** probable
- 6) Clinical Management:** If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment of the tricyclic antidepressant or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, discontinuation may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism:** possible inhibition of hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports**

a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In a study of depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and estrogen (100 micrograms/day), while 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and ethinyl estradiol (25 micrograms/day). The 10 patients that received placebo did not improve over the 6 weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking imipramine alone. However, after 2 weeks, the 5 patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness which affected the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of 2 weeks was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to residual estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, 5 women received imipramine 150 milligrams daily and estradiol 50 micrograms daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the combination had severe side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972h).

b) A case report demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 milligrams and imipramine 100 milligrams (Khurana, 1972h). The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depression. After 2 years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 milligrams and then 7.5 milligrams. She became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. When the estrogen was discontinued, the side-effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973h).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects on clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups because the groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973e).

d) The effects of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime and oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (3 due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum clomipramine concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result may be due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980d).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants.

concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. Estrogen was discontinued and benzotropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogens milligrams/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen milligrams/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the amitriptyline and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984f). The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptive micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol from 27 to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984e).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984g). Estrogens are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the CNS system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983d).

3.5.1.DD Methamphetamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported in patients on therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in increased amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.DE Methohexital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in decreased TCA serum concentrations. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed

- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.DF Methoxamine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia
- 2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (e.g., for anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed to inform their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). Imipramine showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and phenylephrine (3-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).
 - b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that patients receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, cerebral subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic antidepressant at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.DG Methylphenidate

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported in patients on therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., arrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of

antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).

c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg with combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fleckenstein, 1972).

d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Saxena, 1990).

e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with stimulant therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satekci & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.DH Mibefradil

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of imipramine toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, akathisia)

2) Summary: Imipramine is metabolized by cytochrome P450 2D6 and has a high first-pass effect. When a potent inhibitor of CYP450 2D6 and imipramine were coadministered, the area under the concentration-time curve for imipramine was increased seven- to eight-fold (Prod Info Posicor(R), 1997).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for excessive imipramine adverse effects (drowsiness, hypotension). Dosage adjustment of imipramine may be necessary.

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of imipramine metabolism

3.5.1.DI Midodrine

1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia

2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of vasoconstrictor drugs to volunteers on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (e.g., for anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed to inform their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake

8) Literature Reports

a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). Imipramine showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and phenylephrine (3-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).

b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that patients receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, chest pain, subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic antidepressant at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.DJ Moclobemide

1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and autonomic changes)

2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982c; Spigler and Brodribb et al, 1994c; Neuvonen et al, 1993a). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Steinberg). Subsequently, the concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs is contraindicated in most cases. If TCAs and MAOIs are used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine. Monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971c; White & Simpson, 1984b).

3) Severity: contraindicated

- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: established
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of moclobemide and imipramine is contraindicated. If imipramine treatment with moclobemide, a minimum of 2 weeks should elapse after moclobemide is discontinued and imipramine is begun (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). However, the manufacturer of moclobemide has a short washout period of 2 days after discontinuation of moclobemide and before imipramine is initiated (Prod Info Moclobemide, 2001). There is no specific washout period for replacing imipramine treatment with moclobemide. However, it gradually taper the tricyclic antidepressant dosage before starting treatment with an MAOI (Remick, 2002).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers. Reports of hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been attributed to the combination (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003; Lockett & Milner, 1965a; Brachfeld et al, 1963; Winston, 1971a; Schuckit et al, 1971b; Spiker & Pugh, 1976a). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake in the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965a).
 - b) A clinical study designed to detect an interaction between moclobemide and a tricyclic antidepressant resulted in severe adverse effects, and the study was terminated. Information about interactions with most other tricyclic antidepressants is limited (Prod Info Manerix(R), 2001).
 - c) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. After the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodribb et al, 1994b).
 - d) A drug interaction occurred in which a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for 6 months prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and then progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The symptoms were described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993c).
 - e) A clinical study designed to detect an interaction between moclobemide and a tricyclic antidepressant resulted in severe adverse effects, and the study was terminated. Information about interactions with most other tricyclic antidepressants is limited (Prod Info Manerix(R), 2001).
 - f) Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy, taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper extremity symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours after treatment. Patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982b).
 - g) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with isocarboxazid and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone without complications. It was only when the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (de la Fuente et al, 1986).
 - h) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987b).
 - i) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg or its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971a; Schuckit et al, 1971b; White & Simpson, 1984a; Rom & Benner, 1972). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991a). Alternatively, patients previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies suggest that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991a). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Perry et al, 1977a; Schuckit et al, 1971b; Ashcroft, 1975a).

3.5.1.DK Moxifloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Moxifloxacin has been shown to prolong the QT interval in some patients and should be avoided in patients receiving agents that also prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic antidepressants. Although pharmacokinetic studies of moxifloxacin and other drugs which prolong the QT interval have not been performed, an additive effect cannot be ruled out. Therefore, moxifloxacin should be used with caution when given concurrently with a tricyclic antidepressant (TM, 2000).

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Moxifloxacin should be used with caution when given concurrently with a tricyclic antidepressant.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.DL Nefopam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of seizures
- 2) Summary: Nefopam inhibits the neuronal uptake of norepinephrine and serotonin and increases the risk of seizures, especially in patients with a history of a convulsive disorder. Tricyclic antidepressants also lower the seizure threshold. Therefore, the manufacturer of nefopam advises caution in patients on concurrent tricyclic antidepressants (Woods, 1995).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Because of the increased risk of seizures, extreme caution should be exercised in patients receiving nefopam and a tricyclic antidepressant. An alternative analgesic may be considered.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive lowering of seizure threshold

3.5.1.DM Nialamide

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982k; Spigset et al, 1994j; Neuvonen et al, 1993e). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of serotonin toxicity characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Spigset et al, 1994j; TCAs and MAOIs must be used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971j; White & Simpson, 1982j).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and a monoamine oxidase inhibitor should be done only with close monitoring and where the clinical benefit outweighs the potential risk. Other therapy should first be considered. If deemed clinically necessary, avoid large doses and use agents other than clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past. Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965e; Winston, 1971e; Schuckit et al, 1971j; 1976e). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjogqvist, 1965e).
 - b) In a double-blind, crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and clomipramine therapy. After taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse tremor in both legs, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after clomipramine therapy with upper motor neuron symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours later, and both patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (1982j).
 - c) A drug interaction occurred in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for several years prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient was described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved a few days later by discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993k).
 - d) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, hyperreflexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexial state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987f).
 - e) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. The combination may be utilized in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to start the MAOI first (five to ten days for TCAs and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then started (Perry et al, 1991e). Alternatively, in a patient previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI can be added (Schoonover, 1983). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Ponton et al, 1977e; Schuckit et al, 1971j; Ashcroft et al, 1971i).

3.5.1.DN Norepinephrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia

2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of drugs to volunteers on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed by their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake

8) Literature Reports

a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). The first subject showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and phenylephrine (3-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).

b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that patients receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, cerebral subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic antidepressant at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.DO Octreotide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and octreotide have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Sandostat(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982). Even though no formal interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval, such as octreotide, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of octreotide and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.DP Oxilofrine

1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia

2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of drugs to volunteers on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed by their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake

8) Literature Reports

a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). The first subject showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and phenylephrine (3-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).

b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that patients receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, cerebral subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic antidepressant at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.DQ Pargyline

1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus)

changes)

2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982a; Spigset et al, 1994; Neuvonen et al, 1993). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of serotonin hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Stahl et al, 1993). TCAs and MAOIs must be used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971a; White & Simpson, 1971).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and a monoamine oxidase inhibitor should be done only with close monitoring and where the clinical benefit outweighs the potential risk. Other therapy should first be considered. If deemed clinically necessary, avoid large doses and use agents other than clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine.

7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past. Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965; Winston, 1971; Schuckit et al, 1971; Spigset et al, 1993). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965).

b) Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy, the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper extremity symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours after discontinuation of clomipramine. Patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982).

c) A drug interaction occurred in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for several years prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient was described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and was resolved a few days after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993).

d) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation and death (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987).

e) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to TCA alone. The combination may be utilized in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to start the MAOI first (five to ten days for TCAs and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then started (Perry et al, 1991). Alternatively, in a patient previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI can be added (Schoonover, 1983). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety disorder have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Ponto et al, 1977; Schuckit et al, 1971; Ashcroft et al, 1971).

3.5.1.DR Paroxetine

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

2) Summary: Paroxetine coadministered with desipramine or imipramine produced higher serum concentrations of the antidepressant (TCA) in some patients (Prod Info Paxil CR(TM), 2003; Hartter et al, 1994; Brosen et al, 1993). The effect on TCAs may resemble that of fluoxetine (another selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor), which is known to inhibit the metabolism of TCAs (Aranow et al, 1989b; Vaughan, 1988; Goodnick, 1989b). With coadministration, monitor patients for toxicity. Imipramine doses may need to be reduced.

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of paroxetine with other drugs that are metabolized by cytochrome P450 2D6 (CYP2D6) should be approached with caution. When paroxetine is coadministered with imipramine, monitor for toxicity and symptoms of imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, sedation, urinary retention, blurred vision). Imipramine dose should be reduced.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased cytochrome P450 2D6-mediated imipramine metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The effect of paroxetine on desipramine metabolism was studied in nine extensive metabolizers (EM) and five poor metabolizers (PM) of desipramine. Subjects took a single oral dose of desipramine before starting paroxetine. After the addition of paroxetine, EMs experienced a 5-fold decrease in desipramine clearance, indicating that paroxetine inhibits oxidation reactions catalyzed by CYP2D6. PMs had a slight increase in desipramine clearance with paroxetine. With concurrent administration of desipramine and paroxetine, two drugs may result in a need for dosage adjustments, especially in extensive metabolizers of desipramine (Insel et al, 1982).

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared with healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.DV Phendimetrazine

1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation

2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported in patients on therapy with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetic agents could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info FLEMET(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMET(R) oral tablets, 2006). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.

7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission

8) Literature Reports

a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).

b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).

c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).

d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).

e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.DW Phenezine

1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status)

2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982r; Spigler et al, 1994q; Neuvonen et al, 1993i). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of excessive serotonin stimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Stahl, 2003). Consequently, coadministration of TCAs and MAOIs is contraindicated in most cases (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). If TCAs and MAOIs must be used concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971t; White & Schuckit, 1971t).

3) Severity: contraindicated

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of imipramine with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) is contraindicated. If imipramine is replacing treatment with phenezine, a minimum of 2 weeks should elapse after phenezine is discontinued before therapy with imipramine begins (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). The manufacturer of phenezine recommends that if imipramine is to be used concurrently with phenezine, the imipramine dose should be reduced to one-half the usual dose.

recommends that at least 10 days should elapse before imipramine therapy is replaced by phenelzine (Prod Tablets, USP, 2005).

7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers (Prod hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been reported to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965j; Brachfeld et al, 1963f; Winston, 1971j; Schuckit et al, 1971s; Spiker & Pugh, 1976j). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake in the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965j).

b) Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper extremity symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours after patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982q).

c) A drug interaction was reported in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for 6 months was switched to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient's symptoms were described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved a few days after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993r).

d) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added to her therapy. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. After the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodrribb et al, 1994p).

e) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with isocarboxazid and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone without complications. It was only when the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (de la Fuente et al, 1986e).

f) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, hyperpyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexical state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC) (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987i).

g) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg or its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, imipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971j; Schuckit et al, 1971s; White & Simpson, 1984n; Rom & Benner, 1972e). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991i). Alternatively, if the patient is previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies have shown that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991i). Numerous studies have shown that patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Perry et al, 1977j; Schuckit et al, 1971s; Ashcroft, 1975i).

3.5.1.DX Phenindione

1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagulants (Pond et al, 1970g; Williams et al, 1976g). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975g).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants and oral anticoagulant therapy, the prothrombin ratio or INR (international normalized ratio) should be closely monitored with the addition and withdrawal of the TCA and should be periodically reassessed during concurrent therapy. Achieving a stable dosage regimen which provides the desired level of anticoagulation may be difficult in patients on this combination, and frequent adjustments of the TCA dose may be required.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased phenindione metabolism; increased phenindione absorption

8) Literature Reports

a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in the plasma half-life and an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all studies (1975f). This effect was not observed with warfarin.

b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after 8 days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged half-life and decreased volume of distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in 6 healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1971).

mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered coumarin metabolism.

c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCA (1976f). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of anticoagulants. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.DY Phenmetrazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (e.g., dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Co-administration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Flemenbaum, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Co-administration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg with combined therapy. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with stimulant therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy for depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satek & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.DZ Phenobarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive CNS effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizure control by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations of both drugs may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were evaluated for metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the CYP2D6 isozyme, and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects may be expected with other TCAs.

expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.EA Phenprocoumon

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagulant (Pond et al, 1970i; Williams et al, 1976i). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975i).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving tricyclic antidepressants and oral anticoagulant therapy, the prothrombin ratio or INR (international normalized ratio) should be closely monitored with the addition and withdrawal of the anticoagulant and should be periodically reassessed during concurrent therapy. Achieving a stable drug regimen which provides a desired level of anticoagulation may be difficult in patients on this combination, and frequent adjustments of the anticoagulant may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased phenprocoumon metabolism; increased phenprocoumon absorption
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all subjects (Vesell et al, 1975h). This effect was not observed with warfarin.
 - b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after 8 days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in 6 healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1975h). A mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered clearance.
 - c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCA (1976h). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of the anticoagulant. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.EB Phentermine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been noted (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects (dysrhythmias).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMENBAUM(R) oral capsules, oral tablets, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and other cardiovascular effects.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patch, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Flemenbaum, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with the combination of a stimulant and an antidepressant (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug treatment of depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Sattel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.EC Phenylephrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, cardiac arrhythmias, and tachycardia
- 2) Summary: Clinical trials have demonstrated a 2- to 8-fold increase in the effects of intravenous infusions of drugs to volunteers on tricyclic antidepressants. Arrhythmias and other severe adverse effects have also been reported (1980; Avery, 1973a; Boakes et al, 1973a; Boakes, 1973; Mitchell et al, 1970; Stone et al, 1964a). Local use (anesthesia) of epinephrine in concentrations of 1:100,000 or less is less likely to precipitate clinically significant changes (Steinberg & Block, 1971).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The vasoconstriction and other alpha-adrenergic effects of sympathomimetic drugs are enhanced in the presence of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs). Concomitant use should be avoided. If these are used together, careful monitoring and a dose reduction of the sympathomimetic is required. Patients should be instructed by their doctor or dentist that they are taking a tricyclic antidepressant prior to any surgery or procedure.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of norepinephrine reuptake
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Four healthy volunteers received intravenous infusions of various sympathomimetic amines (epinephrine, norepinephrine, phenylephrine, and isoproterenol) before and after imipramine (25 mg three times daily). The first showed an increased pressor response to epinephrine (2- to 4-fold), norepinephrine (4- to 8-fold), and isoproterenol (3-fold) after imipramine, but no difference was observed in the response to isoproterenol. Thus, the increased response appeared to occur only for alpha adrenergic effects. All four subjects demonstrated changes in heart rate with epinephrine and imipramine consisting of sinus arrhythmia in three subjects and multiple ectopic beats in the fourth subject (Boakes et al, 1973).
 - b) A review of spontaneous reports of adverse reactions to vasoconstrictors in local anesthetics found that patients receiving a local anesthetic with norepinephrine (1:25,000) had severe reactions (severe headaches, cerebral subarachnoid hemorrhage). The drug history was incomplete, but at least three had been taking a tricyclic antidepressant at the time (Anon, 1972).

3.5.1.ED Phenytoin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of phenytoin toxicity (ataxia, hyperreflexia, nystagmus, tremors)
- 2) Summary: A few case reports have indicated that imipramine inhibits phenytoin metabolism resulting in increased phenytoin concentration (Petti & Campbell, 1975a; Perucca & Richens, 1977a). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the metabolism of antiepileptics. Theoretically, because phenytoin is an enzyme inducer, the metabolism of antidepressants may be increased resulting in reduced TCA serum levels.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Consider phenytoin serum levels if a tricyclic antidepressant is added to therapy or begins to exhibit signs of toxicity; lower doses of phenytoin may be required. If phenytoin is added to tricyclic therapy, monitor for clinical efficacy of the tricyclic agent.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of phenytoin metabolism

3.5.1.EE Pimozide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Although citing no data, the manufacturer of pimozide states that concomitant use with other drugs that prolong the QT interval is contraindicated (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999a). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) at therapeutic doses may prolong the QT interval (Prod Info Norpramin(R), 2000; Marshall & Forker, 1982ad).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Because of the potential to prolong the QT interval, concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and pimozide is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT interval
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiogram (ECG) changes seen during clinical trials of pimozide in Tourette's syndrome and in patients include prolongation of the QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave, and the ST segment. Sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred at doses greater than 20 milligrams/day (Prod Info Olanzapine(R), 1999).

3.5.1.EF Pirmenolol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. The recommended therapeutic dose. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable

- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic anti recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imi desipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to di containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentr potential toxicity.
 - b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease r amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avo with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpfu Coull et al, 1970).
 - c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with se and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial i and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. On patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizat premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hc The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per h The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants a with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to tre of a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor i

3.5.1.EG Prajmaline

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval recommended therapeutic dose. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadm la antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is n (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic anti recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imi desipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to di containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentr potential toxicity.
 - b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease r amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avo with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpfu Coull et al, 1970).
 - c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with se and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial i and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. On patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizat premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hc The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per h The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants a with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to tre of a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor i

3.5.1.EH Primidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased me TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen s reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depresso
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dc required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum con be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were either poor or extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of both the 2D6 isozyme and the 2D7 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.EI Procaïnamide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. The recommended therapeutic dose. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the combination of Class Ia antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class IA antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

8) Literature Reports

a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme is unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to drugs containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity.

b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avoided in patients with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpful (Coull et al, 1970).

c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with cardiac disease and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. One patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations (PAD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAD and zero PVC per hour after therapy. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour after treatment. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are used with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procaïnamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1970).

3.5.1.EJ Procarbazine

1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures

2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant and more potent MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, delirium, and death. Procarbazine has relatively weak MAOI actions, so while the potential for drug interactions between tricyclic antidepressants and procarbazine exists, clinical data are lacking at this time (Schuckit et al, 1971r; White & Schuckit, 1971). Concurrent use is not recommended (Prod Info Matulane(R), 1997).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use is not recommended and should probably be initiated only under close supervision, and then only if other antidepressant class agents have proven unsuccessful. With more potent MAOI recommendations for concurrent use of TCAs have included avoiding large doses of the TCA, using only oral TCAs, and avoiding imipramine, clomipramine, and desipramine. Procarbazine therapy should not begin until seven days after discontinuation of tricyclic antidepressants and 14 days following the discontinuation of other MAO inhibitors.

7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism

8) Literature Reports

a) Procarbazine is primarily used as an antineoplastic agent, but was originally investigated as a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (Gilman et al, 1985a). Animal studies have indicated that procarbazine is a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (DeVita et al, 1965) but appears to be a relatively weak MAOI in man (Gilman et al, 1985a). Hypertensive crisis can result from concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants, sympathomimetics, and tyramine (Gilman et al, 1985a; Ponto et al, 1977i).

b) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants has an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers. Reports of excruciating convulsions, and possible death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965i; Brach Winston, 1971i; Schuckit et al, 1971q; Sargent, 1965e; Spiker & Pugh, 1976i). Careful examination of such unusual circumstances in most cases such as parenteral administration of a tricyclic. The mechanism may

combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catechol (Sjoqvist, 1965i).

c) Procarbazine therapy should not begin until 7 days following discontinuation of tricyclic antidepressant following the discontinuation of other MAO inhibitors (AMA Department of Drugs, 1992; Gilman et al, 1992).

3.5.1.EK Prochlorperazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Q and T wave distortions have been observed in patients taking phenothiazines (Prod Info Cor Prod Info Stelazine(R), 2002; Prod Info Thorazine(R), 2002). Other phenothiazines may have similar effects, are available. Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) at therapeutic doses can cause QT prolongation (Marshall & Loga et al, 1981). Case reports have described increased plasma levels and adverse effects when phenothiazines and tricyclic were taken together, likely due to inhibition of their metabolism (Ghaemi & Kirkwood, 1998; Geller et al, 1985 Loga et al, 1981).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent administration of a phenothiazine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.EL Propafenone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Class I antiarrhythmics have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic doses. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class I antiarrhythmics known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Tambocet, 1998; Laroche et al, 1984; Scagliotti et al, 1982).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class I antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982q).
 - b) A 68-year-old man suffering from agitated major depression was begun on a dose of desipramine 120 mg daily produced a subtherapeutic serum level of 442 nmol/L (therapeutic range = 500 to 1000 nmol/L). An increase in the dose to 300 mg daily produced excellent clinical response with no side effects. He developed atrial fibrillation and flut mg daily was added to his therapy, and desipramine was discontinued. His arrhythmia was suppressed with propafenone 150 mg twice daily and 300 mg at bedtime. Desipramine 150 mg daily was again begun, at experienced dry mouth, sedation, and shakiness; the desipramine serum level was measured at 2092 nmol/L. When desipramine was discontinued for five days, the side effects ceased, and desipramine therapy was resumed. The desipramine serum level was measured at 1130 nmol/L (Katz, 1991).

3.5.1.EM Propranolol

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased imipramine concentrations
- 2) Summary: One report of 2 cases of children receiving imipramine and propranolol was suggestive of inter-enzyme metabolism of imipramine with this combination (Gillette & Tannery, 1994). In one case, imipramine levels rose when the propranolol dose was increased following admission to the hospital. No toxicity was noted. The poor compliance prior to admission might have played a role was not considered by the authors, and no rechallenge. The other case involved several changes in dose of both drugs. Prospective study is needed to determine the interaction.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for an enhanced effect of imipramine. A dosage adjustment may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism

3.5.1.EN Propylhexedrine

- 1) Interaction Effect: hypertension, other cardiac effects, and CNS stimulation
- 2) Summary: Concomitant tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and amphetamine administration has been reported to enhance amphetamine effects from the release of norepinephrine (Beaumont, 1973d; Raisfeld, 1972). A similar effect also occurs with all drugs that have amphetamine-like effects. Acute elevations in blood pressure have been reported (Flemenbaum, 1971a). Some amphetamine-like drugs may inhibit the metabolism of TCAs, although most cases have not been studied. When amphetamine analogs are being used to treat obesity, it should be noted that TCAs may cause moderate weight gain (Russ & Ackerman, 1988). False positive urine tests for amphetamines have been reported with some TCAs (Merigian & Browning, 1993). Caution is advised when concurrent administration of amphetamines and TCAs is warranted. The patient should be closely monitored for increased cardiovascular effects.

dysrhythmias).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of amphetamines and tricyclic antidepressants or other sympathomimetics could lead to hypertension, increased cardiovascular effects, or CNS stimulation (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2006; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info FLEMMENBAUM, 1972). Use caution if such therapy is warranted. Monitor the patient closely for hypertension and arrhythmias.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: synergistic effects on noradrenergic neurotransmission
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Amphetamines may increase the activity of tricyclic antidepressants (TCA) or sympathomimetic agents. Coadministration of d-amphetamine with TCAs such as desipramine or protriptyline results in sustained increases in amphetamine concentration in the brain (Prod Info VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, 2007; Prod Info DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, 2006; Prod Info ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, 2006).
 - b) Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of tricyclic antidepressants, such as imipramine, clomipramine, or desipramine (Prod Info DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal patches, 2006).
 - c) Concomitant administration of tricyclic antidepressants and methylphenidate can result in increases in blood pressure such that the hypotensive effects induced by TCAs may lead to blood pressures as high as 170/120 mm Hg. Discontinuation of the methylphenidate usually results in the blood pressure returning to normotensive levels; reinstitution of the methylphenidate resulted in further blood pressure elevation (Fle Flemenbaum, 1972).
 - d) Fifteen patients with DSM-III major depression, who failed to respond to treatment with desipramine for four weeks, were given fenfluramine 40 mg to 120 mg daily for two weeks but did not result in any transient clinical improvement. However, fenfluramine more than doubled steady-state plasma levels of desipramine (Prod Info FENFLURAMINE, 1990).
 - e) There have been claims based on uncontrolled studies that a better antidepressant response may occur with amphetamine therapy (Garrettson et al, 1969). However, a systemic review of stimulants in the treatment of depression, although uncontrolled studies were generally positive, the ten placebo-controlled studies of stimulant drug therapy in depression, with one exception, indicated little advantage of drug over placebo and did not appear to be superior to conventional antidepressants in primary depression (Satel & Nelson, 1989).

3.5.1.EO Quetiapine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info AMISULPRIDE, 1999), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001) (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Prod Info PAMELOR(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg to 12 mg daily. The proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info ORAP(R), 1999).

3.5.1.EP Quinestrol

- 1) Interaction Effect: attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, arrhythmias)
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973m), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being maintained (Prange, 1972m). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973m) and of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on estrogen therapy (Krishnan et al, 1984m).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment down on the estrogen or tricyclic component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, dose adjustment may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible estrogen-enhanced hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In a study of depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo, ten received estrogen, ten received tricyclic, and ten received both estrogen and tricyclic. The results showed that the combination of estrogen and tricyclic resulted in a higher rate of remission than either agent alone (Prod Info FEMMINE, 1972).

imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and placebo, 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and 5 micrograms/day), while 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and ethinyl estradiol (25 mcg). 10 patients that received placebo did not improve over the 6 weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking placebo alone. However, after 2 weeks, the 5 patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness which affected the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to residual estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, 5 women received imipramine 150 milligrams and ethinyl estradiol 50 micrograms daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, this combination had severe side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972).

b) A case reported by (Khurana, 1972) demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking conjugated estrogens 2.5 milligrams and imipramine 100 milligrams. The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depression. After 2 years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 milligrams and then 7.5 milligrams and became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. When the estrogen was discontinued, the side-effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on the combination were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects between the groups. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the groups because the groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973g).

d) The effect of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime and 20 took oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result may be due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980f).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. The patient was discontinued and benzotropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction of symptoms within 48 hours. Akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline administration, the patient was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuation of amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the combination and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984g).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (25 micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27 to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984g).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1984g). Estrogens are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983f).

3.5.1.EQ Quinidine

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
2) Summary: Class Ia antiarrhythmics and tricyclic antidepressants have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. The recommended therapeutic dose. Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the combination of Class Ia antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999g; Prod Info Quinaglute(R), 1999; Marshall & Forker, 1982n).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class Ia antiarrhythmic agent and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

8) Literature Reports

a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine (Brosen & Gram, 1989). Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and 85% decrease in desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme is unaffected by this interaction. Until more information is available all patients having quinidine added to their regimen containing imipramine or desipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity.

b) An increased incidence in sudden death was observed in six out of 53 patients with cardiac disease receiving quinidine (Oppenheim, 1983f).

amitriptyline, compared to 0 out of 53 in the control group. It was recommended that amitriptyline be avoided with underlying cardiac disease except when depression was debilitating and no other drugs were helpful (Coull et al, 1970).

c) In a placebo controlled study, imipramine 3.5 mg/kg was administered daily for seven patients with severe depression and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. One patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations and 33 premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hour. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are administered with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1977).

3.5.1.ER Quinidine

1) Interaction Effect: imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, sedation) and an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

2) Summary: Two studies have demonstrated that concomitant use of quinidine and imipramine or desipramine increased serum concentrations of these antidepressants (Brosen & Gram, 1989b; Steiner et al, 1987). Due to the cardiac effects, the incidence of cardiotoxicity (increased PR interval, QRS complex, and QTc interval) may be increased if tricyclic antidepressants are administered with Type I antiarrhythmics (Kantor et al, 1978b; Bigger et al, 1977).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent use of imipramine and quinidine is not recommended. Monitor for imipramine side effects with concurrent therapy; lower doses of the tricyclic agent may be required in some patients. Monitor the patient for signs and symptoms of additive cardiac effects, including any changes in the EKG.

7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism, additive cardiac effects

8) Literature Reports

a) Quinidine is an inhibitor of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme responsible for the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine. Inhibition of this enzyme system can result in a 35% decrease in imipramine clearance and desipramine clearance. Demethylation of imipramine by the cytochrome P450 system is unaffected by quinidine. For more information is available all patients having quinidine added to a drug regimen containing imipramine should be monitored for increased antidepressant serum concentrations and potential toxicity (Brosen & Gram, 1989b).

b) One study reported the cardiac effects of imipramine in two patients with depression and cardiac arrhythmia in a week single-blind protocol of imipramine 3.5 mg/kg daily. The PR interval, QRS complex, and QTc interval were significantly prolonged in both cases, producing EKG changes similar to those of Type I antiarrhythmics (quinidine, disopyramide). Each patient showed a decrease in both atrial and ventricular premature depolarizations. The first patient decreased from 33.4 atrial and 30.1 ventricular premature depolarizations per hour to 0.4 atrial and 0.1 ventricular premature depolarizations per hour. A second patient had 12.3 atrial and 169 ventricular premature depolarizations per hour prior to drug treatment which decreased to 1.8 atrial and 28.1 ventricular premature depolarizations per hour during imipramine therapy. The investigators concluded that the doses of antiarrhythmics should be adjusted downward when used concurrently with tricyclic antidepressants due to an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (Bigger et al, 1977).

c) A placebo controlled study administered imipramine 3.5 mg/kg daily to seven patients with severe depression and titrated doses to obtain therapeutic plasma concentrations. Two patients displayed premature atrial and premature ventricular depolarizations before therapy. One patient had 33 premature atrial depolarizations and 33 premature ventricular depolarizations (PVD) per hour, which decreased to 0.4 PAC and zero PVC per hour. The other patient had 12 PAD and 169 PVD per hour before treatment and 1.8 PAD and 28.1 PVD per hour. The authors also cautioned that the incidence of cardiotoxicity may increase if tricyclic antidepressants are administered with Type I antiarrhythmics. It was also recommended that quinidine and procainamide not be used to treat a tricyclic overdose. The similarities between these agents may exacerbate the cardiotoxicity (Kantor et al, 1977).

3.5.1.ES Rasagiline

1) Interaction Effect: severe CNS toxicity

2) Summary: Concomitant use of rasagiline and tricyclic antidepressants should be avoided. Concurrent overlapping therapy with tricyclic antidepressants and non-selective MAOIs has been reported to cause serious, sometimes fatal, reactions; the mechanisms of these reactions are not fully understood. Signs and symptoms include severe CNS toxicity (behavioral and mental status changes, diaphoresis, muscular rigidity, hypertension, and syncope) associated with hyperpyrexia and death. Data from clinical studies, where rasagiline-treated patients (n=115) were concomitantly administered tricyclic antidepressants, are insufficient to rule out an interaction. At least 14 days should elapse after discontinuation of rasagiline before initiating therapy with a tricyclic antidepressant (Prod Info AZILECT(R) oral tablets, 2006).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of rasagiline and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended. Washout period of 14 days after discontinuing rasagiline before initiating therapy with a tricyclic antidepressant (Prod Info AZILECT(R) oral tablets, 2006).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.ET Risperidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info Norvir(R), 1999), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001 (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Pamelor(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982t).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. A proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.1.EU Ritonavir

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased imipramine serum concentrations and potential toxicity (anticholinergic effect: confusion, cardiac arrhythmias)
- 2) Summary: Coadministered ritonavir may increase serum concentrations of imipramine, resulting in imipramine toxicity (Prod Info Norvir(R), 1999). Therapeutic concentration monitoring is recommended for tricyclic antidepressants when coadministered with ritonavir (Prod Info Invirase(R), 2003).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for signs and symptoms of tricyclic antidepressant toxicity (anticholinergic: sedation, confusion, cardiac arrhythmias). Reduce doses of imipramine as required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine metabolism

3.5.1.EV Ropivacaine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased plasma levels of ropivacaine
- 2) Summary: Ropivacaine is metabolized in the liver by the cytochrome P4501A enzyme system to 3-hydroxyropivacaine, a major metabolite. Drugs which are metabolized by P4501A2 via competitive inhibition, such as imipramine, will interact with the metabolism of ropivacaine. This would result in decreased renal clearance and increased plasma concentrations of ropivacaine (Prod Info Naropin(TM), 1996).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Care must be taken to monitor the patient for signs of local anesthetic toxicity with the coadministration of ropivacaine and other drugs which are known to be metabolized by cytochrome P4501A2 inhibition, such as imipramine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of ropivacaine metabolism

3.5.1.EW S-Adenosylmethionine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: A single case has been reported of serotonin syndrome likely resulting from the combination of adenosylmethionine (SAME) and clomipramine (Iruela et al, 1993a). SAME was shown to hasten the onset of response of imipramine in a clinical trial involving 40 patients, without serotonergic side effects (Berlanga et al, 1992). If a patient is initiated with SAME and a tricyclic antidepressant, the patient should be monitored closely for early signs of serotonin syndrome. Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation and manifests as restlessness, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. If the syndrome is not recognized and treated, death can result (Sternbach, 1991).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: S-adenosylmethionine (SAME) used concomitantly with imipramine was found to hasten the onset of symptoms sooner than imipramine alone (Berlanga et al, 1992). One case has been reported of serotonin syndrome resulting from concomitant use of SAME and clomipramine (Iruela et al, 1993). If SAME and a tricyclic antidepressant are used together, use low doses of each and titrate upward slowly, while monitoring closely for early signs of serotonin syndrome, such as increasing anxiety, confusion, and disorientation.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) A 71 year-old female was hospitalized with anxiety, agitation, confusion, and symptoms of serotonin syndrome. She had been taking S-adenosylmethionine 100 milligrams (mg) intramuscularly daily and clomipramine 25 mg daily, which was then increased to 75 mg/day. Within 48-72 hours of the increased clomipramine dosage, she became progressively anxious, agitated, and confused. On admission she was verbally unresponsive and stuporous.

130 beats/minute, respiratory rate 30 breaths/minute, temperature 40.5 degrees Celsius, diarrhea, myoclonus, rigidity, hyperreflexia, shivering, diaphoresis, and dehydration. Temperature increased to 43 degrees Celsius during her hospital stay, with no documented infection. White blood cell count (WBC) was 13,040/mm³, lactic acid dehydrogenase was 662 units/liter (U/L), creatine phosphokinase was 8920 U/L, serum potassium 2.7 mEq/L, creatinine 1.1 mg/100 milliliter (mL) (laboratory reference values were not provided). A cranial CT scan was normal. The patient was not taking neuroleptics. Serum benzodiazepine and antidepressant levels were normal. Symptoms resolved gradually with 4 days of hydration and supportive care. An interaction between S-adenosylmethionine and clomipramine was proposed to be a result of synergistic activity of S-adenosylmethionine and clomipramine (1993).

3.5.1.EX Salmeterol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiovascular excitation
- 2) Summary: Salmeterol should be administered with extreme caution to patients who are being treated with an antidepressant, or within two weeks of the discontinuation of a tricyclic antidepressant (Prod Info SEREVENT inhalation powder, 2006). Clinically significant changes in systolic and diastolic blood pressure, pulse rate, and electrocardiograms have been seen with the use of salmeterol, and these changes may be exacerbated by the antidepressant.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Close observation for adverse cardiovascular effects is warranted when these are administered concurrently or if salmeterol is given within two weeks of discontinuation of a tricyclic antidepressant.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: potentiation of vascular effects

3.5.1.EY Secobarbital

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of the 2D6 isozyme, which is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.EZ Selegiline

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status)
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of imipramine and selegiline is contraindicated (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride 2003; Prod Info EMSAM(R) transdermal patch, 2006). Concomitant tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and MAOIs in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concurrent use of MAOIs and TCAs has also been reported to result in serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982i; Spigset et al, 1993j; Brodribb et al, 1994i; Neuvonen et al, 1999). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation characterized by hypertensive crisis, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Sternbach, 1991e). A minimum of 14 days should elapse after discontinuing selegiline before initiating therapy with imipramine. A time period of 4 to 5 half-lives, approximately 1 week, should elapse after discontinuing imipramine prior to initiating therapy with selegiline (Prod Info EMSAM(R) transdermal patch, 2006).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of imipramine with selegiline is contraindicated. A minimum of 14 days should elapse after discontinuing selegiline before initiating therapy with imipramine. A time period of 4 to 5 half-lives, approximately 1 week, should elapse after discontinuing imipramine prior to initiating therapy with selegiline.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers. Reports

hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been attributed to the combination (Prod Info imipra oral tablet, 2003; Lockett & Milner, 1965d; Brachfeld et al, 1963c; Winston, 1971d; Schuckit et al, 1971h; Spiker & Pugh, 1976d). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965d).

b) Coadministration of selegiline with TCAs such as protriptyline or amitriptyline has resulted in severe hyperpyrexia and death. Combination of selegiline with various other tricyclic antidepressants has caused effects, including hypertension, syncope, and muscular rigidity (Prod Info selegiline hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003).

c) Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine taking the first 100 mg dose of clomipramine, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs, diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper extremity symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patients' symptoms resolved several hours after the patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982h).

d) A drug interaction occurred in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for several years prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and fever, and progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient was described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and was resolved a few days after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993i).

e) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. After the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodrick et al, 1994h).

f) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with imipramine and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone without complications. When the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (Insel et al, 1986c).

g) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexial state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987e).

h) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg or its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971d; Schuckit et al, 1971h; White & Simpson, 1984g; Rom & Benner, 1972c). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991d). Alternatively, in patients previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies suggest that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991d). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Winston, 1971d; Schuckit et al, 1971h; Ashcroft, 1975d).

3.5.1. FA Sematilide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1991) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sematilide (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and sotalolol (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation

8) Literature Reports

a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).

b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, with antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any antiarrhythmic is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.FB Sertindole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod 1999), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001) (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Pamelor(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged corrected QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. The proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.1.FC Sertraline

- 1) Interaction Effect: modest elevations in imipramine serum levels or possible serotonin syndrome (hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: There is limited evidence suggesting that sertraline may inhibit tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) metabolism resulting in higher TCA serum concentrations. Sertraline inhibits cytochrome P450 2D6 enzyme activity and therefore plasma concentrations of coadministered drugs that are metabolized by this pathway, including the tricyclic antidepressants (Preskorn et al, 1994c; Lydiard et al, 1993; Prod Info Zoloft(R), 1999). Effects of the interaction may have little clinical impact, however. Increases in TCA serum levels associated with sertraline coadministration were modest compared to baseline when fluoxetine (another selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor) was combined with desipramine (von Moltke et al, 1999). Monitor patients on imipramine-sertraline therapy for TCA toxicity (dry mouth, urinary retention, CNS depression). Doses may need to be reduced.
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The combined use of tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) may result in the inhibition of the TCA metabolism. A few cases of serotonin syndrome have also been reported with concurrent TCA and SSRI therapy. Caution should be observed when drugs in these two classes are used together.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of imipramine metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Desipramine pharmacokinetics was studied in 18 healthy male volunteers. Study subjects received desipramine (50 mg daily) for 7 days followed by desipramine with sertraline (50 mg daily) for 21 days. When sertraline was added to desipramine therapy, the mean maximum concentration of desipramine increased by 34% and the area under the concentration-time curve increased by 26%. Trough concentrations of desipramine were close to baseline when sertraline was discontinued. The changes in desipramine concentrations were modest and the interaction was not clinically significant (Preskorn et al, 1994b).

3.5.1.FD Sotalol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and dofetilide (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, with tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.FE Sparfloxacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: prolongation of the QTc interval and/or torsades de pointes
- 2) Summary: Torsades de pointes has been reported in patients receiving sparfloxacin concomitantly with di amiodarone. The use of sparfloxacin is contraindicated with drugs which produce an increase in the QTc interval and/or torsades de pointes, including tricyclic antidepressants. Sparfloxacin is also contraindicated in persons with QTc prolongation (Prod Info Zagam(R), 1998a).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Sparfloxacin is contraindicated in individuals with known QTc prolongation or in patients concurrently with drugs that are known to increase the QTc interval and/or cause torsades de pointes.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QTc prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In clinical trials involving 1489 patients with a baseline QTc measurement, the mean prolongation of the sparfloxacin steady-state was 10 msec (2.5%). Of these subjects, 0.7% had a QTc interval greater than the baseline steady-state. However, no arrhythmic effects were seen in any of the patients. The magnitude of the QTc interval increase with repeated administration of sparfloxacin, and the QTc interval returns to baseline within 48 hours of discontinuation of sparfloxacin (Prod Info Zagam(R), 1998).
 - b) A case of sparfloxacin-induced torsades de pointes is described (Dupont et al, 1996). A 47-year old woman for suppurative otitis media and mastoiditis was treated with sparfloxacin due to an allergy to beta-lactams. Six days of treatment she felt dizzy and lost consciousness. This was attributed to torsades de pointes on the ECG. She was followed by cardiac arrest which required cardiopulmonary resuscitation. Her pre-treatment electrocardiogram revealed QT and QTc intervals of 0.34 and 0.46 seconds, respectively. An electrocardiogram post-arrest revealed QT and QTc intervals of 0.35 and 0.60 seconds, respectively. A 24-hour continuous electrocardiography confirmed the presence of torsades de pointes occurring after episodes of sino-auricular block. Sparfloxacin was discontinued and she returned to baseline within a week. Upon further testing, it was determined that the patient suffered from long QT syndrome. Due to the onset of symptoms with administration of sparfloxacin and the relief of symptoms after discontinuation of the drug, it is highly probable that sparfloxacin contributed to the torsades de pointes.

3.5.1.FF Spiramycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and spiramycin have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Stramba-Badiale et al, 1997; Marshall & Foraker, 1982c). Even though no formal interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, such as spiramycin, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999b).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of spiramycin and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FG St John's Wort

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Theoretically, since St. John's Wort is thought to inhibit serotonin reuptake and may have mild monoamine oxidase inhibitory activity (Singer et al, 1999; Thiede & Walper, 1994), serotonin syndrome could result when taken along with a tricyclic antidepressant. This theoretical risk of serotonin syndrome is also based on case reports of serotonin syndrome resulting from concomitant use of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants (Alderman & Lee, 1996), as well as concomitant use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants (al, 1994a; Spigset et al, 1993b; Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987a). Coadministration of amitriptyline and St. John's Wort has been shown to increase the area under the concentration-time curve of amitriptyline and its metabolite nortriptyline (Roots et al, 2000). If the area under the concentration-time curve of a tricyclic antidepressant is increased, the risk of serotonin syndrome may be reduced, yet the tricyclic antidepressant may also be reduced. To maintain maximal effectiveness of the tricyclic antidepressant and to avoid any potential risk of serotonin syndrome, avoid concomitant use of St. John's Wort and tricyclic antidepressants.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concomitant use of St. John's Wort with tricyclic antidepressants.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

3.5.1.FH Sulfamethoxazole

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and cotrimoxazole have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Lopez et al, 1987; Marshall & Foraker, 1982s). 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 cotrimoxazole, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999j).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified

- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of cotrimoxazole and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FI Sultopride

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info Amisulpride(R), 2001), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001) (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Pamelor(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982t).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged corrected QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. The proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.1.FJ Tapentadol

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes, and coma)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of tapentadol and a tricyclic antidepressant may result in serotonin syndrome, a life-threatening condition. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Tapentadol immediate release oral tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of tapentadol and a tricyclic antidepressant may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. If these agents are used together, monitor the patient closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination), especially during treatment initiation and dose increases (Tapentadol immediate release oral tablets, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

3.5.1.FK Tedisamil

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Cases of QTc prolongation and/or torsades de pointes have been reported with all Class III antiarrhythmic agents, including acecainide (Chow et al, 1984), amiodarone (Faggiano et al, 1996), azimilide (Corey et al, 1996) (Gilman et al, 1985), ibutilide (Rodriguez et al, 2001), sotalolol (Singh, 1996), dofetilide (Allen et al, 2002), and sotalolol (Singh & Runge, 2001). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of Class III antiarrhythmics and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003a; Prod Info Corvert(R), 2000).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a Class III antiarrhythmic and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) EKG effects reported in patients receiving therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants include increased prolonged PR interval, intraventricular conduction delays, increased corrected QT interval (QTc) and flat T waves (Marshall & Forker, 1982ab).
 - b) Concurrent use of Class III antiarrhythmic agents, and other drugs that can prolong the QT interval, with tricyclic antidepressants, is not recommended. Dofetilide should be stopped for at least 2 days before any interaction is initiated. If concurrent use cannot be avoided, cautious dosing and telemetry monitoring is advised (Yamreudeewong et al, 2003).

3.5.1.FL Telithromycin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Telithromycin may prolong the QT interval in some patients (Owens, 2001d). Because tricyclic antidepressants may also prolong the QT interval and increase the risk of arrhythmias, the concurrent administration of telithromycin and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (Marshall & Forker, 1982af).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified

- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Because of the potential for additive QT interval prolongation, the concurrent administration of telithromycin and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FM Terfenadine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended dose (Marshall & Forker, 1982ae). Even though no formal drug interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of terfenadine and other drugs known to prolong the QTc interval, including tricyclic antidepressants, is contraindicated (Elavil(R), 1999k; Anon, 1997).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of terfenadine with any drug that prolongs the QT interval with tricyclic antidepressants, is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FN Thiopental

- 1) Interaction Effect: possible decreased tricyclic antidepressant serum concentrations and possible additive effects
- 2) Summary: Concomitant barbiturate and tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) therapy may result in increased metabolism of the TCA. There have been scattered reports of individuals with decreased serum levels of TCAs in the presence of barbiturates (Moody et al, 1977; Silverman & Braithwaite, 1972; Burrows & Davies, 1971). In addition, TCAs can worsen seizures by reducing the seizure threshold (Brodie, 1992). These drugs also have additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for efficacy of antidepressant effect. Increases in tricyclic antidepressant dose may be required. Additionally, monitor for toxicity when either drug is added to or withdrawn from therapy. Serum concentrations may be of value in determining appropriate dosage.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased tricyclic antidepressant metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single oral dose of desipramine (100 mg) were studied in eight epileptic patients treated with phenobarbital and in eight drug-free healthy controls (Spina et al, 1996). All subjects were extensive metabolizers with respect to the genetically determined CYP2D6-related metabolic polymorphism. Compared to healthy controls, epileptic patients exhibited lower peak plasma desipramine concentrations (74 nmol/L vs. 107 nmol/L), smaller area under the concentration-time curve values (1943 nmol/L/h vs. 3234 nmol/L/h), and shorter desipramine half-lives (15.1 h vs. 20.6 h). All barbiturates are believed to have similar effects leading to induction of CYP2D6 and the 2D6 isozyme is believed to be important in the metabolism of most or all TCAs. Thus, similar effects are expected with any combination of TCA and barbiturate.

3.5.1.FO Thioridazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Although citing no data, the manufacturer of thioridazine states that concomitant use with other drugs that prolong the QT interval is contraindicated (Prod Info Mellaril(R), 2001). Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) at therapeutic doses can cause QT prolongation (Marshall & Forker, 1982k).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and thioridazine is contraindicated.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.FP Tibolone

- 1) Interaction Effect: attenuation of antidepressant effectiveness; tricyclic toxicity (drowsiness, hypotension, etc.)
- 2) Summary: In isolated cases, the pharmacologic effects of tricyclic antidepressants may be increased or decreased by estrogens (Somani & Khurana, 1973a), with paradoxical loss of antidepressant effect yet tricyclic toxicity being maintained (Prange, 1972a). The effects of the interaction appear to be estrogen dose-related (Khurana, 1973b). The effects of clinical importance primarily in patients previously stabilized on tricyclic therapy who are being started on tibolone (Krishnan et al, 1984a).
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If signs or symptoms of altered tricyclic response are noted, dose adjustment of the tricyclic antidepressant or tibolone component may be successful in restoring effectiveness or resolving toxicity. However, discontinuation of one or both may be required.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: possible estrogen-enhanced hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Some studies evaluated the qualitative effects of concomitant administration of estrogen and TCAs. In

depressed female prisoners were randomly assigned to 4 treatment groups. Ten patients received placebo (150 milligrams/day) and placebo. 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and estrogen (100 micrograms/day), while 5 patients received imipramine (150 milligrams/day) and ethinyl estradiol (25 micrograms/day). 10 patients that received placebo did not improve over the 6 weeks of the study. The 10 patients taking imipramine demonstrated a significantly greater improvement in symptoms than did the 10 patients taking placebo alone. However, after 2 weeks, the 5 patients that received imipramine and high-dose estrogen had not improved as much as the patients receiving imipramine and low-dose estrogen. The only side-effect reported was drowsiness in the patients taking imipramine. Following the discontinuation of ethinyl estradiol, a time period of 2 weeks was required for the high-dose estrogen group to do as well as the low-dose group. This effect was attributed to residual estrogen in the high-dose group. In another group, 5 women received imipramine 150 milligrams and ethinyl estradiol 50 micrograms daily did not improve as much as 10 patients receiving only imipramine. Also, the combination had severe side-effects including lethargy, coarse tremor and systolic hypotension (Prange, 1972).

b) A case reported by (Khurana, 1972) demonstrated an interaction in a 32-year-old female taking clomipramine 2.5 milligrams and imipramine 100 milligrams. The patient developed lethargy, tremors, and signs of depression. After 2 years of therapy, the patient increased her estrogen dose to 5 milligrams and then 7.5 milligrams. She became nauseated, had constant headaches, and low normal blood pressure. All lab work was normal. When the estrogen was discontinued, the side-effects abated. Some investigators have proposed that the side effects resulted from effects secondary to estrogen inhibition of hepatic microsomal enzymes (Somani & Khurana, 1973).

c) In a study women received clomipramine and oral contraceptives or clomipramine alone. At the beginning there were 30 women taking the combination, but 12 subsequently dropped out. The 18 patients on clomipramine were matched with 18 patients taking clomipramine alone. No significant difference was noted in the patients' side-effects on clomipramine. It was proposed that there was no significant difference in side-effects between the two groups. The groups were matched after patients had dropped out of the study. Had the patients been matched prior to the study, different conclusions may have been drawn (Beaumont, 1973).

d) The effect of oral contraceptives on clomipramine was studied in 42 women between the ages of 18 and 35. Three women took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime while 19 took clomipramine 25 milligrams at bedtime and oral contraceptives. Over the 4-week study, 3 control patients (2 due to side-effects) and 5 in the experimental group (3 due to side-effects) dropped out. Venous blood samples were drawn at weekly intervals for measurement of serum clomipramine concentrations. No difference in serum concentrations was noted between the groups. However, this result was due to the low dose of clomipramine given (Luscombe & John, 1980).

e) The onset of akathisia was reported in 3 patients receiving conjugated estrogens and tricyclic antidepressants concurrently. A 24-year-old patient receiving clomipramine 120 milligrams/day for anorexia nervosa and conjugated estrogens 1.25 milligrams/day for amenorrhea developed restless legs and a constant desire to move. Conjugated estrogen was discontinued and benztropine 2 milligrams was administered, resulting in marked reduction of akathisia within 48 hours. In another case, akathisia and disorientation developed in a 55-year-old patient on conjugated estrogen 1 milligram/day who was prescribed amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day for depression. Within hours of amitriptyline administration, she was confused, restless, and possessed an inner desire to move continuously. Symptoms disappeared after discontinuation of amitriptyline. Positive rechallenge at one week with doxepin 100 milligrams, with resolution following discontinuation of doxepin. A third case of akathisia was reported in a 35-year-old patient who received conjugated estrogen 1 milligram/day and amitriptyline 50 milligrams/day. Akathisia developed within a few hours after taking the combination and resolved within 48 hours following discontinuation of the antidepressant (Krishnan et al, 1984).

f) The absolute bioavailability of imipramine increased in women who received low-dose oral contraceptives (100 micrograms or less of ethinyl estradiol) from 27 to 44% (p less than 0.05) as evident by an increase in the plasma concentration time curve (Abernethy et al, 1984).

g) Estrogens may inhibit the oxidation of TCAs by affecting hepatic microsomal enzymes (John et al, 1980). Estrogens are metabolized via oxidation and conjugation pathways. Inhibition of the oxidation of TCAs could result in increased toxicity due to decreased clearance. Estrogens are suspected of possessing other effects on the central nervous system resulting in an antidepressant effect (Oppenheim, 1983).

3.5.1.FQ Toloxatone

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982p; Spigler et al, 1994o; Neuvonen et al, 1993h). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of hyperstimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Stein et al, 1984). Avoid concomitant use of TCAs and MAOIs, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, and tranylcypromine, and monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971p; White & Simpson, 1984).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) and a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) should be done only with close monitoring and where the clinical benefit outweighs the potential risk. Other therapy should first be considered. If deemed clinically necessary, avoid large doses and use agents other than clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (T

considered an absolute contraindication in the past. Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965h; Winston, 1971h; Schuckit et al, 1971o 1976h). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the centra and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965h).

b) There is minimal risk of a clinically significant pharmacokinetic interaction between amitriptyline and MAOI-A (Vandel et al, 1993). Seventeen inpatients being treated for major depressive illness were administered amitriptyline 125 mg once daily for two weeks, and the following two weeks they received amitriptyline 125 mg plus tolaxatone 600 mg daily. With combined therapy there was a small, nonsignificant increase in amitriptyline. The availability and urinary excretion of amitriptyline and its metabolites were not significantly affected.

c) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. The combination may be utilized in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to start the MAOI after discontinuation of the TCA (five to ten days for TCAs and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then started (Perry et al, 1991h). Alternatively, in a patient previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI are added (Schoonover, 1983). Numerous studies in patients with refractory depression or phobic anxiety successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Ponto et al, 1977h; Schuckit et al, 1971o; Ashcraft et al, 1971i).

d) Serotonin syndrome has been reported with the use of moclobemide, a reversible inhibitor of monoamine oxidase, in combination with a TCA. A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added to her therapy with moclobemide. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 25 mg followed by two dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg. Five days after the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome including sweating, shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with cyproheptadine and symptoms resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodribb et al, 1994n).

3.5.1.FR Tramadol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of seizures
- 2) Summary: Seizures have been reported in patients using tramadol. Some medications, including tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs), are known to reduce the seizure threshold. The risk of seizures may be enhanced when imipramine and tramadol therapy are combined (Prod Info Ultram(R), 1998).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution should be used if tramadol is to be administered to patients receiving concomitant imipramine therapy. If possible, avoid this combination, especially in patients with underlying conditions that might predispose to seizures.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

3.5.1.FS Tranylcypromine

- 1) Interaction Effect: neurotoxicity, seizures, or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus changes)
- 2) Summary: Concomitant TCA and MAOI use has resulted in hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and death. Concurrent use of TCAs and MAOIs has also been reported to result in a condition termed serotonin syndrome (Insel et al, 1982m; Spiker & Brodribb et al, 1994i; Neuvonen et al, 1993f). Serotonin syndrome is a rare but potentially fatal condition of excessive serotonin stimulation characterized by hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, and changes in mental status (Steinberg et al, 1982). Consequently, coadministration of TCAs and MAOIs is contraindicated in most cases. If TCAs and MAOIs must be administered concurrently, avoid large doses, use only oral TCAs, avoid imipramine, clomipramine, desipramine, and nortriptyline. Monitor patients closely (Schuckit et al, 1971i; White & Simpson, 1984j).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concomitant use of imipramine with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI), such as tranylcypromine, is contraindicated. If imipramine is replaced by tranylcypromine, a minimum of 14 days should elapse before tranylcypromine is discontinued before therapy with imipramine begins (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). The manufacturer of tranylcypromine recommends that at least 7 days should elapse before tranylcypromine is replaced by imipramine. Similarly, if imipramine therapy is substituted by tranylcypromine, there should be a 7-day washout period. Tranylcypromine should then be given using half the normal starting dosage for, minimally, the first week (Prod Info Parnate(R), 2001).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: altered catecholamine uptake and metabolism
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a)** Concomitant administration of monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) with tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) is considered an absolute contraindication in the past and still is listed as such by the manufacturers (Prod Info imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, 2003). Reports of excitation, hyperpyrexia, convulsions, and possible death have been attributed to the combination (Lockett & Milner, 1965f; Brachfeld et al, 1963d; Winston, 1971f; Schuckit et al, 1971i; Spiker & Pugh, 1976f). The mechanism may relate to the combined inhibition of catecholamine reuptake into the central nervous system and inhibition of catecholamine metabolism (Sjoqvist, 1965f).
 - b)** Administration of a TCA after MAOI therapy may result in the development of serotonin syndrome. In a crossover study examining the effects of clorgyline and clomipramine for the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder, two subjects developed severe reactions characteristic of serotonin syndrome. During the study, patients on clorgyline therapy, followed by a washout period of approximately four weeks and subsequent clomipramine therapy, one patient developed coarse myoclonic jerking in both legs.

diaphoresis, and arrhythmia. Another patient developed a similar reaction after the first dose, with upper symptoms, myoclonic movements, and cardiac irritability. Both patient's symptoms resolved several hours. Both patients were later treated successfully with clomipramine without adverse effects (Insel et al, 1982l).

c) A drug interaction occurred in a 76-year old woman who had been taking clomipramine 50 mg daily for prior to switching to moclobemide 300 mg daily. The patient experienced somnolence, confusion, and she progressed to further mental impairment, muscle stiffness, myoclonus, and convulsive attacks. The patient was described as fulfilling the diagnostic criteria for serotonin syndrome and were resolved a few days after discontinuing all antidepressant medications (Spigset et al, 1993m).

d) A 39-year old woman with bipolar disorder developed serotonin syndrome after imipramine was added. The patient was taking moclobemide 300 mg twice daily when imipramine was started at 50 mg daily, followed by dosage increases of imipramine to 200 mg and a reduction of moclobemide dosage to 150 mg twice daily. When the increase in imipramine to 200 mg per day, the patient developed symptoms of serotonin syndrome, including shivering, confusion, fever, and spasms in the extremities. The patient was treated with chlorpromazine and resolved over the next few days without further complications (Brodrick et al, 1994k).

e) Three patients with bipolar disorder developed manic symptoms while undergoing concurrent therapy with isocarboxazid and amitriptyline. In all three cases the patients had been given MAOIs and TCAs alone without complications. It was only when the drugs were used in combination that symptoms of mania emerged, suggesting a synergistic effect (de la Fuente et al, 1986d).

f) In one case, clomipramine 10 mg twice daily was added to a stable regimen of tranylcypromine in a 34-year old man. After taking several doses, the patient developed symptoms of nausea and profuse sweating, pyrexia, dyspnea, and agitation. The hyperpyrexial state led to disseminated intravascular coagulation (Tackley & Tregaskis, 1987g).

g) There is evidence that MAOIs and TCAs can be given concomitantly in patients previously unresponsive to a TCA alone. A few precautions must be followed including: a) avoidance of large doses (no more than 15 mg or its equivalent, 45 mg phenelzine, or 60 mg isocarboxazid) b) oral administration c) avoidance of clomipramine, desipramine, and tranylcypromine in any combination, and d) close monitoring of patients (K Winston, 1971f; Schuckit et al, 1971k; White & Simpson, 1984i; Rom & Benner, 1972d). The combination can be given in one of two ways. Most frequently, the recommendation is to stop all previous antidepressants (five to ten and 14 days for MAOIs); the combination is then simultaneously started (Perry et al, 1991f). Alternatively, in patients previously receiving a TCA, small doses of the MAOI may be slowly added (Schoonover, 1983). Some studies suggest that the combination of amitriptyline and isocarboxazid is preferred (Perry et al, 1991f). Numerous studies in refractory depression or phobic anxiety states have successfully used the combination of MAOIs and TCAs (Perry et al, 1977f; Schuckit et al, 1971k; Ashcroft, 1975f).

3.5.1.FT Trifluoperazine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Q and T wave distortions have been observed in patients taking phenothiazines (Prod Info Corphenazine(R), 2002; Prod Info Thorazine(R), 2002). Other phenothiazines may have similar effects, and are available. Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) at therapeutic doses can cause QT prolongation (Marshall & I Case reports have described increased plasma levels and adverse effects when phenothiazines and tricyclic were taken together, likely due to inhibition of their metabolism (Ghaemi & Kirkwood, 1998; Geller et al, 1985 Loga et al, 1981).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent administration of a phenothiazine and a tricyclic antidepressant is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effect on QT interval

3.5.1.FU Trimethoprim

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and cotrimoxazole have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the recommended therapeutic dose (Lopez et al, 1987; Marshall & Forker, 1982s). 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 cotrimoxazole, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999j).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of cotrimoxazole and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FV Vasopressin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants and vasopressin have been shown to prolong the QTc interval at the therapeutic dose (Prod Info Vivactil(R), 1999; McCue et al, 1989; Munger & Efron, 1988; Mauro et al, 1988; I Case reports have described increased plasma levels and adverse effects when phenothiazines and tricyclic were taken together, likely due to inhibition of their metabolism (Ghaemi & Kirkwood, 1998; Geller et al, 1985 Loga et al, 1981).
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of drugs that prolong the QT interval, such as tricyclic and vasopressin, is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.FW Venlafaxine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest effects of both drugs)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and venlafaxine have been shown to prolong the QTc interval recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Effexor(R) XR, 2003; Marshall & Forker, 1982d). Even though no interaction studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong the QT interval, such as venlafaxine, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999c). In addition, venlafaxine and tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may competitively inhibit each other's metabolism which may increase side effects of TCAs (Prod Info Effexor(R) XR, 2003; Ellingrod & Perry, 1994). Venlafaxine increased the AUC, Cmax, and Cmin of desipramine by approximately 35%. The AUCs of 2-OH-desipramine increased by 2.5 and 4.5 fold when administered with venlafaxine 37.5 mg and 75 mg every 12 hours, respectively. The pharmacokinetics of imipramine and the 2-OH-desipramine were not affected (Prod Info venlafaxine extended release oral tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Due to the potential for additive effects on the QT interval, the concurrent administration of venlafaxine and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased TCA and venlafaxine metabolism; additive effects on QT prolongation
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) When administered with imipramine, the pharmacokinetics of imipramine and the 2-hydroxy metabolite were affected. Venlafaxine increased the area under the concentration-time curve (AUC), maximum concentration (Cmax), and minimum concentration (Cmin) of desipramine by approximately 35%. The 2-OH-desipramine AUCs increased by 2.5-fold (venlafaxine 37.5 mg every 12 hours) and by 4.5-fold (venlafaxine 75 mg every 12 hours). The clinical significance of this finding is unknown (Prod Info venlafaxine extended release oral tablets, 2008).

3.5.1.FX Verapamil

- 1) Interaction Effect: imipramine toxicity (dry mouth, sedation, urinary retention)
- 2) Summary: Verapamil decreased imipramine clearance by 25% (statistically significant) compared with placebo in a controlled, single-dose study in 12 healthy volunteers (Hermann et al, 1992a). Imipramine bioavailability was 15% greater than with placebo. The clinical significance of this interaction and whether it occurs with other tricyclic antidepressants has yet to be determined.
- 3) Severity: minor
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor for anticholinergic side effects of imipramine if verapamil is added to therapy. Conversely, if verapamil is discontinued, monitor continued clinical efficacy of imipramine and adjust dosage accordingly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased imipramine clearance

3.5.1.FY Warfarin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) may increase the half-life and bioavailability of oral anticoagulants (Prod Info Coumatin 1970a; Williams et al, 1976a). Considerable interindividual differences may be found (Pond et al, 1975a).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: In patients receiving imipramine and warfarin, closely monitor prothrombin time ratio and adjust warfarin doses accordingly.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: decreased warfarin metabolism; increased warfarin absorption
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) In a study of healthy volunteers, the concurrent use of nortriptyline or amitriptyline resulted in an increase in the plasma half-life of dicumarol, although the effect was not consistent in all subjects (Vesell et al, 1975). This effect was not observed with warfarin.
 - b) A single oral dose of bishydroxycoumarin after eight days of nortriptyline resulted in a significantly prolonged and decreased volume of distribution of the coumarin anticoagulant in six healthy volunteers (Vesell et al, 1975). A mechanism of action was suggested to be reduced bishydroxycoumarin metabolism and/or altered clearance.
 - c) Drug dosing was studied in 16 patients on long-term anticoagulant therapy who used concurrent TCAs (Vesell et al, 1976). TCAs affected the stability of anticoagulant control leading to frequent changes in the doses of an anticoagulant. Inhibition of coumarin metabolism was the postulated mechanism.

3.5.1.FZ Ziprasidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)

- 2) Summary: Ziprasidone use is associated with dose-related prolongation of the QTc interval. Even though interaction studies have been done, it is recommended that concurrent use with other agents that may prolong QTc interval be avoided (Prod Info GEODON(R) oral capsules, IM injection, 2007; Marshall & Forker, 1982ah).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Due to the potential for additive QTc interval prolongation, avoid the concurrent administration of ziprasidone and agents that can prolong the QTc interval (Prod Info GEODON(R) oral capsules, IM injection, 2007).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects

3.5.1.GA Zolmitriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs) and zolmitriptan have been shown to prolong the QTc interval. The recommended therapeutic dose (Prod Info Zomig(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982l). Even though no formal studies have been done, the coadministration of tricyclic antidepressants and other drugs known to prolong QTc interval such as zolmitriptan, is not recommended (Prod Info Elavil(R), 1999f).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of zolmitriptan and tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects on QT prolongation

3.5.1.GB Zotepine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of cardiotoxicity (QT prolongation, torsades de pointes, cardiac arrest)
- 2) Summary: Several antipsychotic agents have demonstrated QT prolongation including amisulpride (Prod Info Solian(R), 1999), haloperidol (O'Brien et al, 1999), risperidone (Duenas-Laita et al, 1999), sertindole (Agelink et al, 2001) (Owens, 2001b), sultopride (Lande et al, 1992), and zotepine (Sweetman, 2003). Even though no formal drug studies have been done, the coadministration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended (Prod Info Pamelor(R), 2001; Marshall & Forker, 1982t).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concurrent administration of a tricyclic antidepressant and an antipsychotic is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive cardiac effects
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) Electrocardiographic changes that have occurred during clinical trials with pimozide have included prolonged QT interval, flattening, notching, and inversion of the T wave and the appearance of U waves. In clinical studies, sudden, unexpected deaths have occurred while patients were receiving pimozide doses of 1 mg. A proposed mechanism for these deaths is prolongation of the QT interval predisposing patients to ventricular tachycardia (Prod Info Orap(R), 1999).

3.5.2 Drug-Food Combinations

3.5.2.A Ethanol

- 1) Interaction Effect: enhanced drowsiness; impairment of motor skills
- 2) Summary: Ethanol in combination with antidepressants may alter behavior, with the predominant effect being impairment in psychomotor performance. Almost all studies to date have evaluated the effects of the combination on driving skills, driving behavior and psychomotor skills (Landauer et al, 1969; Patman et al, 1969; Milner & Landauer, 1975; Seppala, 1977). There are no studies evaluating respiratory response with the combination.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Encourage abstinence from alcohol during at least the first few weeks of tricyclic antidepressant therapy to allow patient accommodation to potential CNS depressant effects of the tricyclic antidepressant.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive CNS depressant activity; impaired hepatic metabolism of the tricyclic antidepressant
- 8) Literature Reports
 - a) The studies available indicate that the interaction between amitriptyline (and other antidepressants) and ethanol is unpredictable. They indicate that antidepressants may enhance, prevent, or not affect the CNS actions of ethanol. The most significant effect reported is enhanced CNS depression. However, there are reports that tricyclic antidepressants may actually antagonize the sedative effects of ethanol (Milner & Landauer, 1975).
 - b) The propensity for interaction may be related to the inherent CNS depressant action of the tricyclic antidepressant. The antidepressants listed in one series in descending order as amitriptyline, doxepin, imipramine, nortriptyline, desipramine, (Marco & Randels, 1981).
 - c) Imipramine and amitriptyline are the best documented examples of disruptions of metabolism. Clearance was 3-fold higher in alcoholics compared with healthy volunteers (Ciraulo et al, 1988).
 - d) Individual case reports have documented "blackouts" following modest amounts of alcohol in combination with amitriptyline or imipramine (Hudson, 1981), and reversible extrapyramidal effects (parkinsonian effects, amoxapine (Shen, 1984).

3.5.4 Drug-Tobacco Combinations

3.5.4.A Tobacco

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased imipramine concentrations
- 2) Summary: The administration of oral imipramine 3.5 mg/kg to tobacco smokers (15 cigarettes daily) result lower mean plasma levels of combined imipramine and desmethylimipramine (160 ng/mL) when compared to 200 ng/mL (Perel et al, 1975). Tobacco smoking may alter the response to antidepressants (Linnoila et al, 1981;
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Patients who smoke may require larger doses of imipramine than non-smokers. Monitor receiving imipramine for antidepressant efficacy.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased hepatic metabolism

3.5.5 Intravenous Admixtures

3.5.5.1 Drugs

Doxapram

Haloperidol

3.5.5.1.A Doxapram

- 1) Compatible
 - a) Doxapram (400 mg/20 mL with imipramine 12.5 mg/1 mL physically compatible and no loss of doxapram stability not described) (Trissel, 1990)
 - b) Imipramine (12.5 mg/1 mL with doxapram 400 mg/20 mL physically compatible in syringe with no decomposition in 24 hours; temperature not specified) (Trissel, 1990a)

3.5.5.1.B Haloperidol

- 1) Conflicting Data
 - a) Incompatible
 - 1) Haloperidol in a 1:1 or 1:2 mixture with imipramine, compatibility is questionable because there were no visual changes in 1 hour, was slightly cloudy and viscous in 2 hours, was clear and very viscous at room temperature, but no haloperidol decomposition was observed in a 4 hour study period; data not specified (Pers Comm, 1990)
 - b) Compatible
 - 1) Haloperidol in a 1:1 or 1:2 mixture with imipramine, compatibility is questionable because there were no visual changes in 1 hour, was slightly cloudy and viscous in 2 hours, was clear and very viscous at room temperature, but no haloperidol decomposition was observed in a 4 hour study period; data not specified (Pers Comm, 1990)

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) Imipramine Hydrochloride
 - 1) Therapeutic
 - a) Laboratory Parameters

- 1) MHPG Urinary Concentration
 - a) Patients with urinary levels of 3-methoxy-4-hydroxy-phenyl glycol (MHPG) less than 1950 mcg/d; antidepressant (TCA) therapy, respond to imipramine, and other TCAs, more predictably than patients with urinary levels greater than 1950 mcg/day (Rosenbaum et al, 1980); (Beckmann & Goodwin, 1975)
 - b) Newer data (Maas et al, 1982) confirm some of the earlier data and hypotheses while failing to confirm the fact that a low cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) 5-HIAA (5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid) or low urinary MHPG in the pretreatment period is associated with a favorable response to amitriptyline therapy was not confirmed. A study showed no significant relationships between pre-treatment urinary MHPG, CSF MHPG, 5-HIAA (homovanillic acid) values and subsequent amitriptyline efficacy.
 - c) Low urinary NE and MHPG values are associated with a greater incidence of response to amitriptyline therapy in bipolar affective disorder patients, but not in unipolar patients (Maas et al, 1982)
 - 2) Dexamethasone Suppression Test (DST)
 - a) The DST has been reported to be a useful tool in predicting whether or not a patient would respond to antidepressant therapy (Brown et al, 1979, Brown et al, 1980). Eighty percent of patients with a positive DST responded to therapy versus a 37% response rate in patients with a negative DST (Brown et al, 1979). A positive DST result is an indicator of tricyclic antidepressant therapy efficacy in the treatment of depression confirmed in one study (Peselow et al, 1983a).
 - b) Depressed patients with abnormal DST may respond better to imipramine or desipramine therapy or clomipramine therapy (Brown et al, 1980). The result of this study must be considered with caution. An investigator made a single evaluation of efficacy after 2 weeks of therapy. These results were not representative of imipramine and amitriptyline therapy (Greden et al, 1981). Therefore, DST results may not be a useful selection of a particular antidepressant.
 - 3) Platelet Monoamine Oxidase Activity
 - a) Measurements of platelet MAO activity with serotonin reveals that unmedicated depressed patients have a significantly higher degree of activity compared to controls. This degree of activity decreases progressively with imipramine therapy and falls within normal limits at the time the patient is classified as recovered (Qureshi et al, 1987). Whether platelet MAO activity is useful as a monitoring parameter remains to be determined.
 - 4) Platelet Binding
 - a) Imipramine has been shown to have specific high-affinity binding sites on human platelet membranes (McChesney, 1985). These binding sites appear to be similar to those found in the human brain. Research indicates that platelet membrane binding may be decreased in some depressed patients (Lewis & Mittleman, 1987; De Leo et al, 1991); (Ambrusini et al, 1992). The exact value of this finding is not known; however, it may be of value in predicting which depressed patients are more likely to respond to antidepressant therapy.
 - b) The ability of the platelet to bind imipramine decreases with age. Whether this decrease in platelet binding is related to decreases in the density or number of receptors or an alteration in membrane microenvironment is unknown. Even though the decrease in platelet binding is significant, whether the changes affect the efficacy of imipramine is unknown (Marazziti et al, 1987).
 - c) Significant reductions in platelet imipramine binding have been observed in depressed patients. In patients diagnosed with panic disorders or panic disorders concurrent with depression and patients with a prior history of depression have normal platelet imipramine binding compared to controls. The reason for this difference is not known but may indicate that the 2 syndromes differ neurochemically (Pecknold et al, 1987).
 - 5) Serum Concentrations
 - a) Indications for determination of serum imipramine concentration (Hollister, 1982):
 - 1) Utilization of adequate doses without experiencing clinical effect;
 - 2) Side effects uncertainly related to imipramine therapy;
 - 3) Monitoring high dose imipramine therapy;
 - 4) Assess the influence of intercurrent illness on imipramine serum concentrations;
 - 5) Evaluating a patient suspected of intentional or unintentional overdose of imipramine.
 - b) Physical Findings
 - 1) Depression
 - a) Clinical improvement of the signs and symptoms of depression.
 - 2) Enuresis
 - a) Decreased frequency of nocturnal wetting episodes.
 - 3) Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)
 - a) Improvement in mental and behavioral symptoms, including inappropriate inattention, impulsivity and poor cognitive performance.
- 2) Toxic
 - a) Laboratory Parameters
 - 1) Obtain WBC and differential cells in patients with fever, sore throat, or other signs of infection (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007).
 - b) Physical Findings
 - 1) Obtain baseline ECG in patients with cardiac disease, elderly, or if initiating larger-than-usual doses during therapy if clinically warranted (Prod Info imipramine hcl oral tablets, 2007).
 - a) Depression
 - 1) Monitor patients receiving antidepressants for worsening of depression, suicidality, or unusual behavior, especially at the initiation of therapy or when the dose increases or decreases. Such monitoring should include at least weekly face-to-face contact with patients or their family members or caregivers.

weeks of treatment, then visits every other week for the next 4 weeks, then at 12 weeks, and then indicated beyond 12 weeks. Families and caregivers should be advised of the need for close observation) of patients and communication with the prescriber (Anon, 2004).

2) Patients who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, impulsivity, akathisia, hypomania, or mania may be at an increased risk for worsening depression. If these symptoms are observed, therapy should be reevaluated and it may be necessary to discontinue medications when symptoms are severe, sudden in onset, or were not part of the patient's initial presentation (2004).

b) Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

1) The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) does not recommend the routine use of electrocardiograms (ECGs) or routine subspecialty cardiology evaluations (which were previously recommended by the American Heart Association (AHA) scientific statement to detect cardiac conditions that might place the child at risk of sudden cardiac death) before initiating stimulant therapy to treat attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in most children. The AAP cited specific reasons for changing the recommendation including: lack of establishing a relationship between stimulant drugs used to treat ADHD and sudden cardiac death; frequency of sudden unexpected deaths among patients taking stimulant drugs is not higher than the general population of children, and lack of cost-effective analysis to support ECG screening or consultation by pediatric cardiologist (Perrin et al, 2008).

2) Based on the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) and the American Heart Association (AHA) statements, the following cardiac monitoring recommendations have been established to assist in the evaluation of children treated with stimulant drugs, including imipramine, for ADHD (Perrin et al, 2008):

- Conduct a thorough examination prior to initiating imipramine therapy for a diagnosis of ADHD. Attention should be given to symptoms indicative of a cardiac condition, including palpitations or syncope.
- Obtain a complete family and patient history for conditions associated with SCD, and determine if any other prescription or over-the-counter medications.
- Conduct a complete physical evaluation of the patient for hypertension, cardiac murmurs, associated with Marfan syndrome, and signs of irregular cardiac rhythms. Prolongation of QT interval, tachycardia, and rarely sudden death have all been reported with imipramine use.
- Perform further evaluation if family history, patient history or physical exam is suggestive of a cardiac condition during initial visit or at follow up visits, and if indicated, consult pediatric cardiologist.
- Continue to assess the patient for cardiac symptoms and any changes in family history at follow up visits.
- Blood pressure and heart rate should be evaluated at baseline, at dose increases, during follow up visits within 1 to 3 months, and at follow up visits every 6 to 12 months.

B) Imipramine Pamoate

1) Therapeutic

a) Laboratory Parameters

1) Dexamethasone Suppression Test (DST)

a) The DST has been reported to be a useful tool in predicting whether or not a patient would respond to antidepressant therapy (Brown et al, 1979, Brown et al, 1980). Eighty percent of patients with a positive DST responded to therapy versus a 37% response rate in patients with a negative DST (Brown et al, 1979). A positive DST result is an indicator of tricyclic antidepressant therapy efficacy in the treatment of depression (Peselow et al, 1983a).

b) Depressed patients with abnormal DST may respond better to imipramine or desipramine therapy or clomipramine therapy (Brown et al, 1980). The result of this study must be considered with caution. The investigator made a single evaluation of efficacy after 2 weeks of therapy. These results were not compared to imipramine and amitriptyline therapy (Greden et al, 1981). Therefore, DST results may not be a useful selection of a particular antidepressant.

2) Platelet Monoamine Oxidase Activity

a) Measurements of platelet MAO activity with serotonin reveals that unmedicated depressed patients have a significantly higher degree of activity compared to controls. This degree of activity decreases progressively with imipramine therapy and falls within normal limits at the time the patient is classified as recovered (Quinlan). Whether platelet MAO activity is useful as a monitoring parameter remains to be determined.

3) Serum Concentrations

a) Indications for determination of serum imipramine concentration (Hollister, 1982):

- 1) Utilization of adequate doses without experience clinical effect;
- 2) Side effects uncertainly related to imipramine therapy;
- 3) Monitoring high-dose imipramine therapy;
- 4) Assess the influence of intercurrent illness on imipramine serum concentrations;
- 5) Evaluating a patient suspected of intentional or unintentional overdose of imipramine.

4) Platelet Binding

a) Imipramine has been shown to have specific high-affinity binding sites on human platelet membrane (McChesney, 1985). These binding sites appear to be similar to those found in the human brain. Research indicates that platelet membrane binding may be decreased in some depressed patients (Lewis & M. Pecknold et al, 1987; De Leo et al, 1991); (Ambrusini et al, 1992). The exact value of this finding is not known; however, it may be of value in predicting which depressed patients are more likely to respond to antidepressant therapy.

b) The ability of the platelet to bind imipramine decreases with age. Whether this decrease in platelet binding is related to decreases in the density or number of receptors or an alteration in membrane microenvironment. Even though the decrease in platelet binding is significant, whether the changes affect the efficacy is unknown (Marazziti et al, 1987).

c) Significant reductions in platelet imipramine binding have been observed in depressed patients. Patients diagnosed with panic disorders or panic disorders concurrent with depression and patients with a primary depression have normal platelet imipramine binding compared to controls. The reason for this difference but may indicate that the 2 syndromes differ neurochemically (Pecknold et al, 1987).

b) Physical Findings

1) Depression

a) Clinical improvement of the signs and symptoms of depression.

2) Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

a) Improvement in mental and behavioral symptoms, including inappropriate inattention, impulsivity and cognitive performance.

2) Toxic

a) Laboratory Parameters

1) Obtain WBC and differential cells in patients with fever, sore throat, or other signs of infection (Prod Info (R) oral capsules, 2007).

b) Physical Findings

1) Obtain baseline ECG in patients with cardiac disease, elderly, or if initiating larger-than-usual doses during therapy if clinically warranted (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, 2007).

2) Monitor patients receiving antidepressants for worsening of depression, suicidality, or unusual changes especially at the initiation of therapy or when the dose increases or decreases. Such monitoring should include weekly face-to-face contact with patients or their family members or caregivers during the initial 4 weeks, visits every other week for the next 4 weeks, then at 12 weeks, and then as clinically indicated beyond 12 weeks, and caregivers should be advised of the need for close observation (ie, daily observation) of patients and with the prescriber (Anon, 2004).

3) Patients who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility, akathisia, hypomania, or mania may be at an increased risk for worsening depression or suicidality. If observed, therapy should be reevaluated and it may be necessary to discontinue medications when symptoms sudden in onset, or were not part of the patient's initial symptoms (Anon, 2004).

a) Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)

1) The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) does not recommend the routine use of electrocardiograms (ECGs) or routine subspecialty cardiology evaluations (which were previously recommended by the American Heart Association (AHA) scientific statement to detect cardiac conditions that might place the child at risk of sudden cardiac death) before initiating stimulant therapy to treat attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in most children. The AAP cited specific reasons for changing the recommendation including: lack of evidence establishing a relationship between stimulant drugs used to treat ADHD and sudden cardiac death; the frequency of sudden unexpected deaths among patients taking stimulant drugs is not higher than in the general population of children, and lack of cost-effective analysis to support ECG screening or monitoring by pediatric cardiologist (Perrin et al, 2008).

2) Based on the American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) and the American Heart Association (AHA) statements, the following cardiac monitoring recommendations have been established to assist in the evaluation of children treated with stimulant drugs, including imipramine pamoate, for ADHD (Perrin et al, 2008):

- Conduct a thorough examination prior to initiating imipramine pamoate therapy for a diagnosis of depression. Special attention should be given to symptoms indicative of a cardiac condition, including palpitations, presyncope, or syncope.
- Obtain a complete family and patient history for conditions associated with SCD, and detect the use of any other prescription or over-the-counter medications.
- Conduct a complete physical evaluation of the patient for hypertension, cardiac murmurs, associated with Marfan syndrome, and signs of irregular cardiac rhythms. Prolongation of QT interval, tachycardia, and rarely sudden death have all been reported with imipramine pamoate use.
- Perform further evaluation if family history, patient history or physical exam is suggestive of cardiac disease during initial visit or at follow up visits, and if indicated, consult pediatric cardiologist.
- Continue to assess the patient for cardiac symptoms and any changes in family history at follow up visits.
- Blood pressure and heart rate should be evaluated at baseline, at dose increases, during follow up visits, and at follow up visits every 6 to 12 months.

4.2 Patient Instructions

A) Imipramine (By mouth)

Imipramine

Treats depression. May also be used to treat bedwetting in children. This medicine is a tricyclic antidepressant.

When This Medicine Should Not Be Used:

You should not use this medicine if you have had an allergic reaction to imipramine or to related medicines such as Elavil®, carbamazepine (Tegretol®), maprotiline (Ludomil®), or nortriptyline (Aventyl®). You should not use this

have had a recent heart attack or have taken an MAO inhibitor such as isocarboxazid (Marplan®), phenelzine (Nefazodone®), or tranylcypromine (Parnate®) in the past 14 days.

How to Use This Medicine:

Capsule, Tablet

Your doctor will tell you how much of this medicine to use and how often. Your dose may need to be changed to find out what works best for you. Do not use more medicine or use it more often than your doctor tells you. You may take this medicine with or without food.

Do not crush or chew the capsules. You may open the capsules and mix the medicine beads with soft food (such as applesauce). Swallow the mixture without chewing.

If you are taking this drug for depression, it may take 2 to 3 weeks before you start to feel better.

This medicine should come with a Medication Guide. Read and follow these instructions carefully. Ask your doctor or pharmacist if you have any questions. Ask your pharmacist for the Medication Guide if you do not have one. They will ask you to sign some forms to show that you understand this information.

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, then do not use the medicine and skip the missed dose. Do not use extra medicine to make up for a missed dose.

If you take one dose a day at bedtime, you should not use the missed dose the next morning. Wait until your next bedtime 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 your treatment. You will also need to throw away old 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, and herbal products.

Make sure your doctor knows if you are using atropine, benzotropine (Cogentin®), cimetidine (Tagamet®), guanethidine (Ismelin®), methylphenidate (Ritalin®), scopolamine, medicine for high blood pressure (such as clonidine or other certain medicine for heart rhythm problems (such as quinidine, flecainide, propafenone, Quinaglute®, Tambocor®), medicine to treat seizures (such as phenobarbital, phenytoin, or Dilantin®), a phenothiazine medicine (such as chlorpromazine, perphenazine, prochlorperazine, promethazine, thioridazine, Compazine®, Mellaril®, Phenergan®), or other medicines to treat depression (such as fluoxetine, paroxetine, sertraline, Zoloft®).

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

Do not drink alcohol while you are using this medicine.

Warnings While Using This Medicine:

Make sure your doctor knows if you are pregnant, planning to become pregnant, or breastfeeding. Tell your doctor if you have glaucoma, trouble urinating, mental problems, stomach problems, seizures, heart disease, liver disease, kidney disease, or thyroid disease.

For some children, teenagers, and young adults, this medicine can increase thoughts of suicide. Tell your doctor right away if you or your child start to feel more depressed and have thoughts about hurting yourself. Tell your doctor if you or your child have unusual thoughts or behaviors that trouble you or your child, especially if they are new or are getting worse. Tell your doctor if you or your child have trouble sleeping, get upset easily, have a big increase in energy, or become very reckless. Also tell the doctor if you or your child have sudden or strong feelings, such as feeling nervous, angry, violent, or scared. Let the doctor know if you, your child, or anyone in your family has bipolar disorder (manic-depressive disorder) or has tried to commit suicide.

Do not give this medicine to a child unless directed to do so by the child's doctor.

This medicine may raise or lower your blood sugar, or it may cover up symptoms of very low blood sugar (hypoglycemia). Make sure any doctor or dentist who treats you knows that you are using this medicine. You may need to stop taking this medicine several days before having surgery or medical tests.

Do not stop using this medicine suddenly without asking your doctor. You may need to slowly decrease your dose when stopping it completely.

This medicine may make your skin more sensitive to sunlight. Use a sunscreen when you are outdoors. Avoid tanning beds.

This medicine may cause dizziness and vision changes. Avoid driving, using machines, or doing anything else that is dangerous if you are not alert or able to see well.

Your doctor will need to check your progress at regular visits while you are using this medicine. Be sure to keep all appointments.

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, difficulty breathing.

trouble breathing.
 Anxiety, restlessness, nervousness, or mood or mental changes.
 Change in how much or how often you urinate, or problems with urination.
 Changes in behavior, or thoughts of hurting yourself or others.
 Chest pain, shortness of breath, cold sweats, and bluish-colored skin.
 Fast, pounding, or irregular heartbeat.
 Lightheadedness or fainting when getting up suddenly from a lying or sitting position.
 Numbness or tingling in the hands and feet.
 Numbness or weakness in your arm or leg, or on one side of your body.
 Seizures or tremors.
 Sudden or severe headache, problems with vision, speech, balance, or walking.
 Swelling in your hands, ankles, or feet.
 Trouble sleeping.
 Twitching or muscle movements you cannot control.
 Unexplained fever or sore throat.
 Unusual bleeding or bruising.
 Unusual tiredness or weakness.
 Yellowing of your skin or the whites of your eyes.

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

Breast swelling or discharge.
 Changes in vision.
 Changes in weight.
 Dizziness or drowsiness.
 Dry mouth.
 Nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, constipation, or upset stomach.
 Problems having sex.
 Ringing in the ears.
 Skin rash or itching.
 Swelling of the breast or testicles in men.

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

4.3 Place In Therapy

A) Depression is a complicated disorder and consequently this disease's treatment regimens are diverse. The two major diagnostic syndromes among affective disorders are major depression and bipolar disorders. The tricyclic antidepressants and the monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) are considered the most effective agents for treating major depression. For bipolar disorders, lithium is considered the standard of therapy over TCAs, MAOIs and other agents such as carbamazepine (C).
B) Imipramine and amitriptyline, along with the selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI) antidepressants, are considered the standard of therapy for endogenous or typical depression. In addition, imipramine may be employed for treating enuresis. Imipramine has also been used adjunctively for pediatric enuresis, adult urinary incontinence associated with neurogenic bladder, incontinence, and geriatric spontaneous unstable detrusor contractions. Some studies indicate that chronic pain and diabetic neuropathies may also be alleviated with imipramine. Although TCAs reportedly lower seizure threshold, imipramine has been demonstrated to reduce the frequency of absence and myoclonic seizures. When an epileptic patient is refractory to other antidepressants and a TCA is deemed necessary for treatment, imipramine should be considered.
C) Imipramine and amitriptyline still have a place in therapy as the standards for the treatment of major depression and atypical depression. Newer classes of antidepressants are not more effective than imipramine for typical depression, but they are alternatives for treating patients intolerant of TCAs or exhibiting atypical depression. Being versatile, imipramine may be used in the therapy of other disorders besides depression and should be included on hospital formularies. Institutions that commonly treat depression should consider a diverse formulary with agents from each antidepressant class.

4.4 Mechanism of Action / Pharmacology

A) MECHANISM OF ACTION

1) DEPRESSION

a) The antidepressant mechanism of action of imipramine has not been completely determined but appears to involve interaction with biogenic amines. Imipramine, like other tricyclic antidepressants, blocks the re-uptake of norepinephrine and 5-hydroxytryptamine at nerve terminals preventing their degradation and increasing their availability. This results in a higher turnover of these amines in selective neurons but the relation of this effect to anti-depressant activity has not been demonstrated (Gilman et al, 1990). Effects on the D1 dopamine receptor may also be important in the mediating antidepressant activity (Gambarana et al, 1995).

2) ENURESIS

a) Why imipramine works in the treatment of enuresis is not well understood. Its beneficial effects do not appear to be related to changes in sleep architecture, anticholinergic properties, antiadrenergic properties, or effects on thyroid release. Imipramine induces urinary urgency. In patients with nocturnal polyuria, imipramine had a vasopressin-independent antidiuretic effect attributed primarily to increased tubular reabsorption of urea and to a lesser extent to decreased sodium and water excretion (Hunsballe et al, 1997). The drug improves functional bladder capacity during chronic administration (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995a).

B) REVIEW ARTICLES

- 1) A Consensus Statement on Panic Disorder is available from the International Consensus Group on Depression (Ballenger et al, 1998). Also an excellent review is available on the treatment of panic disorder (Bennett et al, 199
- 2) Drug-interactions of antidepressants are reviewed in German language (Zapotoczky & Simhandl, 1995).

4.5 Therapeutic Uses

Imipramine

Imipramine Hydrochloride

Imipramine Pamoate

4.5.A Imipramine

Anorexia nervosa

Cataplexy - Narcolepsy

Ophthalmoplegic migraine

Severe major depression with psychotic features

4.5.A.1 Anorexia nervosa

See Drug Consult reference: ANOREXIA NERVOSA - DRUG THERAPY

4.5.A.2 Cataplexy - Narcolepsy

See Drug Consult reference: NARCOLEPSY AND CATAPLEXY - DRUG THERAPY

4.5.A.3 Ophthalmoplegic migraine

See Drug Consult reference: THERAPY OF HEADACHE IN CHILDREN

4.5.A.4 Severe major depression with psychotic features

See Drug Consult reference: PSYCHOTIC DEPRESSION - DRUG THERAPY

4.5.B Imipramine Hydrochloride

Agoraphobia

Anorexia nervosa

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, predominantly inattentive type

Binging

Bulimia nervosa

Cardiac dysrhythmia

Depression

Diabetic neuropathy

Disorder of ejaculation

Drug dependence

Gardner-Diamond syndrome

Globus hystericus

Mood swings

Nocturnal enuresis

Obsessive-compulsive disorder

Pain

Panic disorder

Posttraumatic stress disorder

Schizophrenia; Adjunct

Separation anxiety disorder of childhood

Sexual disorder

Sleep disorder

Social phobia

Trichotillomania

Urinary incontinence

4.5.B.1 Agoraphobia

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Effective in the treatment of agoraphobia (Deltito et al, 1991)
Efficacy appears to be dose-related and usually requires doses of 150 milligrams or greater per day

c) Adult:

- 1) Imipramine and placebo were equally effective in the treatment of agoraphobia in a double-blind clinic drug therapy with brief psychological treatment (Cohen et al, 1984a). The drugs were started 2 weeks prior of the psychological therapy. At week 6 the mean dose of IMIPRAMINE was 124 milligrams and at week 12 mg/day. During week 2 to week 12 each treatment group received 6 fortnightly sessions of therapist-aided exposure. In addition each patient was given a leaflet describing the nature of agoraphobia and ways to cope with it. Patients were requested to complete systematic self-exposure homework and record these activities in a diary. Drug therapy was gradually withdrawn over weeks 26 to 28 of therapy. At the 2-year follow-up only 40 subjects were available. Two had dropped out of the study (2 refused follow-up, 1 died, 1 moved out of the country, and 1 was untraceable). Of the patients who remained improved with regards to their phobias. There was no significant difference between patients treated with imipramine or placebo therapy. Nor was there a superior effect of therapist-aided exposure over therapist-aided relaxation.
- 2) The plasma IMIPRAMINE levels, but not DESIPRAMINE, correlated with the improvement in agoraphobia (Mavissakalian et al, 1984), which may indicate that the anti-phobic effects of IMIPRAMINE therapy are in the post-synaptic serotonergic neurotransmitter system and not the noradrenergic system.
- 3) IMIPRAMINE therapy plus programmed in vivo exposure practice was superior to IMIPRAMINE therapy alone (Mavissakalian & Michelson, 1986; Mavissakalian et al, 1983).

4.5.B.2 Anorexia nervosa

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class III

Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Has resulted in some improvement in patients with anorexia nervosa

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine treatment resulted in some improvement in 7 patients with anorexia nervosa treated serially with antidepressants (tricyclics, MAOIs, and triazolopyridines) including imipramine. Three of the patients received imipramine; the treatment trials ranged from 6 to 14 weeks. Four of the patients had some improvement in symptoms, 2 experienced some weight gain, and 3 of 3 who had bulimic symptoms reported improvement. Improvement in anorexic symptoms (3 to 6 weeks) was slower than the improvement observed in depression and anxiety following tricyclic therapy (Hudson et al, 1985). Significant weight gain generally began after 2 to 3 months with IMIPRAMINE tended to tolerate the drug poorly and appeared to have an extraordinary sensitivity to anticholinergic side effects when compared to patients treated with trazodone or MAOIs (Hudson et al, 1985). An extraordinary sensitivity to the drug's side effects may be associated with their low body weight.

4.5.B.3 Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, predominantly inattentive type

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no

Efficacy: Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive

Recommendation: Pediatric, Class III

Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Stimulants (eg, amphetamine, methylphenidate) are the drugs of choice in the treatment of attention deficit disorder.

c) Pediatric:

1) Imipramine therapy should be considered an alternative or adjunctive agent when these agents fail or are unable to tolerate them (Hilton et al, 1991; Rancurello, 1985a). The dose used ranges from 25 to 100 mg daily. The monitoring of serum imipramine and desipramine levels may be useful. The serum levels associated with clinical responses have been 10 to 54 ng/ml of imipramine and 10 to 65 ng/ml of desipramine (Linnoila et al, 1991).
2) A 6-year-old retarded child with Fragile X syndrome and attention deficit disorder responded to IMIPRAMINE (Hilton et al, 1991). IMIPRAMINE improved the boy's insomnia, enuresis, and attention deficit disorder, but therapy with METHYLPHENIDATE had caused a deterioration in behavior.
3) A 12-year-old boy with a history of severe attention deficit disorder and stimulant-induced Tourette's disorder responded well to IMIPRAMINE therapy (50 milligrams/d). During the course of IMIPRAMINE therapy the disorder substantially improved and the Tourette's symptomatology was not affected (Dillon et al, 1985).
4) Ten hyperactive children were treated with IMIPRAMINE 75 to 150 milligrams/day and no response was observed of the patients (Winsberg et al, 1980).
5) Fifty-two children, 3 to 14 years of age, were enrolled in an open clinical study to evaluate the efficacy of imipramine in the treatment of CHILDHOOD HYPERACTIVITY (Huessy & Wright, 1970). Thirty-five of the 52 children marked improvement in behavior. The average daily dose of IMIPRAMINE was 50 mg (25 to 125 mg). Sixty-one percent (11/17) of the children failing to respond to IMIPRAMINE therapy subsequently responded to METHYLPHENIDATE therapy.

4.5.B.4 Binging

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; 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

b) Summary:

May be beneficial for weight loss when added to diet counseling and psychological support in obese binge eaters.

c) Adult:

1) A short course of low dose imipramine added to diet counseling and psychological support helped obese binge eaters to lose weight and maintain their weight loss. In a double-blind study, binge eaters (as defined by DSM-IV criteria) with a body mass index of greater than 27.5-kilograms (kg)/square meter randomly received imipramine 25 milligrams daily (n=15) or placebo (n=16) for 8 weeks. Diet counseling and psychological support were provided during the study phase and continued for 6 months thereafter. Imipramine-treated patients experienced a weight loss of 1.9 kg; the placebo group remained stable (p=0.0002). The occurrence of depression was low for both groups; however, the Hamilton Depression scale declined in the imipramine group (p less than 0.001) but not in the placebo group. Binge eating episodes declined from 7.1 episodes/week to 2.8 episodes for the imipramine group (p less than 0.001) and from 5.4 episodes in the placebo group (p not significant). After the active treatment phase, imipramine-treated patients continued their weight loss by a mean of 1.9 kg (p less than 0.001) while placebo-treated patients regained weight (p not significant) (Laederach-Hofmann et al, 1999).

4.5.B.5 Bulimia nervosa

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Approximately 75% of patients show at least a moderate response (reduction of binge eating by 50% antidepressant therapy
 Monoamine oxidase inhibitors also appear effective in bulimia, and may be superior to tricyclic antidepressants (Pope et al, 1983)

c) Adult:

1) Twenty bulimic subjects were followed for a period of up to 2 years to assess the long term efficacy of therapy (Pope et al, 1985). At the end of the follow-up period, 95% had at least partial improvement and experienced a complete remission. Over the course of the study period 85% had either maintained or improved quality of their initial response. The one patient that failed to respond discontinued her medication and returned to her original frequency of binge eating.

2) A retrospective study of 22 patients with bulimia treated with antidepressants (AMITRIPTYLINE, IMIPRAMINE, DOXEPIN, TRAZODONE, TRANYLCPROMINE, or PHENELZINE) showed a decrease in bingeing and/or an improvement in depression (Brotman et al, 1984). During a 3-month follow-up period relapsed despite continuation of their antidepressant therapy, while others continued to benefit from drug therapy.

4.5.B.6 Cardiac dysrhythmia

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class III
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Some patients with ventricular tachycardia or premature ventricular contractions may benefit from imipramine.

c) Adult:

1) IMIPRAMINE was included in a double-blinded crossover pilot study to evaluate the efficacy of ventricular complex (VPC) suppression after acute myocardial infarction as a means to improve survival (Anon, 1985). Patients were assigned to ENCAINIDE, FLECAINIDE, IMIPRAMINE, MORICIZINE, or placebo. The dose of the drug was adjusted to achieve 70% or greater reduction of VPC and greater than 90% reduction in unsustained ventricular tachycardia. If the patient failed to achieve an adequate response or was unable to tolerate the drug, the patient was discontinued and they were crossed over to a different antiarrhythmic class (class 1C to class 1A or class III). ENCAINIDE (79%) and FLECAINIDE (83%) were superior to IMIPRAMINE (52%), MORICIZINE (66%), or placebo, as first line-drugs. In patients failing IMIPRAMINE or MORICIZINE therapy, ENCAINIDE was 68% and FLECAINIDE was 68% effective. It would appear that IMIPRAMINE is not the drug of choice for the prevention of VPC following myocardial infarction. In addition, changes in therapy secondary to the development or worsening of conduction system failure occurred in 26% of the treatment groups compared to 18% in the placebo group (Greene et al, 1985).

2) IMIPRAMINE in doses of 50 to 400 milligrams/day (mean = 210 +/- 103 mg/day) and NORTRIPTYLINE in doses of 100 to 150 mg/day (mean = 100 +/- 29 mg/day) were effective in the reduction of PVCs (Giardina et al, 1985). In patients with premature ventricular contractions, IMIPRAMINE was effective in the reduction of PVCs. Neither drug significantly changed ejection fraction or peak systolic pressure end-systolic volume ratio. Both drugs produced a reduction in blood pressure.

3) Twenty-two patients with 30 or more ventricular premature complexes (PVCs) per hour were treated with IMIPRAMINE 1 milligram/kilogram/day (in two divided doses), increasing by 1 mg/kg/day every other day until suppressed by at least 80% (or until adverse effects were observed or a daily dose of 5 mg/kg/day was reached). Eighteen patients (82%) exhibited antiarrhythmic effects from IMIPRAMINE therapy. All patients treated with IMIPRAMINE also had psychological depression. The elimination half-life was approximately 8 hours, however, duration of antiarrhythmic effects were observed over at least a 12 hour period, which suggests that IMIPRAMINE may contribute to the duration of antiarrhythmic efficacy (Giardina & Bigger, 1982).

4) In patients with premature ventricular contractions, IMIPRAMINE was noted to suppress arrhythmias in 90% in 10 of 11 patients. IMIPRAMINE shortens action potential duration and decreases conduction velocity and therefore is classified as a class 1 antiarrhythmic drug. Since the half-life of IMIPRAMINE is 12 to 18 hours) it may be dosed on a twice daily regimen. Antiarrhythmic doses appear to be similar to antiarrhythmic doses (3.5 mg/kg/day). The antiarrhythmic activity of IMIPRAMINE is partially attributed to its metabolites, desmethylimipramine and 2-hydroxyimipramine. Due to complications, IMIPRAMINE should not be used in patients with pre-excitation defects (Thase & Perel, 1982).

4.5.B.7 Depression

FDA Labeled Indication

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, yes; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Effective; Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb; Pediatric, Class IIb

Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B; Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Indicated for the relief of symptoms of depression (Prod Info TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)
Endogenous depression may be more likely to respond to imipramine therapy than other depressive TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)

c) Adult:

- 1) Various depressive illnesses have responded to treatment with IMIPRAMINE in daily doses of 75 to 2 (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b; Kocsis et al, 1989; Kocsis et al, 1988; Battistini et al, 1980a; Eilenberg, 19; 1979a); (Lindberg et al, 1979)(Amin et al, 1978). Patients suffering from endogenous depression (Fabre endogenous depression (Lindberg et al, 1979), depression of myotonic dystrophy (Brumback & Carlson, depression (Finnerty et al, 1978a) alcoholic patients with primary depression (McGrath et al, 1996), and patients with depressive disorders (Nunes et al, 1998) may benefit from IMIPRAMINE therapy. However, of IMIPRAMINE and a neuroleptic are effective in the treatment of delusional depression (Kaskey et al, 1
- 2) High dose tricyclic antidepressant therapy (IMIPRAMINE 150 to 200 milligrams/d, DESMETHYLIMIP 500 mg/d) was effective in only a small portion of elderly patients with delusional depression. The dropo to side effects was 58% and the overall success rate was only 25% (Brown et al, 1984).

d) Pediatric:

- 1) IMIPRAMINE is efficacious in the treatment of depression in children (Rancurello, 1985a; Petti & Con general overview of the treatment of childhood behavioral and emotional disorders has been published (1985a).
- 2) IMIPRAMINE therapy in adolescents with major depressive illness was less effective than in adults in of 35 patients (Strober et al, 1990). Twenty-four females and 11 male depressed patients between 13 an with a Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression scores of 16 or greater were enrolled in the study. Followi period, patients received IMIPRAMINE 5 milligrams/kilogram/day (up to a maximum of 300 mg) for 6 we adolescents completed the trial. The average daily dose was 222 mg/day. Overall efficacy was low, with with delusional subtypes responding more poorly than the nondelusional patients. Eight of the 24 nondel displayed delayed onset of response, followed by sustained improvement. Only one delusional patient di clinical improvement. Steady state plasma levels did not vary between responders and nonresponders. 1 study suggest that imipramine may be less efficacious in the treatment of major depression in adolescen as has previously been suggested for other tricyclic antidepressants, and raises questions about age diff neurotransmitter and neuroregulatory system responses to specific antidepressant agents.
- 3) Twenty-one children (ages 5.8 to 10.25 years) with various types of depression were treated with IMI 67% of the children showing some improvement (Conners & Petti, 1983). The dose of IMIPRAMINE was at bedtime and slowly increased over a period of 7 to 14 days to a maximum dosage of 5 milligrams/kilo mg/day (one older child was treated with 225 mg/d (4.9 mg/kg/day). Seven (33%) of the children experie worsening or no significant change in any of the areas monitored. In fact, 2 children showed a significant and hostility during the IMIPRAMINE therapy.
- 4) Imipramine was efficacious in the treatment of 20 prepubertal children hospitalized for major depressi III) with imipramine (Preskorn et al, 1982). IMIPRAMINE therapy consisted of 75 milligrams/day, adminis for the first 3 weeks and increased to a maximum of 5 milligrams/kilogram if no response. Serum IMIPR/ DESIPRAMINE levels were drawn during each phase of the study. During phase I, none of the 15 childre tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) plasma concentration outside the 125 to 225 ng/mL range showed a remis improvement in their condition. Eighty percent of those children with serum levels between 125 to 225 ng a remission. During phase II, 12 of the 16 children achieved steady-state total TCA plasma concentratio ng/mL and 11 (92%) of them had experienced a remission by the end of the treatment period. Based on be concluded that IMIPRAMINE is effective in the treatment of depression in prepubertal children and its concentration-dependent.

4.5.B.8 Diabetic neuropathy

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; 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

b) Summary:

Effective for diabetic neuropathy in selected patients

c) Adult:

- 1) In most patients, an imipramine plasma drug concentration of 400 to 500 nmol/L was sufficient to ach in the treatment of diabetic neuropathy (Sindrup et al, 1990a). All patients were diabetic and had one or i (pain, paresthesia, dysesthesia, and hypesthesia) and signs (reduction of sensibility, strength, or tendon peripheral neuropathy. One patient demonstrated no significant improvement even with IMIPRAMINE pl levels below 400 nmol/L. In the other eleven patients doses of 125 to 350 milligrams/day were required t levels to about 400 mmol/L. One patient required a blood level of 730 mmol/L to achieve maximal relief.
- 2) A double-blind, cross-over comparison of IMIPRAMINE with placebo was conducted in nine patients peripheral diabetic neuropathy (Sindrup et al, 1989). The dose of IMIPRAMINE was adjusted to achieve IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE level of 300 to 750 nmol (125 to 225 milligrams/day) during the first w

treatment period was three weeks and no washout phase was used between treatment periods. Efficacy at the end of each treatment period based on symptoms and measurement of peripheral and autonomic nerve function. IMIPRAMINE provided significant beneficial symptomatic improvement in all patients, but not beneficial improvement in peripheral or autonomic nerve function.

3) IMIPRAMINE in doses of 50 milligrams (mg) daily for one week, then 100 mg daily for 4 weeks, was effective in producing improvement in 7 of 12 patients with severe diabetic neuropathy of the lower extremities in a crossover study (Kvinesdal et al, 1984). IMIPRAMINE had beneficial effects on pain, paresthesia, dysesthesia and nocturnal aggravation.

4.5.B.9 Disorder of ejaculation

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class III
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

In case reports, imipramine has been effective in treating ejaculatory disorders

c) Adult:

1) IMIPRAMINE 25 milligrams three times/day corrected RETROGRADE EJACULATION of 18 months duration in 2 adult diabetics. One patient had normal gonadotropin levels; the other had low plasma testosterone therapy did not correct retrograde ejaculation (Brooks et al, 1980).

2) A 29-year-old male with ASPERMIA of 4 years duration secondary to lymphadenectomy noted ejaculatory volume and consistency 1 day after beginning IMIPRAMINE 50 milligrams daily for depression. Motile sperm seen on microscopic examination and sperm count was 115,600,000/mm³. Aspermia returned within 2 days of discontinuing IMIPRAMINE therapy. These results recurred on 3 separate occasions (Kelly & Needle, 1980).

4.5.B.10 Drug dependence

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Has little effect in the treatment of drug addiction
Does improve mood in drug-addicted patients with depressive disorders

c) Adult:

1) Treatment of depressed METHADONE-MAINTENANCE OPIATE ADDICTS with IMIPRAMINE or a placebo. Similar subjective results in one study (Kleber et al, 1983). At the end of 8 weeks of therapy both groups showed reduction in depressive symptoms. However, a 12-week, double-blind trial that excluded initial placebo pre-randomization period found significantly improved depression rating scores after treatment with imipramine compared to placebo (n=42) (p less than 0.001). Imipramine doses were titrated based on response to a target of 268 milligrams daily (Nunes et al, 1998).

2) Imipramine had little effect in the treatment of COCAINE DEPENDENCE and METHAMPHETAMINE DEPENDENCE patients (151 cocaine dependent and 32 methamphetamine dependent) seen at the Haight-Ashbury Free Clinic (et al, 1994). Patients were randomly assigned to treatment with imipramine 10 or 150 milligrams/day for this double-blind study. In addition, all subjects were given intensive drug abuse counseling during the treatment. Efficacy was based on negative urine samples, self reporting of abstinence, craving, and Beck Depression Inventory. The longest retention in the program occurred with the group receiving the higher imipramine dose (retention 34 days vs 17 days). No differences in craving or depressive symptoms were observed and the scores in both groups decreased after the start of therapy. Positive urine analyses were less in the high dose group (5% vs 14%) at 14 days, but were no different at 28 or 90 days. Based on these results it appears of limited value in the treatment of cocaine or methamphetamine dependent patients who do not have a comorbid disorder.

4.5.B.11 Gardner-Diamond syndrome

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Effective only for short-term therapy of autoerythrocyte sensitization

c) Adult:

1) A 20-year-old female with autoerythrocyte sensitization and depression was treated with IMIPRAMINE 150 mg daily (1983). One week later the bleeding resolved and after 2 weeks the depression began to resolve. In 3 to 4

symptoms had resolved. Six weeks later, while still receiving therapeutic doses of IMIPRAMINE, the depression recurred and 10 days later bleeding restarted. Compared to previous episodes the severity of depression was less severe. The bleeding resolved in 10 days and the depressive symptoms were gone within 6 weeks. In subsequent relapse in therapy the IMIPRAMINE was discontinued and AMITRIPTYLINE therapy (300 mg). Since the start of AMITRIPTYLINE therapy the patient has been free of depression and bleeding for 10 r

4.5.B.12 Globus hystericus

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Efficacy demonstrated in case reports only

c) Adult:

1) Globus hystericus syndrome is a condition in which the individual develops a fear that he/she is interred and unable to breathe. If the condition is left untreated the patient may become profoundly disabled or may experience threatening weight loss. Case reports of three patients have shown that psychoactive drugs may be effective in this condition. IMIPRAMINE therapy was effective in the treatment of one case, PHENELZINE in another case (Brown et al, 1986). Two additional cases of successful imipramine therapy for globus hystericus syndrome were reported (Kaplan, 1987; Rosenthal, 1987).

4.5.B.13 Mood swings

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Possibly effective for PATHOLOGICAL CRYING/LAUGHING

c) Adult:

1) Heightened tendency for crying or laughing in frequency and inappropriate circumstances (pathologic laughing) and emotional lability unrelated to depression can occur in individuals with brain damage (eg, stroke). Small doses of IMIPRAMINE (30 to 60 milligrams) may partially or completely control the emotionalism (Allman, 1992).

4.5.B.14 Nocturnal enuresis

FDA Labeled Indication

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, yes (6 years and older)
Efficacy: Pediatric, Effective
Recommendation: Pediatric, Class IIa
Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Indicated as temporary adjunctive therapy for the reduction of enuresis in children 6 years and older (TOFRANIL(R) tablets, 2005)

c) Pediatric:

1) Numerous double-blind, crossover, placebo-controlled studies have demonstrated IMIPRAMINE's effectiveness as an adjunct treatment of enuresis in pediatric patients. Most studies report the use of doses ranging from 10 mg to 100 mg administered at bedtime although doses as high as 100 mg have been utilized. The application of pharmacokinetic (Bayesian methods) may improve the individualization of IMIPRAMINE dosing in the treatment of enuresis (1994a; Tamayo et al, 1992; Fernandez de Gatta et al, 1989). Most studies report only minor side effects such as mouth, constipation, irritability, anorexia, and sleep disturbances (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b; Fernandez et al, 1990; Fournier et al, 1987; Wagner et al, 1982; Jorgenson et al, 1980; Rapoport et al, 1980b; Lake et al, et al, 1974; Maxwell & Seldrup, 1971; Alderton, 1970).

2) Follow-up of 29 young adults, 10 years after IMIPRAMINE therapy for enuresis, suggests that no psychological results from this therapy; these patients showed no psychological decompensation, inhibition of learning or drug abuse (Bindelglas & Dee, 1978).

4.5.B.15 Obsessive-compulsive disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class III
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Questionable efficacy in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder

c) Adult:

- 1) Imipramine was ineffective in treating obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) in a double-blind, placebo study that evaluated the efficacy of IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of depression and obsessive-compulsive patients (Foa et al, 1987). Nineteen (10 women and 9 men) were treated with IMIPRAMINE and 18 (9 were treated with a placebo. Each placebo patient received 10 tablets per day. The IMIPRAMINE group increased by 25 mg every other day until clinical response, side effects, or a maximum daily dose of 250 mg. At the end of 6 weeks the IMIPRAMINE was effective for symptoms associated with depression, but had little to no effect on their obsessive-compulsive symptoms.
- 2) Four patients with obsessive-compulsive bowel obsessions were treated with IMIPRAMINE (3) or DOXEPIN (1). All patients were free of their bowel obsession within 30 days (10, 14, 14, 30) of starting drug therapy (Jenik et al, 1987).

4.5.B.16 Pain

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Pain has occasionally resolved with imipramine therapy

c) Adult:

- 1) Patients with chest pain, but normal coronary angiograms, may respond to imipramine therapy (Cannon et al, 1987). The dose of medications used in the study were imipramine 50 milligrams at night and placebo in the morning 0.1 milligrams twice daily, and placebo twice daily. The incidence of chest pain was decreased by 52 +/- 11% with 1 +/- 86% with placebo and 39 +/- 51% with clonidine therapy (data is presented as means +/- SD). The reduction in chest pain associated with imipramine use was statistically significant (p=0.03). A follow-up evaluation of these patients an average of 21 months, indicated that none of the patients had been seen in an emergency room or had been hospitalized because of chest pain. Seventeen patients have had the imipramine therapy discontinued and 16 asked to discontinue imipramine therapy because of recurrent chest pain symptoms (Cannon, 1994b). The mechanism of this effect is unknown, but may be a result of a visceral analgesic effect and not dependent on cardiac, esophageal, or gastrointestinal characteristics or gender. Another possible mechanism for this effect may be an increased pain threshold or reduction in psychological depression (Hare, 1994).
- 2) A survey of Italian oncology centers revealed that 43% of their patients were given antidepressants. The most frequently utilized drugs were AMITRIPTYLINE, CLOMIPRAMINE, IMIPRAMINE, and TRAZODONE. Most of the antidepressants were useful in controlling pain and were most efficacious in depressed patients (1987).
- 3) A case report of a 26-year-old graduate student being treated with IMIPRAMINE for suicidal thoughts and low self-esteem noted an improvement in her chronic pelvic pain (induced by endometriosis four years earlier) with IMIPRAMINE therapy (Beresin, 1986).

4.5.B.17 Panic disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; 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

b) Summary:

Similar in efficacy to alprazolam

c) Adult:

- 1) GENERAL INFORMATION
 - a) The clinical response to IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of panic disorder is independent of the presence of depression or dysphoria (Deltito et al, 1991). Patients with high baseline depression scores have the poorest outcomes (Rosenberg et al, 1991aa; Rosenberg et al, 1991c; Zitrin, 1983; Nurnberg & Coccia, 1983). Maintenance with half-dose IMIPRAMINE therapy may be useful in providing patients with a protective effect against relapses (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1992a; Mavissakalian & Perel, 1992b). The use of IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of panic disorder may not be as safe as other anxiolytics in patients with cardiovascular disease (Roth et al, 1987).
 - 2) Combination imipramine and cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) was of limited value initially but proved during maintenance therapy in patients with panic disorder. Patients with panic disorder randomly received (n=77), imipramine alone (n=83), placebo alone (n=24), CBT with imipramine (n=65), or CBT alone (n=65) during an acute treatment phase. Thereafter, responders entered a 6-month maintenance phase. Patient response was assessed following the 12-week acute treatment phase, the 6-month maintenance phase, and 6-months after their discontinuation; assessment tools included the Panic Disorder Severity Scale (PDSS) and the Clinical Global Impression Scale (CGI). Initial imipramine doses were 10 milligrams (mg)/day slowly increased over 5 weeks to 200 mg/day. If symptoms continued, responses for the PDSS were 41% at 12 weeks, 38% at 6 months, and 38% at 6 months after discontinuation.

alone, 45.8% for imipramine alone, 21.7% for placebo alone, 60.3% for CBT with imipramine, and 57.1% placebo. Both CBT alone and imipramine alone were significantly better than placebo ($p=0.03$ and $p=0.0$ however, combination therapy provided no greater response rate over each treatment alone (p not significant during the acute phase, none of the therapies were significantly better than the others. Following maintenance responses on the PDSS were 39.5% for CBT alone, 37.8% for imipramine alone, 13% for placebo alone with imipramine, and 46.8% for CBT plus placebo. Responses on both the PDSS and the CGI were significantly better for imipramine versus placebo ($p=0.02$ for both) and CBT versus placebo ($p=0.02$, $p=0.01$, respectively). Combination therapy was significantly better than either CBT alone ($p=0.04$) and better than imipramine on the CGI, combination therapy was only significantly better than imipramine alone ($p=0.03$) and not better than placebo (not significant). Following treatment discontinuation after the 6-month maintenance phase, the only statistically significant difference was the PDSS scores in the CBT group compared to the placebo group ($p=0.05$) (Barlow et al, 2000).

3) Maintenance treatment with imipramine had a significant protective effect against relapse in patients with panic disorder and agoraphobia. Patients who had shown an initial good and stable response to imipramine therapy or who had randomly received same-dose imipramine continuation ($n=29$) or placebo discontinuation ($n=27$). Patients received an initial imipramine at a target dose of 2.25 milligrams/kilogram or discontinued their imipramine by decreasing the dose by 25% each week (substituted with placebo). During this study, no patient required a crisis-type intervention. During the study, if relapse was confirmed the patient exited the study if defined as a worsening of their condition (measured as a 33% decline in the End- State Function scale score) accompanied by insistent requests for therapeutic action. After 12 months, the study population consisted of 10 patients in the imipramine group and 10 patients in the placebo group. This resulted in a 92.5% lower hazard rate of relapse for imipramine as compared to placebo (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1999).

4) In a double-blind study, an 8-month therapy period for panic disorder with either alprazolam or imipramine (Rickels & Schweizer, 1998). Patients received alprazolam ($n=37$), imipramine ($n=34$), or placebo ($n=35$) during a period of short-term treatment, a 6-month maintenance period, and then a 15-month follow-up period. Patients on alprazolam began at 1 milligram (mg) daily and were titrated up to 10 mg. Those receiving imipramine began at 25 mg and were increased to 250 mg. Alprazolam patients had notable reductions in panic attacks during the first 2 weeks while imipramine patients showed improvement over placebo patients after 3 to 4 weeks. Drop-out rates were 11% in the alprazolam group, 41% in the imipramine group, and 57% in the placebo group (p less than 0.05 for alprazolam versus the other groups). In the remaining patients it was noted that tolerance developed to alprazolam during the maintenance phase. After the 6-month maintenance phase, doses were titrated off over 3 weeks. At 6 months, 62% of the alprazolam and 26% of the imipramine groups were panic-free (p less than 0.01). During the follow-up period, patients could be treated with non-study medications. Regardless of medication, patients who completed treatment were more likely to be panic-free than those who had dropped out, even if they received non-study medication (85% versus 55%, p less than 0.01). Remission rates were higher in younger patients, those with a history of intense panic attacks, those with a lower initial phobia score, and those with an initial lower score of low self-confidence, and passivity (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Dependency Scale).

5) A comparison of cognitive therapy, applied relaxation, and imipramine found that at 3 months cognitive therapy was superior to both applied relaxation and imipramine therapy (Clark et al, 1994). At 6 months the cognitive therapy and imipramine treatment produced similar results and were better than applied relaxation. However, between 6 and 12 months of therapy, several of the imipramine patients relapsed while the patients treated with cognitive therapy did not. Cognitive therapy did better than with imipramine and relaxation therapy.

4.5.B.18 Posttraumatic stress disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Resulted in improvement in positive symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine treatment resulted in improvement in positive symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder in patients (Burstein, 1984). Therapy was initiated at a low dose and increased over the following 7 days to a tolerable dose (mean 260 milligrams/day; range 50 to 350 mg/d). After 2 to 3 weeks of therapy, there was a decrease in the severity of forced recollection, sleep and dream disturbances, and a cessation or reduction of most avoidance items, eg, staying away from reminders of the event, trying not to talk about the event, and removing it from their memory, did not decrease significantly in severity. Based on these results it would appear that IMIPRAMINE, in combination with psychotherapy, may be an effective treatment for patients.

2) Treatment of 3 patients with acute post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) with either DOXEPIN or IMIPRAMINE resulted in an improvement in PTSD symptoms (Blake, 1986). Whether or not tricyclic antidepressant therapy is equivalent, or inferior to psychotherapy or other means of treatment remains to be determined.

4.5.B.19 Schizophrenia; Adjunct

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive; Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb; Pediatric, Class III

Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B; Pediatric, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

- b) Summary:
May be effective as adjunct therapy in depressed schizophrenic patients
Ineffective for schizophrenia itself
- c) Adult:
1) Schizophrenic or schizoaffective patients with POSTPSYCHOTIC DEPRESSION may benefit from their neuroleptic therapy. Favorable results were observed in 27 patients previously treated with FLUPHENAZINE DECANOATE and BENZTROPINE after the addition of IMIPRAMINE to their drug regimen. Beneficial effects continued in those patients with postpsychotic depression that initially responded to the IMIPRAMINE to their regimen and were monitored for an additional six months on the triple drug regimen. Patients that did not complete the six-month observation period were discontinued for administrative reasons. A relapse in either psychosis or depression (Siris et al, 1992). A one-year follow-up study documented that maintaining imipramine therapy in the treatment of postpsychotic depression (Siris et al, 1994).
2) A preliminary study indicates that imipramine may be an effective adjunctive agent in the acute treatment of abusing dysphoric schizophrenic or schizoaffective patients (Siris et al, 1993). The importance of these results is not proven.
- d) Pediatric:
1) A pilot study in 10 autistic and schizophrenic children age 2 to 6 years found IMIPRAMINE therapy to be effective (Campbell et al, 1971). The drug did decrease affective blunting, anergy, and withdrawal and stimulated in several children, but increased psychotic speech, behavioral disorganization, and excitation in other children.

4.5.B.20 Separation anxiety disorder of childhood

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Pediatric, Class III
Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category B
See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS
- b) Summary:
Routine use of tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended for separation anxiety in children
Behavioral therapy may be just as effective as imipramine
- c) Pediatric:
1) The combination of imipramine and nonpharmacologic therapies (eg, parent management training, behavior therapy, and family therapy) may improve subjective comfort, reduce anxiety and somatic symptoms in 70% of children experiencing separation-anxiety disorder (Rancurello, 1985a). This disorder is associated with a high relapse rate, therefore the routine use of tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (Rancurello, 1985a).
2) Both IMIPRAMINE and placebo therapy were equally effective for separation anxiety. A small, double-blind, placebo-controlled study was conducted with 21 children with separation anxiety disorder (Klein et al, 1985). Children were first given a month of vigorous behavioral treatment, then randomly assigned to IMIPRAMINE or placebo therapy for six weeks. Both treatments were approximately 50% effective.

4.5.B.21 Sexual disorder

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C
See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS
- b) Summary:
Effective in case reports only
- c) Adult:
1) IMIPRAMINE may be useful, alone or in combination with LITHIUM, in the treatment of men with PARAPHILIC SEXUAL ADDICTIONS (Kafka, 1991). Two patients with sexual disorders improved with IMIPRAMINE therapy. Whether IMIPRAMINE and other antidepressants are useful in the treatment of paraphilias or nonparaphilic sexual addictions or just specific types remains to be determined.

4.5.B.22 Sleep disorder

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B
See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS
- b) Summary:
Used successfully in the treatment of NIGHT TERRORS, SOMNAMBULISM, NARCOLEPSY, and CATAPLEXY
- c) Adult:
1) IMIPRAMINE therapy (50 to 100 milligrams at bedtime) resulted in a dramatic reduction in frequency

night terrors in 2 patients unresponsive to DIAZEPAM therapy (Cooper, 1987).

2) IMIPRAMINE therapy resulted in a significant reduction (242 +/- 156 to 142.8 +/- 120.1) in the total nu episodes in 41.9% of the patients tested (Rubin et al, 1986). Based on these results it appears that IMIP may be an alternative form of therapy for some nonoverweight patients with negative ear, nose and thro; and for some patients who had not responded to weight reduction or ENT surgery.

3) A 62-year-old female had suppression of night terrors with IMIPRAMINE 50 milligrams at bedtime; 75 completely suppressed night terrors but caused daytime drowsiness (Beitman & Carlin, 1979).

4.5.B.23 Social phobia

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class III
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

No studies currently support the use of imipramine for social phobia

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine was not useful in the treatment of social phobia in an 8-week, open-trial of 15 patients (Si 1998). Imipramine was started at 50 milligrams (mg) for 3 nights and increased at weekly intervals to a r 300 mg by the fourth week. Only 9 patients were able to complete the study as the others dropped out d effects. Only 2 patients responded to imipramine therapy as determined by the Liebowitz Social Anxiety Liebowitz Social Phobia Disorders Scale-Overall Severity. They were also unable to continue further the developed urinary hesitancy and the other became hypomanic.

4.5.B.24 Trichotillomania

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Pediatric, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Used successfully in a case of trichotillomania and depression in a pediatric patient (Weller et al, 1989).

4.5.B.25 Urinary incontinence

a) Overview

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

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Used alone or in combination with other anticholinergic medications, can improve urinary continence
May not be better than bladder training in some patients
May help to achieve continence in children with myelodysplasia alone or in combination with oxybut

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine was useful for genuine stress continence. In a prospective study, women with genuine str received imipramine 25 milligrams 3 times daily for 3 months. A urodynamic assessment was done with . test to determine the amount of urine leakage. A cure was defined as a pad weight that resulted in 0 gra After 3 months, 35% of women were cured, 25% showed an improved pad weight result of 50% or better therapy. The women that were cured or improved had a higher urethral closure pressure than those that 0.001). The authors note that a high pre-treatment urethral closure pressure may serve as a predictor fo success (Lin et al, 1999).

2) IMIPRAMINE 75 milligrams orally daily for four weeks was reported effective in the treatment of fema INCONTINENCE in 21 of 30 women (71%). The drug was reported to extend the functional urethral leng independent of stress factors in women who are continent after therapy. These data support that a short result in urinary incontinence and lengthening of the urethra by IMIPRAMINE treatment or vesicopexy wi dysfunction (Gilja et al, 1984).

3) Bladder drill is more effective than drug therapy in the treatment of incontinence due to idiopathic dett women. Fifty women with urinary incontinence due to DETRUSOR INSTABILITY were randomly assigne patient bladder drill training or out-patient drug therapy (FLAVOXATE HYDROCHLORIDE 200 mg three IMIPRAMINE 25 milligrams three times/day) for 4 weeks (Jarvis, 1981). At the completion of the study 8 patients treated with bladder drill were continent and 76% were symptom free. Fifty-six percent (14/25) o with medication were continent and 48% were symptom-free. Side effects occurred in 56% of the patient therapy and 5 patients discontinued drug therapy on their own secondary to side effects.

4) Six of 10 elderly patients (x=80 year old, 63 to 88 years) with urinary incontinence associated with sp unstable detrusor contractions were successfully treated with IMIPRAMINE. The dose of IMIPRAMINE w

mg at bedtime and increased every third day by 25 mg, until the patient was continent, experienced side effects. The maximum dose reached 150 mg/day. At the completion of the study 60% of the patients were continent. No correlation between plasma concentrations of desmethylimipramine and clinical or urodynamic effects could be found (Castle et al, 1984).

d) Pediatric:

1) Children and adolescents with myelodysplasia and incontinence (i.e. wet between their clean intermittent catheterizations performed 3 to 5 times daily) benefited from imipramine therapy. Children (n=19, 4- to 12-years-old) on imipramine 10 milligrams (mg) daily increased to a maximum of 20 mg twice daily. Combination therapy was used in 10 patients. Eight of the children had also failed therapy with oxybutynin, flavoxate, or ephedrine. With imipramine, 15 children developed at least partial continence (dry 50% to 80% of the time) with 9 achieving complete continence (dry at least 80% of the time). The authors suggest low-dose imipramine alone or in combination with oxybutynin for children with myelodysplasia to help achieve continence (Hurley et al, 2000).

4.5.C Imipramine Pamoate

- Agoraphobia
- Anorexia nervosa
- Bulimia nervosa
- Cardiac dysrhythmia
- Depression
- Diabetic neuropathy
- Gardner-Diamond syndrome
- Globus hystericus
- Obsessive-compulsive disorder
- Pain
- Panic disorder
- Posttraumatic stress disorder
- Separation anxiety disorder of childhood
- Sexual disorder
- Sleep disorder
- Trichotillomania

4.5.C.1 Agoraphobia

a) Overview

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

b) Summary:

Effective in the treatment of agoraphobia (Deltito et al, 1991)
 Efficacy appears to be dose-related and usually requires doses of 150 milligrams or greater per day

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine and placebo were equally effective in the treatment of agoraphobia in a double-blind clinical trial. The drugs were started 2 weeks prior to the start of brief psychological treatment (Cohen et al, 1984a). The drugs were started 2 weeks prior to the start of brief psychological treatment (Cohen et al, 1984a). The drugs were started 2 weeks prior to the start of brief psychological treatment (Cohen et al, 1984a).

of the psychological therapy. At week 6 the mean dose of IMIPRAMINE was 124 milligrams and at week mg/day. During week 2 to week 12 each treatment group received 6 fortnightly sessions of therapist-aided relaxation. In addition each patient was given a leaflet describing the nature of agoraphobia and ways to cope with it. Patients were requested to complete systematic self-exposure homework and record these activities in a diary. Drug therapy was gradually withdrawn over weeks 26 to 28 of therapy. At the 2-year follow-up only 40 subjects were available. 14 had dropped out of the study (2 refused follow-up, 1 died, 1 moved out of the country, and 1 was untraceable). Of the patients who remained, 25 were improved with regards to their phobias. There was no significant difference between patients treated with imipramine or placebo therapy. Nor was there a superior effect of therapist-aided relaxation.

2) The plasma IMIPRAMINE levels, but not DESIPRAMINE, correlated with the improvement in agoraphobia (Mavissakalian et al, 1984), which may indicate that the anti-phobic effects of IMIPRAMINE therapy are in the post-synaptic serotonergic neurotransmitter system and not the noradrenergic system.

3) IMIPRAMINE therapy plus programmed in vivo exposure practice was superior to IMIPRAMINE therapy alone (Mavissakalian & Michelson, 1986; Mavissakalian et al, 1983).

4.5.C.2 Anorexia nervosa

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class III
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Has resulted in some improvement in patients with anorexia nervosa

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine treatment resulted in some improvement in 7 patients with anorexia nervosa treated with antidepressants (tricyclics, MAOIs, and triazolopyridines) including imipramine. Three of the patients received imipramine; the treatment trials ranged from 6 to 14 weeks. Four of the patients had some improvement in symptoms, 2 experienced some weight gain, and 3 of 3 who had bulimic symptoms reported improvement. The improvement in anorexic symptoms (3 to 6 weeks) was slower than the improvement observed in depression and anxiety following tricyclic therapy (Hudson et al, 1985). Significant weight gain generally began after 2 to 3 months with IMIPRAMINE tended to tolerate the drug poorly and appeared to have an extraordinary sensitivity to anticholinergic side effects when compared to patients treated with trazodone or MAOIs (Hudson et al, 1985). An extraordinary sensitivity to the drug's side effects may be associated with their low body weight.

4.5.C.3 Bulimia nervosa

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Approximately 75% of patients show at least a moderate response (reduction of binge eating by 50%) with antidepressant therapy. Monoamine oxidase inhibitors also appear effective in bulimia, and may be superior to tricyclic antidepressants (Hudson et al, 1983).

c) Adult:

1) Twenty bulimic subjects were followed for a period of up to 2 years to assess the long term efficacy of antidepressant therapy (Pope et al, 1985). At the end of the follow-up period, 95% had at least partial improvement and experienced a complete remission. Over the course of the study period 85% had either maintained or improved the quality of their initial response. The one patient that failed to respond discontinued her medication and returned to her original frequency of binge eating.

2) A retrospective study of 22 patients with bulimia treated with antidepressants (AMITRIPTYLINE, IMIPRAMINE, DESIPRAMINE, DOXEPIN, TRAZODONE, TRANYLCPROMINE, or PHENELZINE) showed a decrease in bingeing and/or an improvement in depression (Brotman et al, 1984). During a 3-month follow-up period 15 patients relapsed despite continuation of their antidepressant therapy, while others continued to benefit from drug therapy.

4.5.C.4 Cardiac dysrhythmia

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class III
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Some patients with ventricular tachycardia or premature ventricular contractions may benefit from imipramine.

c) Adult:

- 1) IMIPRAMINE was included in a double-blinded crossover pilot study to evaluate the efficacy of ventricular complex (VPC) suppression after acute myocardial infarction as a means to improve survival (Anon, 1982). The patient was assigned to ENCAINIDE, FLECAINIDE, IMIPRAMINE, MORICIZINE, or placebo. The dose of the drug was adjusted to achieve 70% or greater reduction of VPC and greater than 90% reduction in unsustained ventricular tachycardia. If the patient failed to achieve an adequate response or was unable to tolerate the drug, the drug was discontinued and they were crossed over to a different antiarrhythmic class (class 1C to class 1A or class 1B). ENCAINIDE (79%) and FLECAINIDE (83%) were superior to IMIPRAMINE (52%), MORICIZINE (66%), or placebo, as first line-drugs. In patients failing IMIPRAMINE or MORICIZINE therapy, ENCAINIDE was 68% and FLECAINIDE was 68% effective. It would appear that IMIPRAMINE is not the drug of choice for the prevention of VPC following myocardial infarction. In addition, changes in therapy secondary to the development or worsening of conduction system failure occurred in 26% of the treatment groups compared to 18% in the placebo group (Greene et al, 1982).
- 2) IMIPRAMINE in doses of 50 to 400 milligrams/day (mean = 210 +/- 103 mg/day) and NORTRIPTYLINE in doses of 50 to 150 mg/day (mean = 100 +/- 29 mg/day) were effective in the reduction of PVCs (Giardina et al, 1985). Eighty percent of the patients had a greater than 80% suppression of their PVCs. Neither drug significantly changed ejection fraction or peak systolic pressure end-systolic volume ratio. Both drugs produced a reduction in blood pressure.
- 3) Twenty-two patients with 30 or more ventricular premature complexes (PVCs) per hour were treated with IMIPRAMINE 1 milligram/kilogram/day (in two divided doses), increasing by 1 mg/kg/day every other day until suppressed by at least 80% (or until adverse effects were observed or a daily dose of 5 mg/kg/day was reached). Eighteen patients (82%) exhibited antiarrhythmic effects from IMIPRAMINE therapy. All patients treated with IMIPRAMINE had a psychological depression. The elimination half-life was approximately 8 hours, however, duration of action was much longer and antiarrhythmic effects were observed over at least a 12 hour period, which suggests that IMIPRAMINE may contribute to the duration of antiarrhythmic efficacy (Giardina & Bigger, 1982).
- 4) In patients with premature ventricular contractions, IMIPRAMINE was noted to suppress arrhythmias in 90% in 10 of 11 patients. IMIPRAMINE shortens action potential duration and decreases conduction velocity and therefore is classified as a class 1 antiarrhythmic drug. Since the half-life of IMIPRAMINE is 18 hours it may be dosed on a twice daily regimen. Antiarrhythmic doses appear to be similar to antidepressant doses (3.5 mg/kg/day). The antiarrhythmic activity of IMIPRAMINE is partially attributed to its metabolites, desmethylimipramine and 2-hydroxyimipramine. Due to complications, IMIPRAMINE should not be used in patients with pre-excitation defects (Thase & Perel, 1982).

4.5.C.5 Depression

FDA Labeled Indication

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, yes; Pediatric, no
 Efficacy: Adult, Effective; Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive
 Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb; Pediatric, Class IIb
 Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B; Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Indicated for the relief of symptoms of depression (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005)
 Endogenous depression may be more likely to respond to imipramine therapy than other depressive disorders (Prod Info TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, 2005)

c) Adult:

- 1) Intramuscular S-adenosyl-L-methionine 1,4-butanedisulphonate (SAME) was found to be as efficacious as imipramine (IMI) for the treatment of depression. In a randomized, double-blind, comparative trial, patients with a major depressive episode according to DSM-IV criteria received SAME 400 milligrams (mg) by intramuscular injection once daily (n=146) or oral IMI 150 mg per day in 3 divided doses. Blinding was maintained by a double-blind crossover design. The IMI dose was titrated over the first week to reach the full dose by day 8. Both treatments were given for 4 weeks. There were no preestablished criteria (final score on the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HAMD), difference between baseline and final HAMD scores, percentage of responders defined as those with a Clinical Global Impression (CGI) score of less than 3, and percentage of responders defined as those with a drop of at least 50% from baseline in HAMD scores) that were used to compare the two treatments. By the CGI criterion, 68% of patients in the SAME group and 66% in the IMI group were responders; by the HAMD criterion, 59% of the SAME group and 50% of the IMI group were responders. Drug reactions occurred in significantly fewer subjects of the SAME group than of the IMI group: 9.5% vs 33%. No relevant differences were observed in laboratory measures, vital signs, or ECG parameters (Pantheri et al, 1998).
- 2) Various depressive illnesses have responded to treatment with IMIPRAMINE in daily doses of 75 to 200 mg/day (Prod Info Tofranil(R), 1995b; Kocsis et al, 1989; Kocsis et al, 1988; Battistini et al, 1980a; Eilenberg, 1979a); (Lindberg et al, 1979)(Amin et al, 1978). Patients suffering from endogenous depression (Fabre et al, 1979), endogenous depression (Lindberg et al, 1979), depression of myotonic dystrophy (Brumback & Carlson, 1979), depression (Finnerty et al, 1978a) alcoholic patients with primary depression (McGrath et al, 1996), and patients with depressive disorders (Nunes et al, 1998) may benefit from IMIPRAMINE therapy. However, IMIPRAMINE and a neuroleptic are effective in the treatment of delusional depression (Kaskey et al, 1984).
- 3) High dose tricyclic antidepressant therapy (IMIPRAMINE 150 to 200 milligrams/d, DESMETHYLIMIPRAMINE 500 mg/d) was effective in only a small portion of elderly patients with delusional depression. The dropout rate due to side effects was 58% and the overall success rate was only 25% (Brown et al, 1984).

d) Pediatric:

- 1) IMIPRAMINE is efficacious in the treatment of depression in children (Rancurello, 1985a; Petti & Con

general overview of the treatment of childhood behavioral and emotional disorders has been published (1985a).

2) Twenty-one children (ages 5.8 to 10.25 years) with various types of depression were treated with IMIPRAMINE 67% of the children showing some improvement (Connors & Petti, 1983).

3) Imipramine was efficacious in the treatment of 20 prepubertal children hospitalized for major depression (III) with imipramine (Preskorn et al, 1982). IMIPRAMINE therapy consisted of 75 milligrams/day, administered for the first 3 weeks and increased to a maximum of 5 milligrams/kg/day if no response. Serum IMIPRAMINE/DESIPRAMINE levels were drawn during each phase of the study. During phase I, none of the 15 children with a tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) plasma concentration outside the 125 to 225 ng/mL range showed a remission. Eighty percent of those children with serum levels between 125 to 225 ng/mL achieved a remission. During phase II, 12 of the 16 children achieved steady-state total TCA plasma concentration of 125 to 225 ng/mL and 11 (92%) of them had experienced a remission by the end of the treatment period. Based on these results it can be concluded that IMIPRAMINE is effective in the treatment of depression in prepubertal children and its response is concentration-dependent.

4.5.C.6 Diabetic neuropathy

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; 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

b) Summary:

Effective for diabetic neuropathy in selected patients

c) Adult:

1) In most patients, an imipramine plasma drug concentration of 400 to 500 nmol/L was sufficient to achieve remission in the treatment of diabetic neuropathy (Sindrup et al, 1990a). All patients were diabetic and had one or more symptoms (pain, paresthesia, dysesthesia, and hypesthesia) and signs (reduction of sensibility, strength, or tendon reflexes) of peripheral neuropathy. One patient demonstrated no significant improvement even with IMIPRAMINE plasma levels below 400 nmol/L. In the other eleven patients doses of 125 to 350 milligrams/day were required to achieve remission. One patient required a blood level of 730 nmol/L to achieve maximal relief.

2) A double-blind, cross-over comparison of IMIPRAMINE with placebo was conducted in nine patients with peripheral diabetic neuropathy (Sindrup et al, 1989). The dose of IMIPRAMINE was adjusted to achieve an IMIPRAMINE plus DESIPRAMINE level of 300 to 750 nmol (125 to 225 milligrams/day) during the first week of treatment period was three weeks and no washout phase was used between treatment periods. Efficacy was assessed at the end of each treatment period based on symptoms and measurement of peripheral and autonomic nerve function. IMIPRAMINE provided significant beneficial symptomatic improvement in all patients, but not beneficial effects on peripheral or autonomic nerve function.

3) IMIPRAMINE in doses of 50 milligrams (mg) daily for one week, then 100 mg daily for 4 weeks, was effective in producing improvement in 7 of 12 patients with severe diabetic neuropathy of the lower extremities in a crossover study (Kvinesdal et al, 1984). IMIPRAMINE had beneficial effects on pain, paresthesia, dysesthesia, and nocturnal aggravation.

4.5.C.7 Gardner-Diamond syndrome

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Effective only for short-term therapy of autoerythrocyte sensitization

c) Adult:

1) A 20-year-old female with autoerythrocyte sensitization and depression was treated with IMIPRAMINE (1983). One week later the bleeding resolved and after 2 weeks the depression began to resolve. In 3 to 4 weeks symptoms had resolved. Six weeks later, while still receiving therapeutic doses of IMIPRAMINE, the depression recurred and 10 days later bleeding restarted. Compared to previous episodes the severity of depression was less severe. The bleeding resolved in 10 days and the depressive symptoms were gone within 6 weeks. Following a subsequent relapse in therapy the IMIPRAMINE was discontinued and AMITRIPTYLINE therapy (300 mg daily) was initiated. Since the start of AMITRIPTYLINE therapy the patient has been free of depression and bleeding for 10 years.

4.5.C.8 Globus hystericus

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

- b) Summary:
Efficacy demonstrated in case reports only
- c) Adult:
1) Globus hystericus syndrome is a condition in which the individual develops a fear that he/she is inter and unable to breathe. If the condition is left untreated the patient may become profoundly disabled or m threatening weight loss. Case reports of three patients have shown that psychoactive drugs may be effe this condition. IMIPRAMINE therapy was effective in the treatment of one case, PHENELZINE in another TRANYLCYPROMINE in the other case (Brown et al, 1986). Two additional cases of successful imipram globus hystericus syndrome were reported (Kaplan, 1987; Rosenthal, 1987).

4.5.C.9 Obsessive-compulsive disorder

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class III
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B
See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS
- b) Summary:
Questionable efficacy in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder
- c) Adult:
1) Imipramine was ineffective in treating obsessive- compulsive disorder (OCD) in a double-blind, placel study that evaluated the efficacy of IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of depression and obsessive-compulsi patients (Foa et al, 1987). Nineteen (10 women and 9 men) were treated with IMIPRAMINE and 18 (9 w were treated with a placebo. Each placebo patient received 10 tablets per day. The IMIPRAMINE group increased by 25 mg every other day until clinical response, side effects, or a maximum daily dose of 250 daily IMIPRAMINE dose was 233 mg (150 to 250 mg). At the end of 6 weeks the IMIPRAMINE was effe symptoms associated with depression, but had little to no effect on their obsessive-compulsive symptom
2) Four patients with obsessive-compulsive bowel obsessions were treated with IMIPRAMINE (3) or DO patients were free of their bowel obsession within 30 days (10, 14, 14, 30) of starting drug therapy (Jenik

4.5.C.10 Pain

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B
See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS
- b) Summary:
Pain has occasionally resolved with imipramine therapy
- c) Adult:
1) Patients with chest pain, but normal coronary angiograms, may respond to imipramine therapy (Cann The dose of medications used in the study were imipramine 50 milligrams at night and placebo in the mc 0.1 milligrams twice daily, and placebo twice daily. The incidence of chest pain was decreased by 52 +/- with 1 +/- 86% with placebo and 39 +/- 51% with clonidine therapy (data is presented as means +/- SD). associated with imipramine use was statistically significant (p=0.03). A follow-up evaluation of these pati average of 21 months, indicated that none of the patients had been seen in an emergency room or had t because of chest pain. Seventeen patients have had the imipramine therapy discontinued and 16 asked imipramine therapy because of recurrent chest pain symptoms (Cannon, 1994b). The mechanism of this unknown, but may be a result of a visceral analgesic effect and not dependent on cardiac, esophageal, c characteristics or gender. Another possible mechanism for this effect may be an increased pain threshol reduction in psychological depression (Hare, 1994).
2) A survey of Italian oncology centers revealed that 43% of their patients were given antidepressants. 1 frequently utilized drugs were AMITRIPTYLINE, CLOMIPRAMINE, IMIPRAMINE, and TRAZODONE. Mc that the antidepressants were useful in controlling pain and were most efficacious in depressed patients 1987).
3) A case report of a 26-year-old graduate student being treated with IMIPRAMINE for suicidal thoughts esteem noted an improvement in her chronic pelvic pain (induced by endometriosis four years earlier) w/ IMIPRAMINE therapy (Beresin, 1986).

4.5.C.11 Panic disorder

- a) Overview
FDA Approval: Adult, no; 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
- b) Summary:
Similar in efficacy to alprazolam

c) Adult:

1) GENERAL INFORMATION

a) The clinical response to IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of panic disorder is independent of the pre depression or dysphoria (Deltito et al, 1991). Patients with high baseline depression scores have the poorest outcomes (Rosenberg et al, 1991a; Rosenberg et al, 1991c; Zitrin, 1983; Nurnberg & Cocc use of IMIPRAMINE in the treatment of panic disorder may not be as safe as other anxiolytics in patients with cardiovascular disease (Roth et al, 1992a).

2) Combination imipramine and cognitive-behavioral therapy (CBT) was of limited value initially but proved during maintenance therapy in patients with panic disorder. Patients with panic disorder randomly received (n=77), imipramine alone (n=83), placebo alone (n=24), CBT with imipramine (n=65), or CBT alone (n=6) during the acute treatment phase. Thereafter, responders entered a 6-month maintenance phase. Patient response following the 12-week acute treatment phase, the 6-month maintenance phase, and 6-months after their discontinuation; assessment tools included the Panic Disorder Severity Scale (PDSS) and the Clinical Global Scale (CGI). Initial imipramine doses were 10 milligrams (mg)/day slowly increased over 5 weeks to 200 mg and then increased to 300 mg if symptoms continued. Following acute treatment, responses for the PDSS were 41% for placebo alone, 45.8% for imipramine alone, 21.7% for placebo alone, 60.3% for CBT with imipramine, and 57.1% for CBT alone. Both CBT alone and imipramine alone were significantly better than placebo (p=0.03 and p=0.002, respectively); however, combination therapy provided no greater response rate over each treatment alone (p not significant during the acute phase, none of the therapies were significantly better than the others). Following maintenance treatment, responses on the PDSS were 39.5% for CBT alone, 37.8% for imipramine alone, 13% for placebo alone, 62% for imipramine with imipramine, and 46.8% for CBT plus placebo. Responses on both the PDSS and the CGI were significantly better for imipramine versus placebo (p=0.02 for both) and CBT versus placebo (p=0.02, p=0.01, respectively). Thus, combination therapy was significantly better than either CBT alone (p=0.04) and better than imipramine alone (p=0.03) on the CGI, combination therapy was only significantly better than imipramine alone (p=0.03) and not better than CBT alone (p not significant). Following treatment discontinuation after the 6-month maintenance phase, the only significant difference was the PDSS scores in the CBT group compared to the placebo group (p=0.05) (Barlow et al, 2000).

3) Maintenance treatment with imipramine had a significant protective effect against relapse in patients with panic disorder and agoraphobia. Patients who had shown an initial good and stable response to imipramine therapy over 6 months randomly received same-dose imipramine continuation (n=29) or placebo discontinuation (n=27). Patients who discontinued their initial imipramine at a target dose of 2.25 milligrams/kilogram or discontinued their imipramine by decreasing the dose by 25% each week (substituted with placebo). During this study, no patient received behavioral or cognitive therapy, and no crisis-type intervention was needed. During the study, if relapse was confirmed the patient exited the study and was defined as a worsening of their condition (measured as a 33% decline in the End- State Function scale score) accompanied by insistent requests for therapeutic action. After 12 months, the study population consisted of 10 patients in the imipramine group and 10 patients in the placebo group. This resulted in a 92.5% lower hazard rate of relapse for imipramine as compared to placebo (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1999).

4) In a double-blind study, an 8-month therapy period for panic disorder with either alprazolam or imipramine (Rickels & Schweizer, 1998). Patients received alprazolam (n=37), imipramine (n=34), or placebo (n=35) during the short-term treatment, a 6-month maintenance period, and then a 15-month follow-up period. For alprazolam began at 1 milligram (mg) daily and were titrated up to 10 mg. Those receiving imipramine began at 250 mg. Alprazolam patients had notable reductions in panic attacks during the first 2 weeks, while imipramine patients showed improvement over placebo patients after 3 to 4 weeks. Drop-out rates were 11% in the alprazolam group, 41% in the imipramine group, and 57% in the placebo group (p less than 0.01 for alprazolam versus the other groups). In the remaining patients it was noted that tolerance developed to alprazolam during the maintenance phase. After the 6-month maintenance phase, doses were titrated off over 3 weeks. At 6 months, 62% of the alprazolam and 26% of the imipramine groups were panic-free (p less than 0.01). During the follow-up period, patients could be treated with non-study medications. Regardless of medication, patients who completed treatment were more likely to be panic-free than those who had dropped out, even if they received non-study medication (85% versus 55%, p less than 0.01). Remission rates were higher in younger patients, those with a history of intense panic attacks, those with a lower initial phobia score, and those with an initial lower score of self-confidence, and passivity (Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Dependency Scale).

5) A comparison of cognitive therapy, applied relaxation, and imipramine found that at 3 months cognitive therapy was superior to both applied relaxation and imipramine therapy (Clark et al, 1994). At 6 months the cognitive therapy and imipramine treatment produced similar results and were better than applied relaxation. However, between 3 and 6 months of therapy, several of the imipramine patients relapsed while the patients treated with cognitive therapy did not. Cognitive therapy did better than with imipramine and relaxation therapy.

4.5.C.12 Posttraumatic stress disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Resulted in improvement in positive symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder

c) Adult:

1) Imipramine treatment resulted in improvement in positive symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder

patients (Burstein, 1984). Therapy was initiated at a low dose and increased over the following 7 days to tolerable dose (mean 260 milligrams/day; range 50 to 350 mg/d). After 2 to 3 weeks of therapy, there was a decrease in the severity of forced recollection, sleep and dream disturbances, and a cessation or reduction of most avoidance items, eg, staying away from reminders of the event, trying not to talk about the event, or removing it from their memory, did not decrease significantly in severity. Based on these results it would appear that IMIPRAMINE, in combination with psychotherapy, may be an effective treatment for patients.

2) Treatment of 3 patients with acute post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) with either DOXEPIN or IMIPRAMINE resulted in an improvement in PTSD symptoms (Blake, 1986). Whether or not tricyclic antidepressant therapy is equivalent, or inferior to psychotherapy or other means of treatment remains to be determined.

4.5.C.13 Separation anxiety disorder of childhood

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no

Efficacy: Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive

Recommendation: Pediatric, Class III

Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Routine use of tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended for separation anxiety in children

Behavioral therapy may be just as effective as imipramine

c) Pediatric:

1) The combination of imipramine and nonpharmacologic therapies (eg, parent management training, behavior therapy, and family therapy) may improve subjective comfort, reduce anxiety and somatic symptoms in 70% of children experiencing separation-anxiety disorder (Rancurello, 1985a). This disorder is associated with a high relapse rate, therefore the routine use of tricyclic antidepressants is not recommended (Rancurello, 1985a).

2) Both IMIPRAMINE and placebo therapy were equally effective for separation anxiety. A small, double placebo-controlled study was conducted with 21 children with separation anxiety disorder (Klein et al, 1985). Children were first given a month of vigorous behavioral treatment, then randomly assigned to IMIPRAMINE or placebo therapy for six weeks. Both treatments were approximately 50% effective.

4.5.C.14 Sexual disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no

Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive

Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb

Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Effective in case reports only

c) Adult:

1) IMIPRAMINE may be useful, alone or in combination with LITHIUM, in the treatment of men with PARAPHILIC SEXUAL ADDICTIONS (Kafka, 1991). Two patients with sexual disorders improved with IMIPRAMINE therapy. Whether IMIPRAMINE and other antidepressants are useful in the treatment of paraphilias or nonparaphilic sexual addictions or just specific types remains to be determined.

4.5.C.15 Sleep disorder

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no

Efficacy: Adult, Evidence is inconclusive

Recommendation: Adult, Class IIb

Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Used successfully in the treatment of NIGHT TERRORS, SOMNAMBULISM, NARCOLEPSY, and CATAPLEXY

c) Adult:

1) IMIPRAMINE therapy (50 to 100 milligrams at bedtime) resulted in a dramatic reduction in frequency of night terrors in 2 patients unresponsive to DIAZEPAM therapy (Cooper, 1987).

2) IMIPRAMINE therapy resulted in a significant reduction (242 +/- 156 to 142.8 +/- 120.1) in the total number of episodes in 41.9% of the patients tested (Rubin et al, 1986). Based on these results it appears that IMIPRAMINE may be an alternative form of therapy for some nonoverweight patients with negative ear, nose and throat symptoms and for some patients who had not responded to weight reduction or ENT surgery.

3) A 62-year-old female had suppression of night terrors with IMIPRAMINE 50 milligrams at bedtime; 75 milligrams completely suppressed night terrors but caused daytime drowsiness (Beitman & Carlin, 1979).

4.5.C.16 Trichotillomania

a) Overview

FDA Approval: Adult, no; Pediatric, no

Efficacy: Pediatric, Evidence is inconclusive

Recommendation: Pediatric, Class IIb

Strength of Evidence: Pediatric, Category C

See Drug Consult reference: RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE RATINGS

b) Summary:

Used successfully in a case of trichotillomania and depression in a pediatric patient (Weller et al, 1989).

4.6 Comparative Efficacy / Evaluation With Other Therapies

Adinazolam

Alprazolam

Amineptine

Amisulpride

Amitriptyline

Amoxapine

Binedaline

Brofaromine

Bromocriptine

Bupropion

Buspirone

Butylscopolamine

Chlordiazepoxide

Chlorprothixene

Citalopram

Clomipramine

Clonazepam

Delorazepam

Desipramine

Desmopressin

Diazepam

Dibenzepin

Diclofenac

Dothiepin

Doxepin

Electroconvulsive therapy

Encainide

Flecainide

Fluoxetine

Fluvoxamine

Gepirone

Haloperidol

Lithium

Lofepramine

Maprotiline

Melitracen

Methscopolamine

Mianserin

Milnacipran

Moclobemide

Moricizine

Nefazodone

Nomifensine

Nortriptyline

Paroxetine

Phenelzine

Reboxetine

Ritanserin

Rolipram

Sertraline

Sotalol

Tranlycypromine

Trazodone

Trimipramine

Tryptophan

Venlafaxine

Viloxazine

Zimeldine

4.6.A Adinazolam

4.6.A.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: In several small controlled studies, adinazolam has been as effective as imipramine in depression, including patients with melancholic depression.

b) Several controlled studies have reported the similar efficacy of adinazolam and imipramine in the treatment of major depressive disorder in outpatients (Amsterdam et al, 1986; Feighner, 1986). Equivalent efficacy has also been reported in patients with more severe melancholic depression (Amsterdam et al, 1986). However, all studies have employed small numbers of patients, lending themselves to a type II error. Larger studies of adequate duration, incorporating placebo, are needed to adequately compare these two agents. In addition, compliance is always a problem in outpatient studies involving depressed patients. Either a well-controlled inpatient study or the use of serum drug levels in future studies are required.

c) Adinazolam and imipramine had similar efficacy in the treatment of major depressive disorder, with or without symptoms, in a double-blind study involving 43 outpatients (Amsterdam et al, 1986). Following a 1-week washout period, patients were randomized to receive either adinazolam 10 milligrams (mg) three times daily initially, increasing to 30 mg by day 14 of treatment if needed, or imipramine 25 mg three times daily initially, increasing up to 225 mg by day 14 of therapy, if required. Hamilton Depression Rating (HDR) scores and clinical global impression scale scores were similar for both agents; there was a trend toward lower HDR scores in the imipramine group at week 12. Improvement in the adinazolam group by week 1. Further analysis revealed the comparable efficacy of the 2 agents in the more severe, melancholic, subtype of depression. Anticholinergic adverse effects of dry mouth, constipation, blurred vision occurred more frequently in the imipramine group, as did lightheadedness, agitation and nervousness. Sedation or drowsiness was more prevalent in adinazolam patients. Mood swings into hypomania and worse depression were more frequent in the adinazolam group, with total episodes during study being 4 versus 1 and 3 versus 1. Other adverse effects occurred to a similar degree in each group.

4.6.B Alprazolam

Anxiety

Depression

Panic disorder

4.6.B.1 Anxiety

a) A six-week, double-blind, parallel study was conducted in 60 patients with generalized anxiety disorder to compare the efficacy of alprazolam and imipramine (Hoehn-Saric et al, 1988). After a three-week washout period, patients were randomly assigned to alprazolam 0.5 milligram or imipramine 25 milligrams three times daily for six weeks. At the end of the first week the dose of the medication could be increased by one capsule daily up to a maximum of 12 capsules daily. At the end of the study the average dose was for the alprazolam-treated group was 2.2 mg/day (0.5 to 6 mg/day) and for the imipramine group 91 mg/day (25 to 200 mg/day). During the first two weeks, alprazolam was superior to imipramine in both efficacy based on psychic and somatic parameters, but imipramine was superior in attenuating affective symptoms (eg, negative anticipatory thinking and dysphoria) as alprazolam was superior in attenuating somatic symptoms.

b) Alprazolam and imipramine might be useful in the treatment of school refusal (school phobia); however, further studies need to be conducted to document their usefulness (Bernstein et al, 1991).

4.6.B.2 Depression

a) Alprazolam was as effective as imipramine in the treatment of primary depression (Fabre & McLendon, 1988). Effective doses of alprazolam in the study were 2.6 milligrams daily in divided doses, as compared with 128.4 mg daily for imipramine. The onset of action with alprazolam was more rapid than that observed with imipramine; antidepressant effects were more evident with alprazolam during the first week of therapy. A similar incidence of side effects occurred with both medications, with the main side effects being drowsiness, insomnia, nervousness, constipation and lightheadedness. Alprazolam was reported to have less anticholinergic side effects (confusion, tachycardia, palpitations, dry mouth).

retention). Imipramine was reported to cause fewer headaches than alprazolam. However, a detailed description in these patients was not provided in this study. In addition, specific data regarding the onset of effects of each also not provided satisfactorily. More importantly, the patient population ("primary" depression) is unclear in it difficult to evaluate which types of depression were being treated.

b) Alprazolam was compared with imipramine in a 6-week, double-blind study on 723 outpatients (Feighner, were selected with moderate to severe symptoms of a unipolar major depressive disorder of at least one month. Patients were given imipramine 25 milligrams two or three times daily or alprazolam 0.5 milligram two to three initially, followed by increases in doses at one-week intervals to a maximum of 4.5 mg alprazolam and 225 mg imipramine. Both drugs were more effective than placebo in alleviating depression, with alprazolam being at least as effective as imipramine. Alprazolam was reported more effective in relieving somatic symptoms and the data suggested a significant effect in some evaluated parameters, but the significance of this is questionable. Toxicity, primarily anticholinergic, was reported in patients receiving imipramine; drowsiness was the main side effect reported with alprazolam. The data suggests benefits of alprazolam in the treatment of unipolar depression as defined by the Feighner Diagnostic criteria for primary depression (similar to the DSM-III Criteria for major depression). However, this study was performed on an inpatient basis, and even the best blinding techniques are useless if patients are taking other medications. The author suggests that other psychotropic medications were not to be used except for "emergencies". Evaluation of drug response is difficult at best, especially on an outpatient basis with several investigators doing the evaluation. Alprazolam had no antidepressant effects.

c) Alprazolam, imipramine, and a placebo were compared in a 6-week, double-blind study of 175 patients with a major depressive disorder (DSM-III) (Rickels et al, 1982a). Patients were randomly assigned to alprazolam (N=58), imipramine (N=57), or placebo (N=57) therapy. Dosage increases were allowed during the course of treatment and the mean doses for alprazolam and imipramine during the last 2 weeks of treatment were 3 milligrams/day and 150 milligrams/day, respectively. The data indicate that alprazolam was more effective than imipramine and placebo therapy. However it should be noted that the placebo response rate was observed at 2 weeks (53% compared to 75% for alprazolam and 64% for imipramine). The placebo response rate may be attributed to the fact that a high percentage of the patients were of the anxious-depressive subtype. (Note: The data supplied in the figure comparing clinical improvement over time on the drug therapy is for 171 different patients, which is interesting since only 153 patients completed at least 4 weeks of treatment. No information is supplied regarding the study dropouts other than the fact that the dropout rates were not significantly different between the 3 treatment groups.) Imipramine therapy was associated with a higher incidence of drowsiness than alprazolam or placebo therapy.

d) The efficacy of alprazolam and imipramine were evaluated in the inpatient treatment of depressive illness (Rickels et al, 1984). Patients were randomly assigned to either alprazolam or imipramine therapy. Dosage was individualized to achieve a clinical response. Patients receiving alprazolam therapy improved over the first 10 days of therapy and then reached a plateau, whereas the patients treated with imipramine continued to improve in vegetative and cognitive symptomatology. Examination of the HAM-D scale indicated that the initial improvements seen with alprazolam is predominantly vegetative features of the illness.

e) Both drugs administered once daily were efficacious in the treatment of outpatients with major depressive disorder (Mendels & Schless, 1986). Fifty percent of the alprazolam treatment group had a greater than 50% improvement in HAM-D scores, compared to the 38% success rate observed in the imipramine treatment group and 18% in the placebo groups.

f) Patients who can be classified as DSM-III - major depressive episode but fail to satisfy more restrictive criteria for major depression appear to respond better to alprazolam therapy than imipramine therapy. Patients who satisfy criteria for primary depression also appear to tolerate and respond better to alprazolam therapy initially. However, it appeared to be more efficacious during long term therapy. In addition, patients with biologic depression (eg, rapid cycling, positive DST, and shortened REM latency) tended to respond better to imipramine therapy (Overall et al, 1984).

g) An 8-week, double-blind, controlled study compared the efficacy of alprazolam (58 patients), diazepam (58 patients), imipramine (63 patients), and placebo (61 patients) in 241 outpatients with a DSM-III diagnosis of major depressive disorder. After a washout period with all patients receiving placebo. Week 2 through 7, the patients received their assigned medication and during week 8 the dose of the medication was reduced by half for 3 days and discontinued for the remainder of the study the mean daily doses were 143 milligrams imipramine, 3.1 milligrams alprazolam, 24 milligrams diazepam, and 6.8 capsules of placebo. Attrition rates were significant, 23% by week 4 of treatment and 39% by week 6. By the end of the study, 41% of the imipramine group had withdrawn, 23% of the alprazolam group, 44% of the diazepam group, and 18% of the placebo group. The main reason given for attrition was side effects with the active compounds and inefficacy of the placebo. Alprazolam and imipramine were both significantly better than placebo in treating depression, but diazepam was not effective. The clinical effects of imipramine and alprazolam were equivalent, and overall the frequency of side effects was similar. Imipramine produced less drowsiness and more anticholinergic effects than both alprazolam and diazepam (Rickels et al, 1987a).

4.6.B.3 Panic disorder

a) Summary: Alprazolam and imipramine appear to be equally efficacious in the treatment of panic disorder in outpatients. The onset of action is faster with alprazolam, but by the end of four weeks their effectiveness is similar (Rickels et al, 1998)(Taylor et al, 1990; Rosenberg et al, 1991; Rosenberg et al, 1991a; Anon, 1992; Roth et al, 1992; Schwab et al, 1994). The decision to use imipramine over alprazolam should be based on patient-related characteristics (eg, concurrent depression, anxiety disorders, cardiovascular disease), potential drug interactions, and side effect profile.

b) In a double-blind study, an 8-month therapy period for panic disorder with either alprazolam or imipramine (Rickels & Schweizer, 1998). Patients received alprazolam (n=37), imipramine (n=34), or placebo (n=35) during a 6-month period of short-term treatment, a 6-month maintenance period, and then a 15-month follow-up period. Patients receiving alprazolam began at 1 milligram (mg) daily and were titrated up to 10 mg. Those receiving imipramine began

were increased to 250 mg. Alprazolam patients had notable reductions in panic attacks during the first 2 weeks. Imipramine patients showed improvement over placebo patients after 3 to 4 weeks. Drop-out rates during this study were 41% in the alprazolam group, 41% in the imipramine group, and 57% in the placebo group (p less than 0.001 for alprazolam and other groups). In the remaining patients it was noted that tolerance developed to adverse effects during the study. After the 6-month maintenance phase, doses were titrated off over 3 weeks. At this point, 62% of the alprazolam patients, 62% of the imipramine groups were panic-free (p less than 0.01). During the follow-up period, patients could be treated with other medications. Regardless of medication, patients who completed 8 months of treatment were more likely to be those who had dropped out, even if they received non-study medications (85% versus 55%, p less than 0.01), were higher in younger patients, those with a history of more frequent or intense panic attacks, those with a higher K score, and those with an initial lower score of inadequacy, low self-confidence, and passivity (Minnesota Multiphasic Inventory Dependency Scale).

c) Seventy-nine patients were enrolled in a placebo controlled, double-blind trial comparing the efficacy and effects of imipramine, alprazolam, and placebo in patients with panic disorders (Taylor et al, 1990). Doses ranged from alprazolam 1 to 8 milligrams/day and imipramine 30 to 270 milligrams/day. In terms of global improvement, there was no difference between alprazolam and imipramine treated patients. Alprazolam had a rapid onset of effect, but after four weeks of therapy no significant differences in efficacy were apparent between alprazolam and imipramine treated patients. Imipramine did have a number of significant effects on the cardiovascular system. The heart rate was significantly increased at resting and standing, and the systolic and diastolic blood pressure was significantly increased. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of homovanillic acid, 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid, 3-methoxy-4-hydroxyphenylethylamine, somatostatin and beta-endorphin were measured in 12 patients with panic disorders who had been treated with imipramine for seven months. Seven patients treated with alprazolam (mean dose 4.7 mg, range 2 to 6 mg) benefited. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of the monoamine metabolites and neuropeptides remained unchanged during therapy in both treatment groups. Levels were similar to levels measured in a control group, suggesting the antipanic activities of alprazolam and imipramine involve the monoamine or neuropeptide systems as was previously believed (Lepola et al, 1989).

e) A double-blind, placebo-controlled trial comparing the effects of imipramine and alprazolam in patients with panic disorder revealed both agents were significantly more effective than placebo, however the patients treated with alprazolam had more fear than the patients in the imipramine and placebo groups after eight weeks of therapy (Taylor et al, 1990).

f) The Cross-National Collaborative Panic Study compared alprazolam, imipramine, and placebo in the treatment of panic disorder (Anon, 1992). The study used in this evaluation was a double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter study of 1168 patients with a diagnosis of panic disorder based on DSM-III criteria. Prior to the start of drug treatment patients were discontinued during a one- to two-week washout period. Patients were then randomly assigned to alprazolam 1 milligram, imipramine 25 milligrams, or placebo (1 tablet). The initial starting dose was increased to alprazolam 150 mg imipramine, and 6 placebo tablets by day 19. Subsequently the dosage could be adjusted according to response. Formal psychotherapy and behavioral treatment sessions were to be avoided during the eight week study. Efficacy was assessed by using global improvement scores, a panic attack scale, phobia scale, frequency of anxiety, 14-item Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety, 21-item Hamilton Rating scale for Depression, and Hopkins Symptom Checklist self-rating scale. The treatment-cohort (anyone completing three weeks of therapy) consisted of 1010 patients who completed the entire eight-week study. Reasons for dropping-out were side effects (alprazolam 3.4%, imipramine 3.1%), lack of efficacy (alprazolam 3.1%, imipramine 2.6%, and placebo 12.8%), treatment refusal (11.8%), and other reasons (alprazolam 7%, imipramine 7.7%, and placebo 11.8%); percentage are expressed as the number of patients divided by number of patients enrolled in that treatment group. Onset of therapeutic benefits was noted by week 4 with alprazolam and week 4 with imipramine. By week 8 there was no difference between the alprazolam and imipramine groups and both groups were statistically superior to placebo.

g) Alprazolam was more effective than imipramine and placebo on anticipatory anxiety and phobic symptoms in a Scandinavian multicenter study in 41 patients with panic disorder (Andersch et al, 1991). Alprazolam had a faster onset of action than imipramine on all symptoms. Patients receiving alprazolam had more drowsiness and those receiving imipramine had more anticholinergic effects.

h) In a study of 123 Scandinavian patients with panic disorder, alprazolam had an early effect on variables related to panic attacks, such as severity of spontaneous attacks and avoidance, whereas imipramine showed a more delayed effect (Møller et al, 1991).

i) Patients with mild-to-moderate depression and panic disorder will respond equally to either alprazolam (average dose = 159 milligrams/day) or imipramine (average dose = 159 milligrams/day) therapy. Both drugs are more effective than placebo in the treatment of patients with mild-to-moderate depression and panic disorder (Keller et al, 1993).

4.6.C Amineptine

4.6.C.1 Depression

a) A controlled, double-blind study compared the efficacy and safety of amineptine (100 to 200 milligrams (mg) daily) and imipramine (50 to 100 mg/day) for two months in 33 patients who fulfilled the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM-III) criteria for major depressive disorders. Amineptine produced steady improvement of the symptoms during treatment, according to the Hamilton ($p = 0.001$) and Montgomery and Asberg ($p = 0.002$) Depression Clinical Global Impression Scale ($p = 0.002$). Imipramine produced a significant improvement in the overall score (p less than 0.001). No statistical differences were found between the two drugs; depressive symptoms improved with treatment for both amineptine and imipramine. The incidence of anticholinergic adverse effects with amineptine was lower than with imipramine (Mendis et al, 1989).

4.6.D Amisulpride

4.6.D.1 Dysthymia

- a) A double-blind, parallel group study compared the efficacy of amisulpride 50 milligrams (mg) daily versus mg daily and placebo in the treatment of dysthymia. No significant difference was found between the two drugs, whereas amisulpride showed a tendency to generate fewer adverse effects (Lecrubier et al, 1992).
- b) A double-blind study, six months in duration, compared the therapeutic effects of amisulpride (50 milligram imipramine (200 mg daily) and placebo (Boyer & Lecrubier, 1996). The active drugs differed significantly from according to the Clinical Global Impression scale (CGI), Montgomery and Asberg Depressive Rating Scale (M Scale for the Assessment of Negative Symptoms (SANS) global score. Difference in efficacy between the active drugs was minimal.

4.6.E Amitriptyline**4.6.E.1 Depression**

- a) Of 11 studies in which amitriptyline and imipramine were directly compared, 5 reported amitriptyline superior and 4 reported no difference between the 2 drugs in efficacy (Hutchinson & Smedberg, 1966; Snow & Rickels, 1964; Sandifer et al, 1965; Richmond & Roberts, 1964; Hordern, 1963; Burt, 1962).
- b) In another study, imipramine (mean 157 milligrams/day) was compared with amitriptyline (mean 186 milligrams/day) in post-psychotic depressed patients who were also receiving one of several neuroleptics (mean chlorpromazine 795 milligrams/day). Thirteen of 14 patients on imipramine improved, while 8 of 11 on amitriptyline improved.

4.6.F Amoxapine**4.6.F.1 Depression**

- a) SUMMARY: Clinical studies have demonstrated that amoxapine is at least as effective as imipramine in the treatment of depression (Sathananthan et al, 1973b; Gelenberg et al, 1984; Wilson et al, 1977; Fabre, 1977; Holden et al, Okerson, 1979; Bagadia et al, 1979; Takahashi et al, 1979; Dominguez et al, 1981; Rickels et al, 1981). Side effects are comparable in type, frequency, and intensity to imipramine (Dugas & Weber, 1982; Kinney & Evans, 1982).
- b) Maprotiline (mean, 165 mg daily) and amoxapine (mean, 230 mg daily) showed similar efficacy in the treatment of moderate-to-severe depression in a 4-week, double-blind study involving 76 outpatients. Amoxapine is reported to have a rapid onset of action than maprotiline as evidenced by a greater improvement at days 4 and 7 (Fabre, 1985).
- c) Equivalent doses of amoxapine and imipramine were equally effective in depressed outpatients during 5-blind clinical trials (Rickels et al, 1981; Gelenberg et al, 1984). Amoxapine produced improvement in a 6-week study involving 90 depressed outpatients more rapidly than did imipramine; however, the dose of amoxapine (mean 235 mg/day) was double that of imipramine (105 milligrams/day) (Kiev & Okerson, 1979).
- d) Imipramine and amoxapine were comparable in the treatment of depression in inpatients in a controlled study. A mean dose of 165 milligrams daily was reported comparable with imipramine 175 milligrams daily in managing depressive illness; however, the imipramine-treated patients had slightly more cardiovascular side effects. Amoxapine reportedly had slightly more neurological toxicity (Ahlfors, 1981).
- e) Amoxapine and imipramine were comparable in 90 adult outpatients with mixed depressive illnesses in a controlled, double-blind study. Patients received amoxapine 145 to 265 milligrams daily (mean 235 mg) or imipramine 105 to 210 milligrams daily (mean 122.5 mg). Amoxapine and imipramine were both significantly superior to placebo as measured by the Hamilton Rating Scale for depression, Zung Self-Rating Scale, and Clinical Global Impression Scale scores. There were no significant differences between the 2 drugs (Fabre, 1977).

4.6.F.2 Efficacy

- a) Continuous Performance Test (CPT), a visual vigilance test, of amoxapine and imipramine show similar effects on performance and brain function (Buchsbaum et al, 1988). Amoxapine enhanced N120 amplitude in midline and parietal cortex. Both amoxapine and imipramine enhanced the P200 area, with amoxapine's greatest effect being in midline parietal locations. The clinical importance of these differences in brain activity remains to be determined.

4.6.G Binedaline**4.6.G.1 Depression**

- a) Binedaline, a bicyclic antidepressant, was evaluated against imipramine therapy in the treatment of 50 hospitalized, endogenously depressed patients (Faltus & Geerling, 1984). Patients were either treated with 150 mg/d of imipramine or 150 mg/d of binedaline in 3 equally divided doses. There were no psychiatric, clinical or statistical differences between treatment groups. Binedaline efficacy was slightly higher than imipramine utilizing the clinical global impression scale. Frequency of side effects was less in the binedaline treatment group.

4.6.H Brofaromine**4.6.H.1 Depression**

- a) Brofaromine is a selective and reversible monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI). In addition, the drug may act as a MAO inhibitor. A comparison of brofaromine with imipramine was made in 216 outpatients with depression. Patients were assigned to brofaromine and imipramine therapy in a 2:1 ratio. Both medications were started at a daily dose of 150 milligrams. The average dose of medication at the end of eight weeks was brofaromine 93.1 mg/day and imipramine 46.5 mg/day. This phase of the study lasted eight weeks. Baseline HAMD scores were 29.4 in the brofaromine group and 29.4 in the imipramine group. At the end of the study period the HAMD scores were 9.34 and 12.31 (p=0.01), respectively.

of adverse reactions was 27.8% in the brofaromine group (eg, headache, sleep disturbances, palpitation, nausea) and 27.8% in the imipramine group (eg, dryness of mouth, accommodation disturbances, impaired vision, and sweating). During the study only those patients receiving brofaromine were followed for up to 52 weeks. The lower H₁ antagonist was maintained, with the exception of a slight increase between weeks 28 to 36, and the drug was discontinued (Moller & Volz, 1992).

4.6.I Bromocriptine

4.6.I.1 Depression

a) No significant differences were observed in 33 outpatients with endogenous depression treated with either imipramine. Sixteen patients received bromocriptine 10 to 60 milligrams (mg)/day (mean, 34 mg/day) and seven received imipramine 75 to 250 mg/day (mean, 143 mg/day) for a period of 6 weeks. Based on the Hamilton rating scale, the total score of the bromocriptine-treated patients decreased from 19.9 to 7.8 and the imipramine-treated patients from 20.1 to 6.1. Side effects associated with bromocriptine included nausea, dizziness and headache and those associated with imipramine included dryness of mouth, dizziness, and sweating. Although bromocriptine has an antidepressant effect on anxiety, agitation, and insomnia are less pronounced than that of imipramine (Waehrens & Gerlach, 1981).

b) Bromocriptine (15 milligrams (mg) daily) was as effective as imipramine (75 mg/day daily) in a 10-week, double-blind study in patients with endogenous depression. However, only 9 patients were evaluated and more studies are needed to determine the definite effects of the drug (Bouras & Bridges, 1982).

4.6.J Bupropion

4.6.J.1 Depression

a) A meta-analysis of published studies between 1980 and 1990 comparing imipramine and bupropion in the treatment of major depression indicates that both medications are equally effective (Workman & Short, 1993).

b) Bupropion and imipramine were equally efficacious in a double-blind, 5-week, multicenter trial in 63 elderly patients (Branconnier et al, 1983a). Patients were given either bupropion 150 milligrams/day (18 patients), bupropion 450 milligrams/day (18 patients), imipramine 150 milligrams/day or less (18 patients), or placebo (9 patients). Treatment efficacy was evaluated using depression and anxiety scales. All 3 drug treatment groups were more effective than placebo (7 to 35).

4.6.J.2 Adverse Effects

a) Bupropion may be safer than imipramine in treating depressed patients with congestive heart failure (Roozendaal et al, 1983). The cardiovascular effects of imipramine and bupropion were compared in 10 depressed patients with congestive heart failure. Neither drug had an effect on left ventricular ejection fraction or left ventricular function. Hypotension, severe discontinuation, was a problem in 50% of the imipramine patients but did not occur with bupropion.

4.6.K Buspirone

Depression

Panic disorder

4.6.K.1 Depression

a) Imipramine was more effective than placebo (p less than 0.01) while buspirone trended towards being more effective (p less than 0.1) for the treatment of major depression in elderly outpatients. The 8-week, randomized, placebo-controlled study involved 177 patients aged 65 years and over. Beginning dosages were imipramine 25 mg twice daily or buspirone 10 mg twice daily, increased to imipramine 25 mg three times daily and buspirone 10 mg twice daily after one week. If tolerated after the second week, imipramine was increased to 100 mg/day and buspirone to 60 mg/day in divided doses. A daily maximum dose of 150 mg of imipramine and 60 mg of buspirone could be reached. Response rates were similar, with the mean optimal dose of 89 mg/day for imipramine and 38 mg/day for buspirone. Following 8 weeks of treatment, moderate to marked global improvement occurred in 61% of buspirone patients, 70% of imipramine patients, and 42% of placebo patients (Schweizer et al, 1998).

4.6.K.2 Panic disorder

a) A placebo-controlled, double-blind study of outpatients with panic disorder or agoraphobia with panic attacks. There were no significant differences in total biweekly numbers of panic attacks, decreases in number of attacks, and improvement in psychopathology and of global improvement over an eight-week period between patients treated with buspirone and placebo. All groups improved. The inconclusive results may have been due to a number of factors, including small sample sizes, the episodic nature of the illness, a possible therapeutic effect of the diagnosis for the subjects (many were newly diagnosed for the first time during the study), and the limited study duration (Pohl et al, 1989). Somewhat better results were seen for both active treatments in a study using higher doses (Robinson et al, 1988).

4.6.L Butylscopolamine

4.6.L.1 Nocturnal enuresis

a) Imipramine was significantly superior to butylscopolamine, which was no better than placebo in 14 children with enuresis (Korczyński & Kish, 1979). Imipramine 10 or 20 milligrams was compared to butylscopolamine 10 or 20 milligrams. Investigators concluded that antimuscarinic activity is not sufficient to inhibit detrusor contraction and that oral imipramine is not absorbed to any significant extent.

4.6.M Chlordiazepoxide

4.6.M.1 Depression

a) Imipramine was more effective and better tolerated at assessments made at 4 weeks, 6 weeks, and 8 weeks in patients with primary depression who completed a double-blind comparison of imipramine, chlordiazepoxide, and placebo (Lodge-Patch et al, 1986). At the end of 2 weeks of therapy the therapeutic advantages associated with imipramine therapy were apparent. By weeks 6 and 8, the imipramine-treated group had a marked superior therapeutic advantage in symptoms of depression, anxiety, anger-hostility, interpersonal sensitivity, and global improvement. Chlordiazepoxide had an advantage in patients with sleep difficulties, but these patients did significantly worse on anger-hostility and interpersonal sensitivity.

4.6.N Chlorprothixene

4.6.N.1 Depression

a) Imipramine 75 to 225 milligrams/day and chlorprothixene 45 to 135 milligrams/day had comparable efficacy in a double-blind, randomized, crossover study involving 32 patients with depressive disorders. The investigators concluded that both drugs were equally efficacious and safe, although the side effect profiles varied (Lodge-Patch et al, 1986).

4.6.O Citalopram

4.6.O.1 Depression

a) Unpublished studies involving small numbers of patients suggest the comparable efficacy of imipramine and citalopram in depression, although imipramine has tended to be more effective in improving sleep disturbances (Milne & Gendreau, 1996). Well-controlled comparisons of these agents are needed.

4.6.P Clomipramine

Depression

Obsessive-compulsive disorder

4.6.P.1 Depression

a) Clomipramine was as effective as imipramine in treating depression in 24 patients during a 44-day, randomized, double-blind study (McClure et al, 1973). The patients were diagnosed with psychotic depression independently by two psychiatrists. Clomipramine or oral imipramine was administered 3 times daily in 50 milligram doses. Throughout the study assessments using the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale and the Beck Depression Inventory demonstrated reduction in depression from baseline for both drugs; however, a significant difference in antidepressant effect could not be seen. Minor and transient anticholinergic adverse effects were noted in all patients and included dry mouth, increased sweating, hand tremor, and dizziness. Three patients dropped out of the study, but none of these had adverse effects.

4.6.P.2 Obsessive-compulsive disorder

a) SUMMARY: Clomipramine is superior to imipramine in the treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder.
 b) Oral clomipramine was slightly superior to oral imipramine in improving symptoms of obsessive-compulsive disorder (Volavka et al, 1985). A 12-week, double-blind study of 23 patients according to DSM-III with secondary depression was conducted to compare the 2 drugs. Both drugs were started at 50 milligrams/day; this was gradually increased to 300 mg/day as tolerated. Seven patients did not complete the study: 4 because of adverse effects (2 from each drug) and 3 for no apparent reason. Both drugs produced improvement in depressive symptoms; however, only clomipramine demonstrated improvement in obsessive symptoms when compared to baseline. Typical anticholinergic adverse effects were experienced by both treatment groups with no significant difference between the two. It is difficult to accurately evaluate the clinical response in this study because of the small sample size and the methods used for statistical analysis.
 c) Both oral clomipramine and oral imipramine were effective in improving symptoms in obsessive-compulsive disorder who met DSM-III criteria (Mavissakalian et al, 1985). The study was a 12-week, double-blind trial that compared clomipramine and imipramine in treating obsessive-compulsive disorders. Both drugs were begun at 25 to 50 milligrams/day; this was increased to 300 mg/day as tolerated. At the end of the trial, the mean daily dose of both drugs was 250 mg/day. In the clomipramine-treated patients and 2 of 5 imipramine-treated patients were classified as responders. For both drugs improvement in depression was evident at 4 weeks, while maximal improvement in obsessive-compulsive symptoms was seen until 8 weeks. The responders also had higher pretreatment depression scores than did nonresponders. These results corresponded with the results of another study (Marks et al, 1980). Because of the small sample size, differences

efficacy between clomipramine and imipramine could not be determined.

d) The relationship between the antiobsessional and antidepressant effects of tricyclic drugs was studied in a compulsive disorder. Study 1 consisted of a controlled 12-week trial with clomipramine (n=7) and placebo (n=7). Although the antiobsessional and antidepressant effects of the drugs covaried, antidepressant action was not antiobsessional effects. Clomipramine, and probably imipramine, possess specific antiobsessive effects that are partially independent of the antidepressant effects (Mavissakalian et al, 1985).

4.6.Q Clonazepam

4.6.Q.1 Panic disorder

a) Preliminary results from an ongoing double blind study comparing imipramine and clonazepam in the treatment of panic disorders in twelve patients have been reported (Svebak et al, 1990). Six patients received imipramine and six received clonazepam, and all were treated for a total of six months. Clonazepam treated patients required an average (range 1 to 3 mg/day) to achieve relief of symptoms; imipramine patients required 62.5 mg/day (range 25 to 100 mg/day). During the final four months of the study no patients required more than 2 mg/day of clonazepam or 50 mg/day of imipramine. Over the course of the first two weeks of treatment a substantial drop in the incidence of panic attacks occurred. Mean scores in global improvement were significantly improved in both groups, as were patients assessed by physician assessed scores. These early results demonstrate the efficacy of both imipramine and clonazepam in the treatment of panic disorders.

4.6.R Delorazepam

4.6.R.1 Anxiety

a) Delorazepam 3 to 6 milligrams (mg) was compared to imipramine 50 to 100 mg/day and paroxetine 20 mg/day in 81 patients with generalized anxiety disorders according to DSM-IV criteria. Delorazepam produced improvement in anxiety ratings during the first two weeks of treatment, but both paroxetine and imipramine were superior by the fourth week of treatment. At study end, reduction of at least 50% in the Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety was reported in 55% of the delorazepam patients, compared with 68% and 72% for paroxetine and imipramine, respectively. Delorazepam affects predominantly somatic symptoms, whereas paroxetine and imipramine affect psychic symptoms (Svebak et al, 1997a).

4.6.S Desipramine

4.6.S.1 Depression

a) Desipramine has been evaluated in comparison with imipramine with most open or double-blind trials indicating that the two drugs are equally effective with similar time of onset and side effects and that no significant differences are apparent with either drug (Rose & Westhead, 1964; Waldron & Bates, 1965; Lafave et al, 1965; St Jean et al & Maxwell, 1967; Rose & Westhead, 1967). However, other limited data indicates that imipramine may be superior to desipramine being more active (Edwards, 1965; Heller et al, 1971) or, conversely, that desipramine has the advantage of a faster and earlier clinical response (Agin et al, 1965).

4.6.T Desmopressin

4.6.T.1 Nocturnal enuresis

a) Patients treated with oral imipramine followed by intranasal desmopressin therapy (n=28) experienced a significant improvement compared to those who received desmopressin followed by imipramine (n=29) in an open label, cross-over study with nocturnal enuresis (Vertucci et al, 1997). Following a 2 week observation period, patients were randomized to either desmopressin 30 micrograms per day (mcg/day) (3 puffs per nostril) for 3 weeks followed by oral imipramine 2 mg/kg per kilogram (mg/kg) for 3 weeks followed by 2 more weeks of follow up, or imipramine therapy first followed by desmopressin. Both patient groups experienced significant reductions in the number of wet nights in the second observation period compared to the first observation period (p value not specified). Irrespective of which agent was administered, desmopressin therapy significantly increased the number of dry nights per week compared to imipramine (p < 0.05). Overall, desmopressin was associated with 20% wet nights while imipramine was associated with 37% wet nights. In addition, patient who received desmopressin last had fewer weekly wet nights than those who received imipramine last. The results of this study indicate desmopressin is long acting and is safe for long-term treatment of nocturnal enuresis. Both agents were well tolerated with few adverse events reported. One imipramine patient experienced pallor and cold extremities. One desmopressin patient reported inflammation of nasal mucosal.

4.6.U Diazepam

4.6.U.1 Depression

a) An 8-week, double-blind, controlled study compared the efficacy of alprazolam (58 patients), diazepam (58 patients), imipramine (63 patients), and placebo (61 patients) in 241 outpatients with a DSM-III diagnosis of major depression. After a washout period with all patients receiving placebo. Week 2 through 7, the patients received their assigned medication and during week 8 the dose of the medication was reduced by half for 3 days and discontinued for the remainder of the study the mean daily doses were 143 mg imipramine, 3.1 mg alprazolam, 24 mg diazepam, and 6 mg placebo. Attrition rates were significant, 23% by week 4 of treatment and 39% by week 6. By the completion of the study the mean daily doses were 143 mg imipramine, 3.1 mg alprazolam, 24 mg diazepam, and 6 mg placebo.

of the imipramine group had withdrawn, 23% of the alprazolam group, 44% of the diazepam group, and 40% group. The main reason given for attrition was side effects with the active compounds and ineffectiveness with Alprazolam and imipramine were both significantly better than placebo in treating depression, but diazepam was not. The clinical effects of imipramine and alprazolam were equivalent, and overall the frequency of side effects with imipramine produced less drowsiness and more anticholinergic effects than both alprazolam and diazepam (Fielding, 1987).

4.6.V Dibenzepin

4.6.V.1 Depression

a) Dibenzepin and imipramine are both well tolerated and equally effective in the treatment of depression. In a comparative trial, depressed patients (n=22) were administered either dibenzepin (160 milligrams (mg) three times daily) or imipramine (50 mg three times daily) for 4 weeks. Both drugs were effective and no significant differences were detected between patients taking dibenzepin and those taking imipramine (Fielding, 1969).

4.6.W Diclofenac

Cancer pain

Depression

4.6.W.1 Cancer pain

a) In a 1-week study, diclofenac plus placebo was as effective as diclofenac plus imipramine or diclofenac plus codeine for cancer pain. This double-blind study enrolled 180 patients who were randomly assigned to receive diclofenac (75 mg) 4 times daily with placebo, diclofenac with imipramine 10 or 25 mg 3 times daily (determined by patient age: greater than 65 years), or diclofenac with codeine 40 mg 4 times daily. Efficacy was assessed at baseline and at 100 millimeter (mm) visual analogue scale (VAS) (0=no pain; 100=worst possible pain); patients with acceptable pain continued treatment for the remainder of the study. Significant differences were NOT detected between the 3 groups. Results of this study are limited by the short duration of treatment which may have been insufficient to detect differences, lack of dose titration for codeine, concomitant use of morphine in 30 patients, and inclusion of different cancer pain etiologies. Additional studies which address the limitations of this study are needed (Mir

4.6.W.2 Depression

a) Diclofensine is an isoquinoline derivative, structurally similar to nomifensine, that is a potent inhibitor of 5-HT reuptake, and norepinephrine reuptake (Capponi et al, 1985). In a double-blind comparison with imipramine (average dose = 65 milligrams/day) and high dose (average dose = 97.6 milligrams/day) diclofensine therapy was shown to be as effective as imipramine therapy (average dose = 102.9 milligrams/day) during the 6-week study period. During the 6 weeks of therapy diclofensine therapy was more effective, but by the completion of the 6-week study period there was no difference between the treatment groups. Whether or not a difference in onset of action would have been observed if higher initial doses of imipramine were used is unknown. Diclofensine therapy was better tolerated than the imipramine even if higher doses of imipramine were used it would have resulted in an even higher incidence of side effects.

4.6.X Dothiepin

4.6.X.1 Depression

a) Dothiepin and imipramine appear to be equally efficacious in the treatment of depression. In a double-blind study, patients with existing depression received either dothiepin or imipramine. Therapy was initiated with 25 milligrams which was increased to a maximum of 250 milligrams/day based on clinical response. Although both dothiepin groups showed similar improvement, dothiepin was associated with fewer adverse effects, including dry mouth (Eilenberg, 1980). Similar results were seen in another study (Sheth et al, 1979).

4.6.Y Doxepin

4.6.Y.1 Depression

a) Imipramine may be slightly more effective than doxepin in the treatment of depression. Ninety-nine patients with depression received imipramine 100 to 200 milligrams/day or doxepin 100 to 200 milligrams/day for 4 weeks in a study. Imipramine was superior in 24 of 27 parameters. Imipramine was shown to be superior to doxepin in relieving symptoms of anxiety/depression; global evaluations showed improvement in 39 of 48 (81%) of imipramine patients and 49 (69%) of doxepin patients (Finnerty et al, 1978).

b) In a study involving 79 patients, a higher socioeconomic status and shorter duration of illness were indicators of a better response to imipramine, whereas a higher response rate to doxepin was found in male patients (Finnerty & Gillis, 1981).

c) Amitriptyline was superior to imipramine and doxepin in relation to their effects on interpersonal learning in inpatients (Gillis, 1981). All subjects performed better, according to quantitative indices of learning tasks, than those who received antipsychotic or neuroleptic drugs but no antidepressants. Amitriptyline patients scored significantly better than imipramine or doxepin patients.

d) No significant differences in overall efficacy of the 2 drugs was reported in one study (Kimura, 1972), but 60 mg daily was superior to imipramine 150 mg daily in neurotic depression, whereas imipramine appeared to be superior to doxepin in endogenous depression (Pinder et al, 1977a).

e) Similar antidepressant effects of doxepin and imipramine were reported; however, imipramine had a more sustained action. Doxepin appeared to have more sustained effects (Hasan & Akhtar, 1971).

4.6.Y.2 Efficacy

a) In elderly patients doxepin produces less orthostatic effects than imipramine (10.5 mmHg vs 25.9 mmHg). The effect observed with imipramine was weakly related to dose and did not correlate with pretreatment orthostatic effects with duration of treatment (Neshkes et al, 1985).

4.6.Z Electroconvulsive therapy

4.6.Z.1 Depression

a) A double-blind, randomized, controlled trial compared electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) with imipramine in patients suffering from depression (Gangadhar et al, 1982). Group I received modified bilateral ECT using thiopental 250 mg, succinylcholine 20 to 30 mg, and atropine 0.65 mg during the procedure. ECT was administered every other day during the first 2 weeks for a total of 6 treatments and then once a week for the next 2 weeks. Following this initial treatment maintenance ECTs were administered in the next 8 weeks. During the course of this treatment the patients responded equally to the imipramine group. Group II received imipramine 75 milligrams/day during week one and 150 mg/day during the eleventh week. The dose was reduced to 75 mg/day during the twelfth week. During the course of each patient received a simulated course of ECT therapy at the same frequency as the ECT-treated group. Ten patients completed the study period (5 patients in the ECT group and 3 patients in the imipramine group were dropped from the study during the first 6 weeks). Both treatments produced equally significant improvement which was maintained at 6-month follow-up period. The rate of improvement was quicker in those patients receiving ECT therapy. ECT had fewer side effects than imipramine therapy. There was no lasting organic brain dysfunction associated with ECT as previously thought.

4.6.AA Encainide

4.6.AA.1 Cardiac dysrhythmia - Myocardial infarction with complication, Post

a) Encainide and flecainide were more effective in suppressing ventricular arrhythmias than moricizine, imipramine, or placebo during the dose titration phase of a 1-year, multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial (Anon, 1988a). Patients were eligible for this study if they had an acute myocardial infarction within 6 weeks of entrance to the study, were less than 75 years of age and demonstrated either an average of 10 or more ventricular premature complexes (VPCs) per hour, or 5 or more episodes of unsustained ventricular tachycardia during a 24-hour recording. The total daily doses of the study drugs were encainide 105 to 180 milligrams, flecainide 200 to 400 milligrams, and moricizine 600 to 900 mg. Efficacy was defined as 70% or more suppression in VPCs. The efficacy rates were 83% for encainide, 66% for moricizine, 52% for imipramine, and 37% for placebo during the dose titration phase of the study. The incidence of adverse effects was 49% for encainide, 55% for flecainide, 67% for imipramine, 64% for moricizine, and 37% for placebo. Imipramine was the drug most associated with patient withdrawal due to adverse effects. This study demonstrated VPC suppression efficacy at the 1-year follow-up.

4.6.AB Flecainide

4.6.AB.1 Cardiac dysrhythmia - Myocardial infarction with complication, Post

a) Encainide and flecainide were more effective in suppressing ventricular arrhythmias than moricizine, imipramine, or placebo during the dose titration phase of a 1-year, multicenter, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial (Anon, 1988). Patients were eligible for this study if they had an acute myocardial infarction within 6 weeks of entrance to the study, were less than 75 years of age and demonstrated either an average of 10 or more ventricular premature complexes (VPCs) per hour, or 5 or more episodes of unsustained ventricular tachycardia during a 24-hour recording. The total daily doses of the study drugs were encainide 105 to 180 milligrams, flecainide 200 to 400 milligrams, and moricizine 600 to 900 mg. Efficacy was defined as 70% or more suppression in VPCs. The efficacy rates were 83% for encainide, 66% for moricizine, 52% for imipramine, and 37% for placebo during the dose titration phase of the study. The incidence of adverse effects was 49% for encainide, 55% for flecainide, 67% for imipramine, 64% for moricizine, and 37% for placebo. Imipramine was the drug most associated with patient withdrawal due to adverse effects. This study demonstrated VPC suppression efficacy at the 1-year follow-up.

4.6.AC Fluoxetine

4.6.AC.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Fluoxetine has been as effective as imipramine in the treatment of depression, while producing fewer side effects. Overall cost of therapy, clinical efficacy, and patient quality of life have been shown to be superior after six months of treatment.

b) In a double-blind, randomized, parallel group study, fluoxetine was better tolerated although not more effective than imipramine in the treatment of major depression with atypical features. A total of 154 patients (age 18 to 65 years) met DSM-IV criteria for major depression for at least 1 month and also met the Columbia criteria for atypical depression.

randomized to receive fluoxetine, imipramine, or placebo for 10 weeks. Fluoxetine was administered as 20 mg for 4 weeks, 40 mg daily for week 5, and 60 mg daily for the remaining weeks. Imipramine was administered the first week, increasing by 50 mg/day each week until a maximum of 300 mg daily was reached. Mean daily of the study were 51.4 mg/day for fluoxetine and 204.9 mg/day for imipramine. Fluoxetine and imipramine did one another based on the Clinical Global Impression (CGI) scale improvement scores following 10 weeks of 1 Fluoxetine and imipramine were significantly more effective than placebo in the intention-to-treat (p less than respectively) and completer groups (p less than 0.03 and 0.001, respectively). Imipramine-treated patients de significantly higher dropout rate than fluoxetine-treated patients (p=0.04). In the intention-to-treat group, depr measures including the 17-item and 28-item Hamilton Depression Rating Scale and Patient Global Improver no differences between fluoxetine and imipramine and a consistent clinical benefit of both treatment groups c placebo. Adverse effects significantly more common for imipramine than for fluoxetine included dry mouth (8% respectively), somnolence (42% versus 24%, respectively), and dizziness (44% versus 25%, respectively); α pain occurred at a significantly higher incidence in fluoxetine- versus imipramine-treated patients (McGrath et c)

c) For the initial treatment of depression, imipramine and fluoxetine are equivalent in terms of overall treatme and quality of life. In a randomized, controlled trial, patients with newly diagnosed depression (n=536) were p fluoxetine or a tricyclic antidepressant (imipramine or desipramine) and assessed at 1, 3, and 6 months for bc antidepressant regimen as measured by the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale and the Hopkins Symptom C of life. Drug cost and total health care costs were also measured. Clinical efficacy and quality of life were sim two groups; however, patients treated with fluoxetine had fewer adverse effects, were less likely to require a medication, and had less outpatient visits. Although drug costs were higher, total treatment costs were sligh fluoxetine group; however, this difference was not statistically significant (Simon et al, 1996).

d) Controlled studies have demonstrated that oral fluoxetine in doses of 40 to 80 milligrams daily is as effect 150 to 250 milligrams daily in the treatment of major depression (Cohn & Wilcox, 1985; Stark & Hardison, 19 1987a). Fluoxetine was as effective as imipramine doses of 150 to 300 milligrams/day (Byerly et al, 1988). H report (Bremner, 1984), fluoxetine was reported superior to imipramine in several depression scales in a 5-w study involving 40 depressed outpatients. In all studies, the incidence of side effects (anticholinergic effects, drowsiness, dry mouth, cardiovascular effects) was less with fluoxetine as compared with imipramine; fluoxet associated with a greater incidence of anxiety or nervousness, insomnia, and excessive sweating. In another sweating (as well as nausea) was higher with fluoxetine than imipramine (Stark & Hardison, 1985). Of signific has occurred during fluoxetine therapy, as compared to generally no change in body weight or increases in w imipramine. The onset of antidepressant action of each drug has been similar, generally within one week.

e) Imipramine and fluoxetine had similar efficacy in multicenter, double-blind, placebo-controlled, outpatient : the treatment of major depressive disorder (Stark & Hardison, 1985). Five hundred forty patients were randor receive either fluoxetine 60 to 80 milligrams daily, imipramine 150 to 300 milligrams daily (the majority of pati Patients were treated for up to 6 weeks in double-blind fashion. Imipramine and fluoxetine were both superior measures (Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale for Depression total, Raskin Severity of Depression Scale, Clin Impressions Severity of Illness Scale, Global Improvement and secondary symptom measures). Fluoxetine a were similarly effective on all general measures of improvement. Anorexia and nausea occurred to a signific in fluoxetine-treated patients; constipation, dizziness, drowsiness, dry mouth, somatosensory disturbances, a sweating were reported more frequently with imipramine.

f) The efficacy and safety of fluoxetine and imipramine was compared in 40 depressed outpatients in a doub parallel trial (Bremner, 1984). Fluoxetine was given in doses increasing from 20 to 40 milligrams daily, then to daily, during the first week; imipramine doses were increased from 75 to 100 milligrams daily, then to 125 mil During the second and third weeks, the maintenance dose of each drug was determined, with fluoxetine bein up to 80 milligrams daily and imipramine up to 300 milligrams daily. During the fourth and fifth weeks of the s maintenance dose was achieved; the maintenance dose for most fluoxetine patients was 60 milligrams daily, milligrams daily for imipramine. Fluoxetine was reported superior to imipramine in the total Hamilton Psychiat Depression, as well as the HAM-D scales for anxiety/somatization, retardation and sleep disturbance. Fluoxe reported more beneficial than imipramine in the Raskin Severity of Depression Scale and Covi Anxiety Scale. HAM-D total score, and the Raskin and Covi scales, fluoxetine was statistically superior to imipramine only d of the study (week 5). The Clinical Global Impressions demonstrated the superiority of fluoxetine over imiprar depression but not global improvement. Weight loss (average, 3.8 pounds) occurred with fluoxetine during tre increase in weight being seen with imipramine (average, 0.7 pounds). Heart rate increased significantly with i compared to slight decreases with fluoxetine. Blood pressure decreased with fluoxetine as compared with inc imipramine, and fluoxetine was associated with a lesser degree of gastrointestinal disturbances, dizziness, a mouth occurred in one of 20 fluoxetine patients and in 9 of 20 imipramine-treated patients, with nervousness fluoxetine-treated patients and in two imipramine-treated patients.

4.6.AD Fluvoxamine

4.6.AD.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Fluvoxamine and imipramine appear to be equally efficacious in the treatment of depression 1987; Guelfi et al, 1983; Guy et al, 1984; Itil et al, 1983); (March, 1990)(Lydiard et al, 1989).

b) Fluvoxamine demonstrated a trend toward superiority over imipramine in treating 63 patients with major d 4- to 6-week, randomized, placebo-controlled, double-blind study (Lapierre et al, 1987). All drugs were starte milligrams/day, and were gradually increased to a maximum of 300 mg/day. The mean daily dose of fluvoxan of the study was 207 mg, and 192 mg for imipramine. At the end of the study, the total Hamilton Rating Scale (HAM-D) score had decreased by 75%, 55%, and 6% in the fluvoxamine-, imipramine-, and placebo-treated ;

respectively. At the end of the study there were 8, 3, and 1 responders from the fluvoxamine, imipramine, and nortriptyline, respectively. Only 1 patient in each active treatment group withdrew from the study because of adverse effects.

c) Fluvoxamine was comparable to imipramine in antidepressant activity during a 4-week, double-blind, multi-center study involving 151 patients (Guelfi et al, 1983). Drug therapy was administered in twice daily dosing in the range of 100 to 300 mg for fluvoxamine and 50 to 200 milligrams daily for imipramine. At the end of the study there was a mean imipramine Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D) of 67.2% in the fluvoxamine-treated group and a 62.1% imipramine-treated group. A similar improvement was detected with both drugs on the Clinical Global Impressions scale. At the end of the study, the mean daily dose of fluvoxamine was 221 mg and 112 mg for imipramine. A total of 37 patients dropped out of the study prematurely; 19 on fluvoxamine and 18 on imipramine. The reasons for early withdrawal appeared to be similar between both drugs.

d) Fluvoxamine and imipramine were comparable in efficacy for the treatment of depression in 36 patients with unipolar or bipolar depression during a 4- to 6-week, randomized, double-blind study (Guy et al, 1984). Both were administered at bedtime with a maximal dosage range between 150 to 225 milligrams/day. In the unipolar depression study, 92% of fluvoxamine-treated patients were judged "improved" at the end of the study compared to 81% of the imipramine-treated group. However, the imipramine-treated group appeared to have a higher percent of patients rated as "much" or "very" improved, 75% compared to 54% of the fluvoxamine group.

e) A double-blind comparative study of fluvoxamine and imipramine was carried out in 20 outpatients with depression. Patients received randomly-assigned medication over a 4-week period in a dosage range of 50 to 300 mg given in two divided doses. There was a significant symptom severity reduction in both groups at the end of 4 weeks, and fluvoxamine was more effective than imipramine in reducing suicidal ideas and anxiety/somatic symptoms. Anticholinergic-type adverse effects predominated for imipramine and gastrointestinal effects for fluvoxamine (Gonella et al, 1990).

f) In a 6-week, double-blind, placebo-controlled, variable-dose study assessing the comparative antidepressant activity of fluvoxamine (FLU), imipramine (IMI), and placebo (PBO), 45 patients with major depressive disorder were evaluated for response and side effects. Dosage ranged between 100 to 300 milligrams/day for active medications. No statistically significant differences between either the FLU (N=17) and PBO or the FLU and IMI groups were found. Side effects were similar in the three groups: IMI (N=18): constipation (83%), dry mouth (55%), and sweating, dizziness, and nausea, all 39%; diarrhea, headache, dry mouth, all 41%, nausea (35%), and flatulence (29%). PBO (N=18): pruritus (29%), nausea (18%), asthenia and somnolence, both 12%. This study revealed a high placebo response, with a 50% improvement in depression. Thus, it is difficult to show differences from active medication unless the study is carried out for a longer time. The small numbers of patients are too small to detect a true difference. Second, patients seemed to either respond or not respond to the response to IMI appeared to be more graded. This may reflect a subgroup of depressed patients with a serotonergic type of depression (Lydiard et al, 1989).

g) Other double-blind, placebo-controlled studies comparing imipramine and fluvoxamine have only demonstrated improvement in depression with either drug when compared with placebo (Dominguez et al, 1985; Norton et al, 1985).

4.6.AD.2 Adverse Effects

a) SUMMARY: Fluvoxamine produces less cardiovascular and anticholinergic adverse effects than imipramine. Nausea and vomiting are more common with fluvoxamine therapy (Benfield & Ward, 1986; Roos, 1983; Saletu et al, 1993).

b) Adverse effects data was pooled from the results of 10 double-blind, placebo-controlled trials comparing fluvoxamine (n=222) with imipramine (n=221) (Benfield & Ward, 1986). Anticholinergic effects such as dry mouth, dizziness, sweating, and abnormal accommodation were much more prevalent in patients receiving imipramine. Nausea and vomiting were the only adverse effects to be much more prevalent in the fluvoxamine-treated patients.

c) The cardiac effects of tricyclic antidepressants were compared with fluvoxamine. The major cardiac adverse effects observed with tricyclic antidepressants include postural hypotension, heart rate increase, and slight prolongation of intraventricular conduction time and QT interval. The only cardiac effect observed with fluvoxamine was a statistically significant slowing of heart rate (Roos, 1983).

d) Fluvoxamine produced less psychomotor impairment than imipramine. Fluvoxamine was superior to imipramine in regards to concentration, reaction time, mood, psychomotor activity, and affectivity. Following the administration of fluvoxamine 75 milligrams to 10 healthy volunteers, psychometric tests demonstrated a tendency towards an increase in psychomotor activity, concentration, attention, after-effect, and mood and a significant increase in critical flicker frequency when compared to placebo (Saletu et al, 1980).

4.6.AE Gepirone

4.6.AE.1 Depression

a) Gepirone extended-release 10 to 60 mg daily was only marginally superior to placebo at some time points and tended to be less effective than imipramine 50 to 300 mg daily in one double-blind study involving patients with depression (Feiger, 1996).

4.6.AF Haloperidol

4.6.AF.1 Schizophrenia

a) Haloperidol was compared with placebo, chlorpromazine, diazepam, and imipramine as prophylactic agents to prevent relapse of schizophrenic patients. At the end of the three-year trial, haloperidol and chlorpromazine demonstrated significant remission as compared to the other three treatments. Daily doses of haloperidol were 3 milligrams; chlorpromazine 75 mg (Nishikawa et al, 1982).

4.6.AG Lithium

4.6.AG.1 Depression

a) Lithium was more effective in the treatment of unipolar and bipolar depression in 63 female in-patients in a controlled study. The patients received either lithium in doses producing serum levels of 0.8 to 1.2 mmole/L or 600 to 1200 milligrams/day in divided doses. Improvement occurred more quickly with imipramine (between days 1 and 8; days 8 to 22); however, all patients treated with lithium improved, but not all imipramine-treated patients did (1979).

4.6.AH Lofepamine**4.6.AH.1 Depression**

a) A meta-analysis of 7 studies comparing lofepramine (n=372) with imipramine (n=372) concluded that lofepramine was comparable with imipramine in efficacy and superior in tolerance (Kerihuel & Dreyfus, 1991). Overall, there was no difference between the number of lofepramine-treated patients (64%) and imipramine-treated patients (58%) during the trials that ranged from 4 to 8 weeks. Significantly fewer patients reported side effects with lofepramine (55% vs 68%; p less than 0.0001). Lofepamine doses ranged from 25 to 225 milligrams/d, and imipramine doses ranged from 25 to 150 milligrams/d.

b) Lofepamine is a tricyclic antidepressant that is structurally similar to imipramine, but has an improved lipid profile (Lofepamine et al, 1982).

c) Lofepamine and imipramine had similar efficacy in a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trial (Lofepamine et al, 1982). Of the 139 patients initially enrolled in the study, 89 completed the full 6 weeks of treatment (34 lofepramine, and 21 placebo). Dropout rates for the lofepramine and imipramine group were similar when corrected for treatment failures and side effects. There was a significantly high placebo dropout rate, with the majority of patients dropping out due to a lack of clinical efficacy. Lofepamine and imipramine were both significantly better than placebo in the treatment of primary depression. There was no significant difference between the imipramine and lofepramine group with respect to side effects. Lofepamine therapy was associated with significantly lower incidence of severe and/or moderate side effects with 66.7% observed in the imipramine group), and a lower incidence of side effects in general.

d) Lofepamine and imipramine were compared in a double-blind placebo-controlled study involving 158 depressed outpatients. Both drugs were equally efficacious and superior to placebo therapy. Lofepamine therapy produced a lower incidence of sedation and anticholinergic effects than imipramine therapy (Rickels et al, 1982).

4.6.AI Maprotiline**4.6.AI.1 Depression**

a) SUMMARY: Maprotiline is considered very similar to imipramine in therapeutic efficacy (VanderVelde, 1977; Lehmann et al, 1976; Singh et al, 1976; Levine, 1975; Middleton, 1975; Rieger et al, 1975; Balestrieri et al, 1975). Maprotiline therapy may be associated with a quicker onset of action (VanderVelde, 1981); (Clayhorn, 1977).

b) Maprotiline 50 milligrams orally 3 times/day was administered to a maximum of 300 mg/day or imipramine 150 milligrams orally per day to 341 patients with manic depressive illness. Patients ranged in age from 19 to 64 years. Treatment for 4 weeks. Improvement was based on Hamilton's and Self-Rating scales. Sixty-seven percent of patients receiving maprotiline were reported as improved compared with 66% of the patients who received imipramine. Side effects, dry mouth, tremor, blurred vision, and gastrointestinal effects were reported but were significantly less in the maprotiline-treated group (Logue et al, 1979).

c) Maprotiline was superior to imipramine in a double-blind, randomized controlled trial of 25 inpatients with major depressive disorder (Rieger et al, 1975). The dose of maprotiline and imipramine was 50 milligrams three times a day for 4 weeks by a flexible dosing schedule for three weeks. Results of the 16 patients completing the trial showed the Hamilton Depression Scores for the maprotiline group to be significantly better (p less than 0.05) than those for the imipramine group. The Zung Depression Scale favored maprotiline (p less than 0.01) on day seven and at the end of the trial (p less than 0.10). Overall rating of global impression (p less than 0.05) and global improvement at endpoint (p less than 0.05) indicated maprotiline to be superior to imipramine. Dropouts from the study included five maprotiline patients, two hospital against medical advice, one improving so as to warrant discontinuation of the therapy, and one due to inpatient response. Two patients from the imipramine group dropped out due to toxicity, one due to deterioration after treatment, and one because of physician intervention. Side effects were prevalent on day three but decreased by day 14. Common complaints in both groups were dry mouth, blurred vision, drowsiness, and nasal congestion reported only in the imipramine group.

4.6.AJ Melitracen**4.6.AJ.1 Depression**

a) Four-week, double-blind trial; 29 patients with chronic schizophrenic or neurotic depression; melitracen 75 (mg)/day vs imipramine 50 to 150 mg/day. Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale, Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale: Impression: some improvement in both treatment groups, efficacy of imipramine superior to melitracen (not significant). Melitracen better tolerated than imipramine: 46 adverse effects (drowsiness, dry mouth, increase in tinnitus, agitation) for melitracen vs 69 for imipramine. Quicker average onset of therapeutic effect for melitracen 2.2 weeks (Biros et al, 1969).

4.6.AK Methscopolamine

4.6.AK.1 Nocturnal enuresis

a) Methscopolamine is ineffective in the treatment of enuresis. In a study with 40 severely enuretic boys, me bromide was used to determine whether some subgroups of enuretic children might respond to the periphera muscarinic receptors. The effects of treatment with imipramine, desipramine, methscopolamine bromide, and compared; the tricyclic antidepressants were superior to methscopolamine and placebo (Rapoport et al, 198

4.6.AL Mianserin

Depression

Nocturnal enuresis

4.6.AL.1 Depression

a) Studies to date suggest that there is no significant difference in overall efficacy between imipramine and treatment of depression in both inpatients and outpatients (Pichot et al, 1978; Murphy et al, 1976; Murphy, 19 several deficiencies are apparent in clinical trials to date, and 1 study has indicated that improvements seen w imipramine were equivalent to those observed with placebo (Perry et al, 1978). (However, these patients wer weeks, which may have been insufficient time for therapeutic effects from either drug to occur).

b) Mianserin therapy (20 to 60 milligrams/day) in elderly depressed patients (n=50, age 60 to 80 years) is as imipramine therapy (75 to 150 milligrams/day) (Eklund et al, 1985). The incidence of dry mouth, dizziness, fai weakness was greater in the imipramine group than in the mianserin group, however the total number of side by each group was not significantly different. From these results the authors concluded that mianserin may b imipramine in the treatment of depression in elderly patients because of its lower incidence of side effects. Hc number of mianserin treated patients withdrew from the study due to confusion, worsening of the condition, o Considering this, it is to early to conclude that mianserin is superior to imipramine in the treatment of depress

4.6.AL.2 Nocturnal enuresis

a) Imipramine was superior to mianserin and placebo in achieving dry nights and reducing wetness scores (f mianserin was not superior to placebo. This was a multicenter, randomized, double-blind study involving 80 c al, 1996).

4.6.AM Milnacipran**4.6.AM.1 Depression**

a) SUMMARY: Milnacipran offers no efficacy advantage over tricyclic antidepressants

b) Milnacipran 50 to 100 mg twice daily has been comparable to or less effective than imipramine 100 to 150 amitriptyline 150 mg daily, and clomipramine 75 to 150 mg daily in the treatment of major depressive disorde endpoints were improvements on the Hamilton and Montgomery-Asberg scales (Tignol et al, 1998; Leinonen Kasper et al, 1996; Anon, 1997a; Von Frenckell et al, 1990; Ansseau et al, 1989). A more rapid onset of actio observed with clomipramine and amitriptyline (Leinonen et al, 1997; Ansseau et al, 1989).

c) Greater improvement of CGI-3 scores (therapeutic index, incorporating efficacy and tolerance) was report milnacipran in a manufacturer-prepared meta analysis of tricyclic antidepressant comparative trials (Anon, 19 1996), and this appears in manufacturer product information. However, statistical significance between treatn demonstrated (Anon, 1997a).

4.6.AN Moclobemide**4.6.AN.1 Depression**

a) SUMMARY: Moclobemide and imipramine have been similarly effective in the treatment of depression; ac generally been greater with imipramine.

b) Moclobemide 300 to 600 milligrams orally daily has been as effective as imipramine 100 to 200 milligrams treatment of endogenous and non-endogenous depression in controlled clinical trials (Baumhackl et al, 1989; 1990; Versiani et al, 1989a; Versiani et al, 1989; Versiani et al, 1990a; Stabl et al, 1989; Lecrubier & Guelfi, 1 1990). However, a trend (not statistically significant) toward the superiority of imipramine over moclobemide i or neurotic depression has been observed by some investigators (Biziere & Berger, 1990; Versiani et al, 1989; rapid response was reported with moclobemide in 1 study (Udabe et al, 1990).

c) In 1 study, the response rate to imipramine and moclobemide was similar in both males and females. How tended to be less effective in depressed patients over 60 years of age as compared with patients under 60 (E 1990).

d) Moclobemide and imipramine were equally efficacious in a placebo-controlled, 6-week study (Versiani et ; the largest trials to date (n=490) involving patients with a major depressive episode (50% with endogenous d reduction in the average Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HRSD) was observed with moclobemide 300 daily, as compared with 28% with placebo, during 6 weeks of treatment. Imipramine (100 to 200 milligrams d; for comparison in this study, and was as effective as moclobemide, producing a 56% reduction in HRSD scor final assessments of efficacy by the investigators, good to very good responses were reported in 70% of pati

moclobemide, 70% treated with imipramine, and 28% treated with placebo. When subgroups of patients with non-endogenous depression were analyzed, both drugs were similarly effective and superior to placebo in efficacy. Overall tolerability assessments favored moclobemide over imipramine (Versiani et al, 1989).

4.6.AN.2 Adverse Effects

a) Adverse effects have generally been less with moclobemide compared to imipramine, particularly dry mouth, tremor, sweating, and blurred vision (Stabl et al, 1989).

4.6.AO Moricizine

4.6.AO.1 Cardiac dysrhythmia - Myocardial infarction with complication, Post

a) Encainide and flecainide were more effective in suppressing ventricular arrhythmias than moricizine, imipramine, or placebo during the dose titration phase of a 1-year, multicenter, randomized, double-blind and placebo-controlled study (Anon, 1988b). Patients were eligible for this study if they had an acute myocardial infarction within 6 months prior to the study, were less than 75 years of age and demonstrated either an average of 10 or more ventricular complexes (VPCs) per hour or 5 or more episodes of unsustained ventricular tachycardia (3 to 9 consecutive of 100/minute or more) during a 24-hour ambulatory ECG recording. The total daily doses of the study drugs were 180 milligrams for encainide, from 200 to 400 milligrams for flecainide, from 150 to 375 milligrams for imipramine, and 600 to 900 milligrams for moricizine. Efficacy was defined as 70% or more suppression in VPC frequency and suppression of runs of VCP when compared to baseline. The efficacy rates were 83% for flecainide, 79% for moricizine, 52% for imipramine, and 37% for placebo during the dose titration phase of the study. The incidence of adverse effects was 49% for encainide, 55% for flecainide, 67% for imipramine, 64% for moricizine, and 60% for placebo. Placebo was the drug most associated with patient withdrawal due to adverse effects. This study did not address VPC efficacy at the 1-year follow-up.

4.6.AP Nefazodone

4.6.AP.1 Depression

a) Nefazodone was comparable overall to imipramine in a 6-week double-blind, placebo-controlled study in patients with major depression. Average doses at the end of 6 weeks were 180 and 158 milligrams daily, respectively. Nefazodone was not always significantly superior to placebo in improving Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D); imipramine tended to be superior to nefazodone on the visit-wise (observed case) analysis of HAM-D; in this study imipramine was statistically superior to placebo at weeks 4 through 6 of treatment, whereas nefazodone was effective only at week 5. Neither agent proved statistically more effective than placebo on the Clinical Global Impression (clinician's rating). Although adverse effects tended to be less with nefazodone, specific effects induced by nefazodone were not presented. This study did not provide a direct statistical comparison of imipramine and nefazodone (Feig et al, 1995).

b) Meta-analysis of 6 placebo-controlled, double blind studies showed that nefazodone and imipramine were both effective in treating major depression and the accompanying symptoms of anxiety, and nefazodone was superior to imipramine in the treatment of agitation (Fawcett et al, 1995). Nefazodone (100 to 600 milligrams/day; mean endpoint dose=399 milligrams/day; n=184), imipramine (25 to 300 milligrams/day; mean endpoint dose=178 milligrams; n=288), and placebo (n=288) were compared in four 6-week and two 8-week studies. Both agents were significantly better than placebo in treating depression. Anxiety symptoms were significantly improved by both agents compared with placebo; nefazodone resulted in significantly greater improvement in both psychic anxiety and somatic anxiety as measured by the HAM-D scale, whereas imipramine had no effect on anxiety. Nefazodone was significantly better than placebo in relieving agitation at weeks 1 and 3 through end of study. This difference was significant from placebo only at endpoint.

c) In a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial, nefazodone and imipramine were compared in 180 patients with major depression (Fontaine et al, 1994). Nefazodone was comparable in antidepressant efficacy to imipramine; significant improvement was evident in self-report anxiety symptoms as early as week 1 for nefazodone patients in either group. The therapeutic dose range of nefazodone was found to be 100 to 500 milligrams/day, with most patients ultimately receiving 500 milligrams/day. In this trial, nefazodone-treated patients experienced significantly fewer adverse events than imipramine-treated patients. The dose of imipramine ranged from 50 to 250 milligrams/day with the average dose being 214.4 milligrams/day.

4.6.AP.2 Adverse Effects

a) With acute phase- or long-term use of therapeutic doses of nefazodone or imipramine for depression, significantly fewer nefazodone-treated patients than imipramine-treated patients experienced clinically significant weight gain (change in body weight). A retrospective analysis of pooled data from 3 studies comparing nefazodone (n=225) and imipramine (n=225) showed that, at some time during the long-term phase of treatment, 9.5% of those taking nefazodone and 24.4% of those taking imipramine had clinically significant weight gain. At study endpoint, 2.9% and 19.7%, respectively (p=0.001) had gained weight. Percentages of patients with weight gain during acute-phase treatment were 0.9% for nefazodone and 19.7% for imipramine (p=0.02) (Sussman et al, 2001).

4.6.AQ Nomifensine

4.6.AQ.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Nomifensine and imipramine appear similarly effective in the treatment of depression in inpatient and outpatient settings, including the elderly; comparative doses for each have been 75 to 150 milligrams/day. In general, the dose of nomifensine is less than imipramine (Merideth et al, 1984; Bremner et al, 1984; Cohn et al, 1984; Amin et al, 1978b; Forrest et al, 1977).

b) Nomifensine was as effective as imipramine in 20 patients with endogenous over-reactive depression (Anon, 1984). Patients received 147.9 milligrams (mean) nomifensine daily or 158.3 milligrams (mean) imipramine daily in a

controlled, double-blind study. The incidence of anticholinergic side effects was lower with nomifensine than in Nomifensine and imipramine, each in doses of 75 to 150 mg/day for 6 weeks, were equally effective in the treated depressed patients. Autonomic side effects with nomifensine occurred less frequently than with imipramine (Forrest et al, 1974).

c) Nomifensine was equally efficacious as imipramine in 28 patients who received a daily dose of 150 to 200 mg/day for a period of 20 to 30 days. Side effects associated with nomifensine were lower than those associated with imipramine (Forrest et al, 1974).

d) Based on the Hamilton rating scale and the Beck depression inventory, nomifensine and imipramine were equally efficacious in the treatment of 30 outpatients with depression. Side effects of nomifensine and imipramine were similar (Forrest et al, 1977).

e) Nomifensine in average doses of 150 milligrams orally daily was reported similarly effective as imipramine in the treatment of depression in outpatients in a 4-week controlled study (Bremner et al, 1984). However, toxic side effects (dry mouth and sedation) was more frequent in imipramine patients.

4.6.AR Nortriptyline

4.6.AR.1 Depression

a) Most studies have indicated that there are no significant differences between nortriptyline and other antidepressants in the tricyclic category such as amitriptyline (Rose et al, 1965; Leahy & Martin, 1967; Mendels, 1968; Martin & Malitz & Kanzler, 1971), desipramine (Levy, 1966; Arief, 1966; Stewart & Mitchell, 1968; Haider, 1968), protriptyline (1966), and imipramine (Kessell & Holt, 1970).

4.6.AR.2 Efficacy

a) The effects of imipramine and nortriptyline on left ventricular function and blood pressure were studied in a crossover study of 20 patients with ventricular arrhythmias. Ten consecutive patients with more than 30 ventricular premature depolarizations (VPDs) were treated with imipramine starting at 1 milligram/kilogram/day, increased by 1 mg/kg every second day, to a maximum dose of 5 mg/kg/day. Nortriptyline was administered to 10 similar patients beginning at 1 milligram/kilogram/day, increased by 0.5 mg/kg/day every third day to a maximum of 3.5 mg/kg/day. The 2 groups were similar in terms of age, sex distribution, etiology of heart disease and NYHA functional class. At a mean effective dose, imipramine suppressed VPDs by 74%; VPDs were suppressed 85% by a maximally effective nortriptyline dose. Ejection fraction was slightly decreased with imipramine (from 33% to 31%) and with nortriptyline (from 43% to 31%). Decreases in orthostatic systolic pressure were greater following imipramine (26 mmHg) than after nortriptyline. No significant change in supine systolic or diastolic blood pressure was noted after either drug. No significant change in standing systolic blood pressure and daily dose, plasma drug concentration, or NYHA functional class was demonstrated with either drug. Changes in standing systolic pressure were related to patient age with older patients experiencing greater reductions in systolic pressure following administration of both drugs. To determine if there are differences between imipramine and nortriptyline in terms of antiarrhythmic efficacy, studies in cardiac patients who crossed-over, and randomized to double-blind treatment are needed (Giardina et al, 1985).

4.6.AS Paroxetine

Anxiety

Bipolar disorder, depressed phase

Depression

4.6.AS.1 Anxiety

a) In an uncontrolled trial, paroxetine and imipramine were as effective as 2-chlorodesmethyldiazepam, a benzodiazepine used for treating generalized anxiety disorder (Rocca et al, 1997). Patients (n=81) received paroxetine 20 milligrams (or imipramine 50 to 100 mg/day, or 2-chlorodesmethyldiazepam 3 to 6 mg/day for 8 weeks. Over the first 2 weeks with 2-chlorodesmethyldiazepam showed greater improvement; however, after 4 weeks for paroxetine and 8 weeks for imipramine, the antidepressants were more effective. Adverse effects consisted primarily of anticholinergic effects with imipramine, nausea for paroxetine, and drowsiness for 2-chlorodesmethyldiazepam. Larger, blinded, controlled studies are needed to confirm the results of this study.

4.6.AS.2 Bipolar disorder, depressed phase

a) Neither paroxetine nor imipramine was more effective than placebo in treating BIPOLAR DEPRESSION in patients who were stabilized on lithium if their serum lithium levels were above 0.8 milliequivalents per liter (meq/L). However, patients with serum lithium concentration was less than 0.8 meq/L showed greater improvement with 8 weeks of antidepressant treatment than with placebo treatment (p=0.05 for paroxetine, p=0.04 for imipramine). In a double-blind study, patients were randomized according to serum lithium concentration and then randomized to receive paroxetine (n=35), imipramine (n=35), or placebo (n=43) for 10 weeks. Among all completers of the study, therapeutic response (Hamilton depression scale score < 16) was achieved by 56%, 48%, and 54% of patients receiving paroxetine, imipramine, and placebo, respectively. Reasons for study discontinuation were 1 patient in the paroxetine group (3%), 12 in the imipramine group (30%), and 12 in the placebo group (12%). No patient in the paroxetine group experienced induction to mania, whereas 3 patients in the imipramine and 1 treated with placebo developed treatment-emergent mania (Nemeroff et al, 2001).

4.6.AS.3 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Paroxetine, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, and imipramine appear to be similarly effective in the treatment of major depression. The decision as to which drug to use should be based on patient-related characteristics (e.g., anxiety disorders, sleep disturbances, cardiovascular disease), potential drug interactions, and side effects.

b) Paroxetine, imipramine, and placebo were compared in 120 outpatients with moderate-to-severe major depression (Feighner & Boyer, 1989). Following a 4- to 14-day single-blind, placebo washout period, patients were assigned to either paroxetine, imipramine, or placebo for 6 weeks. The dose of paroxetine and imipramine could be increased to a maximum of 50 milligrams and 275 milligrams daily, respectively. Paroxetine was superior to placebo in 5 of 11 depression rating scales (HAMD scale, Raskin depression scale, MADRS, CGI scale, Covi anxiety scale); no improvement was observed compared to placebo in the 56-item Symptom Checklist (SCL-56). Imipramine was also statistically superior to placebo on the HAMD, Raskin, MADRS, and the CGI scale, but not on the Covi anxiety scale or the SCL-56. The only outcome that improved to a significantly greater degree with paroxetine was the HAMD total score. A high number of patients dropped out of therapy (approximately 50%), which limits evaluation of efficacy. If only the patients completing the study are compared, imipramine and paroxetine appear to be equally effective. Based upon the number of dropouts due to adverse effects, paroxetine appeared to be better tolerated than imipramine: 10% versus 30%. The most common adverse effects with paroxetine were sedation and gastrointestinal effects, whereas anticholinergic adverse effects (dry mouth, constipation) were the most common with imipramine. However, a detailed incidence of all adverse effects was not reported, making it difficult to fully compare these agents.

c) Paroxetine was more effective than placebo in the short-term (6-week) treatment of depression; however, it was less effective than imipramine. The study was double-blinded and 122 patients with a major depressive disorder were randomized to receive either paroxetine (dose range 20 to 50 milligrams/day), imipramine (dose range 65 to 150 milligrams/day) or placebo. At the end of the study, the imipramine-treated patients demonstrated consistent improvement both objective and subjective, on all depression rating scales when compared to paroxetine. Overall there was a 48% response rate to imipramine, a 48% response rate to paroxetine, and a 33% response rate to placebo (Peselow et al, 1989).

d) A multicenter, double-blind, placebo-controlled evaluation of paroxetine and imipramine in the outpatient treatment of major depression was conducted (Dunbar et al, 1991). After a 4- to 14-day placebo run-in period, patients were randomized to either paroxetine, imipramine, or placebo. The paroxetine group, imipramine group, and placebo group had 240, 237, and 240 patients, respectively. Dosage adjustment, if necessary, was done at 2-week intervals over the six-week treatment phase. Drop-out rates were high for all groups; paroxetine 42.5%, imipramine 36.3%, and placebo 53.6%. Lack of efficacy (10%, 7%, and 33%, respectively) and side effects (23%, 36%, and 9%, respectively) were the most common reasons stated for dropping out of the study. Imipramine and paroxetine were equally superior to placebo in terms of efficacy. However, paroxetine therapy was associated with less sedation, cardiovascular side effects, and anticholinergic side effects.

e) Newer clinical trials have continued to support the previous findings that imipramine and paroxetine are similarly effective in the treatment of major depression. The major differences between the two compounds are the frequency of side effects, types of side effects, and the frequency of patients withdrawing from the clinical trials secondary to side effects from the study medications. Paroxetine therapy is better tolerated and associated with lower withdrawal rates (Ohrberg et al, 1992; Feighner & Arminen et al, 1994).

f) A 6-week, double-blind study was continued for 1 year by crossing over all patients who had failed to respond to treatment with the other drug (Peselow et al, 1989a). Patients first treated with placebo were crossed over to paroxetine, while a total of 15 patients initially treated with paroxetine switched to imipramine, while 10 imipramine patients were crossed over to paroxetine. Of the patients who initially failed on paroxetine, 73% responded to imipramine, while 50% of the patients who initially failed on imipramine responded to paroxetine. Similar studies have shown paroxetine to be at least as effective as imipramine with fewer side effects (Fabre, 1992; Cohn & Wilcox, 1992; Shrivastava et al, 1992; Feighner & Boyer, 1989).

4.6.AT Phenzelzine

Depression

Posttraumatic stress disorder

4.6.AT.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Phenzelzine and imipramine have been found to be equally effective in treating depression and anxiety. Imipramine was more effective in the treatment of hostility and paranoia, whereas phenzelzine was more effective in the treatment of panic attacks (Davidson et al, 1981; Davidson et al, 1987; Isberg, 1981). Phenzelzine therapy is superior to imipramine in the treatment of atypical depression (Liebowitz et al, 1984; Stewart et al, 1989; Quitkin et al, 1988; Quitkin et al, 1990; Quitkin et al, 1993; McGrath et al, 1991). In one case report, phenzelzine treatment was found to relieve obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) when treatment with amitriptyline and imipramine had failed.

b) Imipramine (median, 150 milligrams daily) had comparable efficacy with phenzelzine (median, 75 milligram daily) in the treatment of major depression in a 5-week, controlled, outpatient study. However, phenzelzine was reported to be superior to imipramine in patients also presenting with panic attacks (Davidson et al, 1987).

c) Phenzelzine, imipramine, and placebo were compared in a double-blind study in 74 patients with probable depression (Quitkin et al, 1988). Sixty patients completed the study. Dropout was similar among treatment groups: 28% of the placebo-treated group, 50% of imipramine group, and 71% of the phenzelzine group were dropped out.

responders. Patients with reactive mood and only one associated symptom appeared to get more benefit with. During the next 6 weeks of the study, 41% of the placebo patients, 21% of the imipramine patients, and 7% of patients experienced a relapse, despite continued drug therapy. Patients with definite atypical depression attacks responded well to drug therapy; after 6 weeks, response was observed in 60% of the placebo patient imipramine patients, and 64% of the phenelzine patients. Patients with definite atypical depression without attacks did not respond as well; after 6 weeks, response was observed in 7% of the placebo group, 44% in the group, and 83% in the phenelzine group.

d) A comparison of the results of one study were contrasted with previously published data from 180 patients with depression (Quitkin et al, 1988; Quitkin et al, 1989). Both imipramine and phenelzine were equally effective in simple mood reactive depressive patients. Patients with atypical depression tended to respond better to phenelzine and 66% that had failed imipramine therapy responded with phenelzine therapy.

e) Replication of a previous study (Quitkin et al, 1988) substantiated the previous finding that phenelzine is superior to imipramine and placebo in the treatment of atypical depression (Quitkin et al, 1990). This study used the same minor changes in dose schedule as in the 1988 study and included 90 patients with atypical depression which included in the previous study population. Comparison of both groups found no significant difference between the population.

f) A six-week comparison of imipramine, phenelzine, and placebo was conducted in 194 nonmelancholic depressed patients with features of atypical depression (Stewart et al, 1989). The overall response rates were 71% with phenelzine (73 milligrams/day), 48% with imipramine (mean dose was 265 milligrams/day), and 26% with placebo (mean dose 150 mg/day). Patients with dysrhythmic disorder tended to respond better than those with major depression. A relationship was found in the placebo group between response and chronicity of the disorder.

g) Double-blind trials demonstrated that some patients may require chronic treatment with antidepressants to maintain remission from atypical depression. Patients who improved after 6 months of imipramine therapy were randomized to either placebo or their same imipramine dose for a further 6 months in a double-blind fashion. A similar double-blind trial was done in patients who had been maintained successfully on phenelzine. In the imipramine trial (n=32), the recurrence rate of 87% in the placebo treated patients was significantly higher (p=0.001) than those continued on imipramine (41%) and placebo (47%) was not significantly different. However, in the phenelzine trial (n=32), the recurrence rate of 87% in the placebo treated patients was significantly higher (p=0.001) than those continued on phenelzine (23%). Comparison of the results between imipramine and phenelzine is limited by the absence of blinding and baseline differences, with earlier onset and longer history of depressive illness in the phenelzine group compared to the high recurrence in those switched from phenelzine to placebo (Stewart et al, 1997).

4.6.AT.2 Posttraumatic stress disorder

a) A double-blind, placebo-controlled study of 60 male veterans found phenelzine to be better than imipramine in the treatment of combat-induced post-traumatic stress disorder (Kosten et al, 1991). Patients were treated with an average dose of 150 milligrams imipramine and 68 milligrams phenelzine for 8 weeks. Dropout rates were high in all three groups: 60.9% with imipramine, and 21.1% with placebo, 60.9% with imipramine, and 21.1% with phenelzine. A common reason being failure to return for clinic visits (50%, 50%, and 25%, respectively). At the end of 8 weeks, phenelzine produced greater improvement than placebo and phenelzine was demonstrated more effective in improving Impact of Event Scale scores and post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms.

4.6.AU Reboxetine

4.6.AU.1 Depression

a) Reboxetine exhibited similar efficacy to, better tolerability than, and earlier onset of effect than imipramine in the treatment of major depression in a short-term study (6 weeks) (Berzowski et al, 1997). Patients (n=256) were randomized to either reboxetine 4 milligrams (mg) twice daily or imipramine 50 mg twice daily with the evening dose increased to 75 mg in the last weeks of treatment. According to scores on the Hamilton Depression rating scale (HAM-D), response rates for reboxetine or imipramine were 68.5% and 56.2% (statistically significant difference) respectively, and at the last assessment were 52% and 45.5%, respectively. On the Clinical Global Impression Severity of Illness and Improvement scales (CGI-SI and CGI-GI), the percentage of reboxetine-treated patients classified as "normal" increased more rapidly than the group treated with imipramine, indicating an earlier onset of response. The Montgomery-Åsberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) demonstrated no difference between the two treatment groups. In the study, adverse events described as probably or definitely related to treatment were 31.9% and 39% for patients treated with reboxetine or imipramine, respectively.

4.6.AV Ritanserin

4.6.AV.1 Depression

a) Ritanserin, a serotonin-2 antagonist, was compared with imipramine in a double-blind, placebo-controlled study in patients with mild chronic depression (dysthymic disorder). At the end of the study imipramine was slightly more effective than ritanserin based on the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale and the Zerssen Self-Rating Scale but was associated with a higher frequency of side effects and a greater attrition rate (Bakish et al, 1994).

4.6.AW Rolipram

4.6.AW.1 Depression

a) Imipramine was superior to rolipram in patients with major depressive disorder in one double-blind study (Stewart et al, 1989).

4.6.AX Sertraline

Depression

Dysthymia

Mixed anxiety and depressive disorder

4.6.AX.1 Depression

a) More than 50% of chronically depressed patients who were nonresponders to an antidepressant responded to an antidepressant of another class. Patients who had completed a randomized, 12-week, double-blind trial of sertraline or imipramine for treatment of chronic depression and had failed to respond were switched to the other for 12 more weeks of double-blind treatment. Fifty-one patients were switched from imipramine to sertraline and 51 sertraline to imipramine. Mean dosages at study end were 221 milligrams (mg) per day for imipramine and 160 mg for sertraline. Ten percent of those switched to sertraline and 25% of those switched to imipramine dropped out. Drop-out rate was mainly due to intolerable adverse effects of imipramine. Those who switched to imipramine had significant reductions in 3 adverse effects but significant increases in 8 adverse effects, whereas those who switched to sertraline had significant decreases in 6 adverse effects and significant increases in one:

	SERTRALINE TO IMPRAMINE	IMPAMINE TO SERTRALINE
DECREASED INCIDENCE		
	Insomnia	Dry mouth
	Diarrhea	Somnolence
	Abdominal Pain	Increased sweating
		Constipation
		Dizziness
		Urinary complaints
INCREASED INCIDENCE		
	Dry mouth	Insomnia
	Increased sweating	
	Constipation	
	Dizziness	
	Tremor	
	Abnormal taste	
	Increased appetite	
	Urinary complaints	

b) The intent-to-treat response rates were 60% for sertraline and 44% for imipramine (p=0.03). Among completers, response rates were 63% and 55%, respectively (p=0.16). After averaging across the study weeks and adjusting for baseline value, there were no significant differences between groups in outcome improvement over time did not differ for the 2 groups (Thase et al, 2002).

c) In a double-blind study of major depression with or without dysthymia, response to sertraline was highest in women and response with imipramine was highest in men. Patients meeting DSM III-R criteria for chronic major depression

400 women) were randomized to 12-week treatment with sertraline or imipramine in a 2:1 ratio. Both drugs were given at 50 milligrams (mg) daily and titrated to a maximum of 300 mg for imipramine and 200 mg for sertraline. Although response to sertraline was similar to imipramine, a statistically significant gender and treatment interaction was observed. The highest response rates occurred in women taking sertraline and in men taking imipramine. More women responded to sertraline (147/260; 57%) than to imipramine (61/133; 46%); and more men responded to imipramine (43/69; 62%) than to sertraline (73/161; 45%). Gender differences also occurred in the types of adverse events reported, and more women in the imipramine group than in the sertraline group; however, withdrawal rates by men were not significantly different between the two groups. A significant interaction was also seen between menopausal status and treatment. Withdrawal from treatment was highest in premenopausal women taking imipramine and postmenopausal women taking sertraline. The mechanism of these gender differences is unknown, and may relate to interaction of female sex hormones and serotonin receptors (Thase et al, 2000).

4.6.AX.2 Dysthymia

a) Sertraline and imipramine are equally effective for the treatment of dysthymia; however, sertraline is better. In a randomized trial, sertraline and imipramine were compared and evaluated in a group of 416 patients with recurrent dysthymia. Outcome was based on response based on clinical evaluation (Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression, Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale, Hopkins Symptom Checklist) and patient-rated version of the Inventory of Dependent Personality Symptoms. Improvement of scores of Clinical Global Impressions of 1 or 2 (very much or much improved) decreased significantly for sertraline, 64% for imipramine, and 44% for placebo. The mean dose of sertraline required was 89.5 milligrams (mg) for sertraline and 159.7 milligrams for imipramine (Thase et al, 1996).

b) Of the 416 patients described in the study above by Thase et al, 355 had completed the Tridimensional Personality Questionnaire before and after treatment, and the results revealed that temperament scores improved with treatment in dysthymia. At baseline, temperament in dysthymic patients was abnormal, with higher mean harm avoidance scores on the Tridimensional Personality Questionnaire than that reported for a community population. After 12 weeks of treatment, harm avoidance scores decreased significantly, with no significant differences between the sertraline, imipramine, and placebo groups. Scores decreased for those achieving remission and those who did not; however, decreases were significant only for those achieving remission. Thus, improvement in temperament was mainly related to disease improvement regardless of treatment. Results revealed some gender and treatment effects, and further studies using multiple measures, rather than the measure used in this study, would be needed to determine treatment effects on temperament and personality (Thase et al, 2000).

4.6.AX.3 Mixed anxiety and depressive disorder

a) Imipramine and sertraline were equally effective in the treatment of anxiety and depression in patients with mixed anxiety and depressive disorder and major depressive disorder. In a randomized, multicenter, double-blind study, patients with full or partial mixed anxiety and depressive disorder with concurrent major depressive disorder with a minimum of 4 panic attacks in the 4 weeks prior to baseline Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) score of at least 20 received either sertraline (n=69; 100 to 200 mg, mean dose 144.2 mg/day) or imipramine (n=69; 100 to 200 mg, mean dose 144.2 mg/day). Sertraline was given at an initial dose of 25 mg/day for 1 week, then titrated to 50 mg/day for 4 weeks, at which time the dose could be increased to 100 mg, if needed. The initial dose of imipramine was 25 mg/day, increased at weekly intervals to 100 mg, and 150 mg. If needed, the dose could be increased again to 200 mg or reduced to 100 mg. Primary outcome measures were weekly panic attack frequency and MADRS score. Sertraline and imipramine produced similar results. The mean baseline (28.5 vs 28.7, respectively) to endpoint (11.1 vs 11.2, respectively) total MADRS score and the mean baseline (7.1 vs 7, respectively) to endpoint (2.9 vs 2.3, respectively) weekly panic attack frequency. However, sertraline-treated patients reported significantly fewer adverse effects as compared with imipramine-treated patients (22% vs 28%, respectively; p=0.005) and fewer discontinued treatment (11% vs 22%, respectively; p=0.04). Nausea and diarrhea were reported more frequently with sertraline treatment, while dizziness, dry mouth, sweating, tremor, and constipation were reported more frequently with imipramine administration (Lepola et al, 2003).

4.6.AY Sotalol

4.6.AY.1 Ventricular arrhythmia

a) Sotalol has been shown to be superior to procainamide, quinidine, mexiletine, propafenone, pirlenone, and flecainide in its ability to prevent death and the recurrence of ventricular arrhythmias in selected patients with ventricular tachycardia. Patients with a history of ventricular fibrillation or flutter with inducible, sustained ventricular tachycardia were randomized to study drugs in random order until one was predicted effective by either Holter monitor assessment or programmed electrical stimulation (PES). Long-term therapy with the first effective drug was followed to one of three primary endpoints: sudden death, or unmonitored syncope. By PES, sotalol was predicted effective in 35% of a total compared to 16% for all other drugs. Although not significant, Holter assessment predicted sotalol effective for ventricular tachycardia suppression in 41% versus 45% for all other drugs combined. After two years of follow-up on chronic therapy, pooled data for all the other drugs, sotalol had the lowest mortality rate (13% to 22%), lowest VT recurrence rate (38% compared to 75% to 80%). Since there was no control group, it is unknown if sotalol improved survival or identified a population with a good prognosis (Prod Info Betapace(R), 1996; Mascheroni et al, 1989b).

4.6.AZ Tranylcypromine

4.6.AZ.1 Depression

a) Tranylcypromine is superior to imipramine in the treatment of patients with anergic bipolar depression (Hirschman et al, 1989).

1991). Fifty-six patients with bipolar depression (with 73% meeting the criteria for anergic depression) were randomized to treatment with tranylcypromine 20 to 80 milligrams or imipramine 100 to 400 milligrams/day in a double-blind study. The mean dose at the end of six weeks was 36.8 mg of tranylcypromine and 245.5 mg of imipramine. Anergic bipolar depression who did not respond to therapy in the initial phase (n=16) were then enrolled in a study with the same doses of each drug (Thase et al, 1992). Nine of the 12 patients who were switched to tranylcypromine to therapy and only one out of four patients switched to imipramine improved. Hypomania and mania developed, but occurred earlier (5.8 weeks vs 9.2 weeks) in those receiving imipramine.

b) In a double-blind study of 137 patients with psychotic depression, tranylcypromine 10 milligrams three times daily administered for an average of 22 weeks. Patients were also randomly allocated to receive phenelzine or imipramine. After 10 weeks of therapy, 47% of tranylcypromine patients were improved, and after termination of the study 44% were improved. Tranylcypromine was slightly less effective than imipramine, but more effective than phenelzine (Haydu et al, 1981).

4.6.BA Trazodone

4.6.BA.1 Depression

a) Trazodone is not therapeutically superior to imipramine, but its side effects are less troublesome (Fabre and Feighner, 1980; Gerner et al, 1980; Escobar et al, 1980; Workman & Short, 1993a; Gershon, 1984). Anticholinergic effects occurred more frequently in patients treated with imipramine than those treated with trazodone in a multi-center study (Newton, 1980).

b) A multicenter trial involving 379 patients treated with trazodone 200 to 600 milligrams (mg) per day or imipramine 100 to 300 mg/day or placebo for 21 to 24 days demonstrated imipramine and trazodone to be of equal efficacy (Gershon, 1980). Another study involving 28 patients with endogenous depression receiving an average trazodone dose of 300 mg/day or an average imipramine dose of 140 mg/day for 28 days also demonstrated equal effectiveness between the two treatments (Feighner et al, 1979). The results of a double-blind study involving 45 patients suggested that trazodone 200 to 600 mg/day produced more rapid and prolonged improvement than did imipramine 100 to 300 mg/day (Feighner, 1980). In a double-blind study of 40 patients with endogenous depression, imipramine (maximum daily dose 300 mg) produced more improvement than placebo, but trazodone (maximum daily dose 600 mg) produced more improvement than imipramine (Escobar et al, 1980).

c) Seventy-four patients were enrolled in a nonrandomized study with placebo baseline treatment to evaluate the efficacy of imipramine, alprazolam, and trazodone in the treatment of agoraphobia (Charney et al, 1986). Twenty-nine patients were assigned to imipramine, 28 to trazodone, and 26 to alprazolam treatment. All patients were treated with placebo for 2 weeks and then blindly switched to active treatment for clinical response and side effects. Both imipramine and alprazolam were effective in controlling the agoraphobia, however, alprazolam had a faster onset of action. Clinical responses were similar in patients treated with imipramine and alprazolam and were generally not observed in imipramine-treated patients until the second week of therapy. Trazodone therapy was considered not effective in the treatment of agoraphobia.

d) In a double-blind controlled study, imipramine and placebo were compared with trazodone in the treatment of patients with primary depression. The mean doses received during this study were 6.26 capsules/day of 50 mg trazodone, 6.37 capsules/day of imipramine 25 mg or 10.67 capsules/day of placebo. Three of 17 patients in the imipramine group experienced a 50% reduction in the Hamilton total score on or before day 7 of therapy. On day 14, 8 patients in the imipramine group achieved this level of improvement. Of the imipramine-treated patients, no one in the group had achieved improvement at day 7. However, by day 14, eight patients in the group had also experienced at least a 50% reduction in Hamilton score. There were no significant differences in the subjects tested through the structured clinical interview. Clinical global impression scores indicated a significant difference between trazodone and placebo in the proportion of improved patients at the end of 28 days. Global ward behavior indicated that trazodone was significantly (p less than 0.01) better than placebo for ten symptoms: inwardly distressed behavior and difficulty in sleeping. It was significantly (p less than 0.05) better for tired, low energy behavior and anxious, worried, afraid behavior and concern for bodily health. Trazodone was slightly better than placebo (p less than 0.10) for irritable, annoyed, impatient or angry behavior. Drowsiness was the most frequent side effect experienced by trazodone-treated patients. Anticholinergic effects were the most common effects in the imipramine group (Feighner et al, 1980).

e) Ten institutions participated in a multi-center, double-blind, placebo-controlled evaluation of either trazodone or imipramine in 263 in-patients. Inclusion criteria included primary depression of the endogenous type, minimum score of 17 on the Hamilton Rating Scale for depression (HAM-D) and at least 7 of 21 symptoms in 3 of 5 categories of the symptom profile. Initial doses were 200 mg and 100 mg daily for trazodone or imipramine. At the end of 28 days, 113 patients were included in the analysis. Lack of efficacy or side effects. Drop out rates were 37% each for imipramine and trazodone and 58% for placebo. Both trazodone and imipramine were statistically superior to placebo in improvement of HAM-D and clinical global impression. There was no significant difference between trazodone and imipramine. Both trazodone and placebo caused statistically significantly fewer anticholinergic side effects, 19% and 14% compared with imipramine 52% (Gershon, 1981).

4.6.BB Trimipramine

4.6.BB.1 Depression

a) One study showed trimipramine to be slightly superior to imipramine. Thirty-nine inpatients with endogenous depression received either imipramine or trimipramine increased over 14 days to a maximum of 300 milligrams at bedtime. There were fewer adverse reactions (tremor, drowsiness, insomnia and dry mouth) than with imipramine, but nasal congestion occurred more frequently during trimipramine therapy (Rifkin et al, 1980).

b) Imipramine was compared with trimipramine in 44 patients with psychotic depression (average duration of illness 10 years) (Burns, 1965). Trimipramine was administered in doses of 25 mg three times daily for 1 week followed by 50 mg three times daily for 2 more weeks. Overall recovery was reported in 18 patients receiving trimipramine (in 8.7 days) and 10 patients receiving imipramine (8.9 days). In addition, anxiety and insomnia responded much better in patients receiving trimipramine. Similar results have been reported by others (Salzmann, 1965).

4.6.BC Tryptophan**4.6.BC.1 Depression**

a) L-tryptophan 6 grams and imipramine 150 milligrams/day were effective in relieving endogenous and non-depression in 59 patients. Imipramine improved agitation, while L-tryptophan improved work and activities in endogenous depression. Imipramine therapy improved suicidal feelings in patients with non-endogenous depression (al, 1979).

4.6.BD Venlafaxine**4.6.BD.1 Depression**

a) Venlafaxine and imipramine resulted in similar improvement in depression with melancholia in hospitalized weeks; however, venlafaxine produced an earlier response than imipramine on 1 test (Benkert et al, 1996). The dose of venlafaxine was rapidly increased from 75 to 375 milligrams(mg)/day; this dose was continued until it then decreased to 150 mg/day. The dose of imipramine was increased from 50 to 200 mg/day over 5 days and at this dose for the remainder of the study. The time to a 50% response rate was similar for the Montgomery-Depression Rating Scale (MADRS), but for the 21-item Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D), the time was 1 week earlier with venlafaxine than imipramine ($p=0.036$). Adverse effects were reported in 69% and 76% treated with venlafaxine and imipramine, respectively. Statistically significant differences in dry mouth and tremor for imipramine (p less than 0.05) and nausea for venlafaxine ($p=0.011$). While this study enrolled 167 patients than planned, and only 115 patients completed the 6-week study. Additional studies are needed to provide evidence for a more rapid onset of effect with venlafaxine.

b) Venlafaxine was found to have antidepressant efficacy comparable to imipramine in outpatients with moderate depression. Venlafaxine was compared to imipramine in a 6 week, double-blind placebo controlled study in 2 depression of moderate to marked severity. Baseline and weekly efficacy measurements were obtained utilizing Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D), the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) Global Impression severity and improvement scales (CGI). The mean maximal total daily dose of venlafaxine was 48 milligrams and the mean maximal total daily dose of imipramine was 176 milligrams and +/- 56 mg. All patients were administered in a three times a day schedule after meals. Venlafaxine showed a significant clinical advantage over imipramine at the week 6 endpoint on the Ham-D total score. It was noted that this effect was probably due to the attrition rate for imipramine as compared to venlafaxine. Attrition rates due to adverse effects were 25% and 10% for imipramine and venlafaxine respectively. Nausea, sedation, dry mouth, and dizziness were the most prominent adverse effects for venlafaxine (Schweizer et al, 1994).

4.6.BE Viloxazine

Depression

Nocturnal enuresis

4.6.BE.1 Depression

a) SUMMARY: Several controlled studies have reported the equivalent efficacy of viloxazine 150 to 450 milligrams daily compared to imipramine 75 to 225 milligrams daily in the treatment of depression in inpatients and outpatients (Santonastasio et al, 1977; McEvoy et al, 1982; Battistini et al, 1980; Nair & Schwartz, 1982; Floru et al, 1976; Baylis et al, 1976). Side effects in some of these reports, primarily anticholinergic, were less with viloxazine; however, others have reported similar incidence as imipramine (McEvoy et al, 1982).

b) At least 2 studies have reported a similar clinical response to placebo as with viloxazine and imipramine in neurosis (Petrie et al, 1980; Guy et al, 1982). These data do not necessarily indicate the inefficacy of viloxazine in this patient group, but rather reflect the methodological problems of placebo responsiveness in neurotic patients. Side effects may also explain the reported early onset of effects with viloxazine in some clinical studies, both neurotic and endogenous depression.

c) Better scores were reported on the Hamilton Depression Scale in patients treated with viloxazine 50 milligrams three times/day compared to those treated with imipramine 25 milligrams three times/day (Elwin, 1980). The double-blind study involved 59 depressed patients. However, this data was not reproduced in 40 depressed patients treated with viloxazine 50 mg/day or imipramine 150 mg/day (Battistini et al, 1980), nor in 28 depressed patients (Santonastasio et al, 1976).

d) Viloxazine was compared with imipramine in the treatment of endogenous depression in a double-blind study (McEvoy et al, 1982). Patients were randomly assigned to viloxazine 150 to 450 milligrams (mg) daily or to 225 milligrams daily (10 patients in each group). Flurazepam or chloral hydrate were given for sleep as needed. Global impressions indicated that 7 viloxazine patients (70%) and 7 imipramine patients (70%) improved during the study. Patients receiving viloxazine and 3 receiving imipramine remained unchanged and 1 patient receiving viloxazine and 1 receiving imipramine improved. The Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale for Depression indicated improvement with both drugs with no differences between them. Imipramine had a faster onset of action for depression (1 week versus 2 weeks). The Hamilton Psychiatric Rating Scale for Anxiety also showed similar degrees of improvement, however, viloxazine had a more rapid onset (1 week versus 2 weeks). Viloxazine had no effect on improving sleep disturbances as determined by the Hamilton Depression Scale, a

compared with other reports. Side effects were similar for both drugs with 1 patient in each group developing treatment (both patients had abnormal EKGs at initiation of treatment).

e) Viloxazine and imipramine has similar efficacy in a 5-week study involving 49 patients with endogenous depression (Schwartz, 1982). Viloxazine was initiated in oral doses of 50 milligrams (mg) three times a day with meals, with the first being given at 5 p.m. Imipramine was given initially in doses of 25 milligrams orally three times a day in a similar dose was increased starting in the second week of the study to a maximum of viloxazine 400 mg daily and imipramine 150 mg daily by the fourth and fifth weeks. The mean daily dosage by the fifth week of the study was 380 mg daily for viloxazine and 192 mg daily for imipramine. Both drugs resulted in improvement based upon Clinical Global Impressions, the Scale for Depression, the Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety, and the Brief Psychiatric Rating Scale. Based upon Clinical Global Impressions, 12 of 24 viloxazine patients were very much improved, with 5 much improved; 13 of 25 imipramine patients were very much improved, with 7 being much improved. Side effects occurred more frequently in imipramine patients. Side effects of dry mouth, constipation, blurred vision, sweating, and sedation occurred more frequently in imipramine patients. However, nausea and vomiting occurred only in viloxazine patients.

4.6.BE.2 Nocturnal enuresis

a) Viloxazine was evaluated in the treatment of nocturnal enuresis in a controlled study with imipramine and children (Attenburrow et al, 1984). The drugs were randomly assigned for a 7-week period. Viloxazine 100 mg bedtime was administered to children between 5 and 10 years of age. Imipramine was given in doses of 50 mg three times a day. At week 7, significantly more dry nights occurred with both viloxazine and imipramine as compared with placebo with no statistically significant difference between the two active agents. Toxicity was greater in the imipramine group consisting of, primarily anticholinergic effects. These data suggest the efficacy of viloxazine in enuretic children. Viloxazine prove to be a useful alternative to imipramine in children who develop side effects during imipramine therapy.

4.6.BE.3 Adverse Effects

a) The most frequent side effects associated with viloxazine therapy are nausea and vomiting (Elwan, 1980; Elwan, 1980), and the incidence of anticholinergic side effects is much lower than with imipramine.
b) Viloxazine appears to cause less impairment of psychomotor performance than imipramine. The driving performance was tested after multiple doses of viloxazine 50 milligrams three times/day, imipramine 25 milligrams three times/day or nothing. The group treated with imipramine demonstrated significantly worse performance in the gap acceptance task responses. There was no effect on driving skills noted 2 hours after the first dose of each drug (Elwan, 1977).

4.6.BF Zimeldine

Agoraphobia

Depression

4.6.BF.1 Agoraphobia

a) A double-blind comparison of zimeldine, imipramine, and placebo in the treatment of 44 patients with agoraphobia revealed that zimeldine was better, (not statistically significant), than imipramine and placebo therapy (Hiramatsu, 1986). In fact, the imipramine therapy was not considered to be superior to placebo. Previous positive results (Mavissakalian & Perel, 1985; Cohen et al, 1984) would indicate that the dose of imipramine used in this study (150 mg/day) or the group of patients studied is not indicative of all patients with agoraphobia and panic disorder. If further studies are conducted the utilization of zimeldine in the treatment of agoraphobia should be limited to patients who do not respond to imipramine.

4.6.BF.2 Depression

a) Zimeldine 100 milligrams orally twice a day was compared with oral imipramine 50 milligrams three times a day in the treatment of primary major depressive disorders (endogenous) in 95 patients in a controlled study (Hiramatsu, 1986). During the 4-week study, zimeldine produced similar antidepressant activity as imipramine as evaluated on the Hamilton Depression Scale. Zimeldine was reported more effective in patients over the age of 40, patients whose initial response to other antidepressants was poor, patients with mild-to-moderate depression and patients who had previously failed to show an antidepressant response to other antidepressants. Zimeldine was less toxic than imipramine, primarily with regard to anticholinergic effects.
b) Zimeldine demonstrated significantly lower Hamilton Depression scale total scores compared with imipramine. Forty depressed patients were administered zimeldine, imipramine, and matching placebo in doses of 50 milligrams three times a day. Fewer adverse effects were reported in the zimeldine group (Merideth & Feighner, 1983).

4.6.BF.3 Adverse Effects

a) Zimeldine did not differ in psychomotor or cognitive function tests in 18 healthy volunteers. In a double-blind fashion, each subject received zimeldine 100 milligrams, imipramine 50 milligrams, or matching placebo. A significant difference was not exhibited between active drugs (Ferris et al, 1980).
b) Zimeldine in therapeutic doses (200 milligrams/day) produces more pronounced anticholinergic effects, as measured by accommodation width and salivary secretion rate, than imipramine in therapeutic doses (75 milligrams/day) (Merideth & Feighner, 1981).

6.0 References

1. AMA Department of Drugs: AMA drug evaluations, subscription, Winter, American Medical Association, Chicago, IL, 1992.
2. AMA Department on Drugs: AMA Drug Evaluations, 4th. American Medical Association, Chicago, IL, 1980.
3. Abernethy DR & Kerzner L: Age effects on alpha-1-acid glycoprotein concentration and imipramine plasma protein binding. *Geriatr Soc* 1984b; 32:705-708.
4. Abernethy DR, Divoll M, Greenblatt DJ, et al: Absolute bioavailability of imipramine: influence of food. *Psychopharm* 83:104-106.
5. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine and desipramine disposition in the elderly. *J Pharmacol Ex* 232:183-232.
6. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 35:792-797.
7. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 1984a; 35:792-797.
8. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 1984c; 35:792-797.
9. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 1984d; 35:792-797.
10. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 1984e; 35:792-797.
11. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 35:792-797.
12. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine disposition in users of oral contraceptive steroids. *Clin Pha* 1984g; 35:792-797.
13. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine-cimetidine interaction: impairment of clearance and enhanced bioavailability. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1984a; 229:702-705.
14. Abernethy DR, Greenblatt DJ, & Shader RI: Imipramine-cimetidine interaction: impairment of clearance and enhanced bioavailability. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1984b; 229:702-705.
15. Absher JR & Bale JF Jr: Aggravation of myasthenia gravis by erythromycin. *J Pediatr* 1991; 119:155-156.
16. Adams SL, Mathews J, & Grammer LC: Drugs that may exacerbate myasthenia gravis. *Ann Emerg Med* 1984; 13:50-53.
17. Agelink MW, Zeit T, Baumann B, et al: In vivo cardiovascular effects of the new atypical neuroleptic sertindole. *Int J Pract* 2001; 5:33-40.
18. Agin HV, Greenblatt IJ, & Agin MJ: A double-blind study of desipramine (Norpramin(R)) with imipramine (Tofranil(R)) in the treatment of depression: psychological observations and crossovers. *Psychosomatics* 1965; 6:320-321.
19. Ahlfors UG: A comparison of amoxapine and imipramine in the treatment of depression in hospitalized patients. *Cu* 30:856-866.
20. Ahman S: Hydralazine and male impotence. *Chest* 1980; 78:2.
21. Aizenberg D, Zemishlany Z, Hermesh H, et al: Painful ejaculation associated with antidepressants in four patients. *Psychopharmacol* 1991; 52:461-463.
22. Alderman CP & Lee PC: Comment: serotonin syndrome associated with combined sertraline-amitriptyline treatment. *Pharmacother* 1996; 30(12):1499-1500.
23. Alderton HR: Imipramine in childhood enuresis: further studies on the relationship of time of administration to effect. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1970; 102:1179.
24. Aldrige SA: Drug-induced sexual dysfunction. *Clin Pharm* 1982; 1:141.
25. Alessi NE, Knight CD, Bergs JT, et al: A double-blind, placebo-controlled study of the effect of imipramine on TRH-urgency in healthy men. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 1992; 17:223-229.
26. Allen MJ, Oliver SD, Newgreen MW, et al: Pharmacodynamic effect of continuous vs intermittent dosing of dofenetilid. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 2002; 53:59-65.
27. Allman P: Drug treatment of emotionalism following brain damage. *J R Soc Med* 1992; 85:423-424.
28. Amery A, Verhies W, Croonenberghs J, et al: Double-blind crossover study of a new vasodilator-prazosin - in the treatment of hypertension. *Excerpta Medica International Congress Series* 1974; 331:100.
29. Amin MM, Ban TA, & Lehmann HE: Nomifensine in the treatment of depression: a report on the Canadian part of a study. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1978b; 14:35-37.
30. Amin MM, Ban TA, & Pecknold JC: Nomifensine in the treatment of depression: a standard-controlled clinical study. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1978a; 14:37-39.
31. Amin MM, Ban TA, Lehmann HE, et al: Doxepin and imipramine in the treatment of depression: a double-blind crossover study with EKG recordings. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1978; 14:39-42.
32. Amsterdam JD & Maislin G: Effect of erythromycin on tricyclic antidepressant metabolism. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1986; 6:484-488.
33. Amsterdam JD, Kaplan M, Potter L, et al: Adinazolam, a new triazolobenzodiazepine, and imipramine in the treatment of depressive disorder. *Psychopharmacology* 1986; 88:484-488.
34. Ananth JV: Exacerbation of psychopathology during treatment: etiology. *Compr Psychiatry* 1973; 14:563.
35. Andersch S, Rosenberg NK, Kullingsjo H, et al: Efficacy and safety of alprazolam, imipramine and placebo in the treatment of a Scandinavian multicenter study. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1991; 365:18-27.
36. Anderson KE, Bloomer JR, Bonkovsky HL, et al: Recommendations for the diagnosis and treatment of the acute psychotic episode. *Intern Med* 2005; 142(6):439-450.
37. Anderson RP & Morris BAP: Acrocyanosis due to imipramine. *Arch Dis Child* 1988; 63:204-205.
38. Angst J, Koukkou M, Bleuler-Herzog M, et al: Results of an open and a double-blind study of nomifensin in comparison with imipramine. *Arch Psychiatr Nervenkr* 1974; 219:265-276.
39. Anon: American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Drugs: Neonatal drug withdrawal. *Pediatrics* 1983a; 72:895-896.

40. Anon: American Academy of Pediatrics Committee on Drugs: Neonatal drug withdrawal. *Pediatrics* 1983; 72:895-9
41. Anon: American academy of pediatrics committee on drugs: transfer of drugs and other chemicals into human milk. *108(3):776-789.*
42. Anon: Cross-National Collaborative Panic Study: Drug treatment of panic disorder. *Br J Psychiatry* 1992; 160:191-2
43. Anon: Drugs that cause sexual dysfunction. *Med Lett Drug Ther* 1983a; 25:73.
44. Anon: Endocrine basis for sexual dysfunction in men. *Br Med J* 1978; 4:1516.
45. Anon: Hoescht Marion Roussel, Inc, Dear Pharmacist letter. Food and Drug Administration. Rockville, MD. 1997. A <http://www.fda.gov/medwatch/SAFETY/1997/seldan2.htm>. As accessed 09/22/1997.
46. Anon: Ketek myasthenia gravis warning. *SCRIP (World Pharmaceutical News)* 2003; 2842(April 18):23.
47. Anon: Labeling change request letter for antidepressant medications (letter). US Food and Drug Administration. W: USA. 2004. Available from URL: <http://www.fda.gov.cder/drug/antidepressants/ssrilabelchange.htm>. As accessed 1
48. Anon: Milnacipran: tricyclics remain first-line antidepressants. *Rev Prescr* 1997a; 17:791-795.
49. Anon: Priapism with trazodone (Desyrel). *Med Lett Drug Ther* 1984; 26:35.
50. Anon: Randomized trial of modafinil as a treatment for the excessive daytime somnolence of narcolepsy: US Moda Multicenter Study Group. *Neurology* 2000; 54(5):1166-1175.
51. Anon: The Cardiac Arrhythmia Pilot Study (CAPS) Investigators. Effects of encainide, flecainide, imipramine and m ventricular arrhythmias during the year after acute myocardial infarction: the CAPS. *Am J Cardiol* 1988b; 61:501-50
52. Anon: The Cardiac Arrhythmia Pilot Study (CAPS) Investigators: Effects of encainide, flecainide, imipramine and m ventricular arrhythmias during the year after acute myocardial infarction: the CAPS. *Am J Cardiol* 1988; 61:501-50
53. Anon: The Cardiac Arrhythmia Pilot Study (CAPS) Investigators: Effects of encainide, flecainide, imipramine and m ventricular arrhythmias during the year after acute myocardial infarction: the CAPS. *Am J Cardiol* 1988a; 61:501-50
54. Anon: The ESVEM trial. Electrophysiologic Study Versus Electrocardiographic Monitoring for selection of antiarrhyt ventricular tachyarrhythmias. The ESVEM Investigators. *Circulation* 1989b; 79:1354-1360.
55. Anon: Vasoconstrictor agents in local-anaesthetic preparations. *Lancet* 1972; 2:584.
56. Anon: Veterans administration cooperative study group on antihypertensive agents. Comparison of propranolol and hydrochlorothiazide for the initial treatment of hypertension. *JAMA* 1982; 248:2004.
57. Anon: Veterans administration cooperative study group on antihypertensive agents. Multiclinic controlled trial of bet guanethidine in severe hypertension. *Circulation* 1977; 55:519.
58. Anseau M, von Frenckell R, Mertens C, et al: Controlled comparison of two doses of milnacipran (F 2207) and am depressive inpatients. *Psychopharmacology* 1989; 98:163-168.
59. Appelbaum PS & Kapoor W: Imipramine-induced vasospasm: A case report. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983; 140:913-915.
60. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J* 146:911-913.
61. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J* 146:911-913.
62. Aranow AB, Hudson JI, Pope HG Jr, et al: Elevated antidepressant plasma levels after addition of fluoxetine. *Am J* 146:911-913.
63. Argov Z & Mastaglia FL: Disorders of neuromuscular transmission caused by drugs. *N Engl J Med* 1979; 301:409-4
64. Arief AJ: Desipramine and nortriptyline in mental depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1966; 122:1291.
65. Asbach HW & Schuler HW: Amitriptyline and imipramine poisoning in children. *Br Med J* 1974; 3:524.
66. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975; 2:372-376.
67. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975a; 2:372-376.
68. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975b; 2:372-376.
69. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975c; 2:372-376.
70. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975d; 2:372-376.
71. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975e; 2:372-376.
72. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975f; 2:372-376.
73. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975g; 2:372-376.
74. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975h; 2:372-376.
75. Ashcroft GW: Psychological medicine: management of depression. *Br Med J* 1975i; 2:372-376.
76. Ashton A: Lack of desipramine toxicity with citalopram. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000; 61(2):144.
77. Attenburrow AA, Stanley TB, & Holland RPC: Nocturnal enuresis: a study. *Practitioner* 1984; 228:99-102.
78. Avery GS: Check-list of potential clinically important interactions. *Drugs* 1973a; 5:187-211.
79. Avery GS: Check-list to potential clinically important interactions. *Drugs* 1973; 5:187-211.
80. Bagadia VN, Shah LP, Pradhan PV, et al: A double-blind controlled study of amoxapine and imipramine in cases of *Ther Res* 1979; 26:417-429.
81. Bailey RR, Sharman JR, O'Rourke J, et al: Hemodialysis and forced diuresis for tricyclic antidepressant poisoning. 4:230.
82. Baird WP: Narcolepsy: a non-medical presentation. American Narcolepsy Association, Stanford, CA; p. 2, 1977.
83. Bakish D, Ravindran MB, Hooper C, et al: Psychopharmacological treatment response of patients with a DSM-III di dysthymic disorder. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1994; 30:53-59.
84. Balestrieri A, Benassi P, Cassano GB, et al: Clinical comparative evaluation of maprotiline, a new antidepressant d study. *Int Pharmacopsychiatry* 1971; 6:236.
85. Ballenger JC, Davidson JRT, Lecrubier Y, et al: Consensus statement on panic disorder from the international cons depression and anxiety. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1998; 59(suppl 8):47-54.
86. Barabas G: Management of headaches in childhood. *Pediatr Ann* 1983; 12:806-813.
87. Barcai A: *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1977; 55:97-101. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1977; 55:97-101.
88. Barksdale JD & Gardner SF: The impact of first-line antihypertensive drugs on erectile dysfunction. *Pharmacothera*

- (5):573-581.
89. Barlow DH, Gorman JM, Shear MK, et al: Cognitive-behavioral therapy, imipramine, or their combination for panic disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2000; 283(19):2529-2536.
 90. Bastuji H & Jouvet M: Successful treatment of idiopathic hyperosmic and narcolepsy with modafinil. *Prog Neuro Biol Psychiatry* 1988; 12:695-700.
 91. Batagol R (Ed): Australian Drug Evaluation Committee: Medicines in Pregnancy-An Australian categorisation of use in pregnancy, 3rd. Australian Government Publishing Service, Canberra, Australia, 1996.
 92. Battistini N, Nardini M, & Malentacchi GM: A double-blind controlled study of viloxazine and imipramine in depression. *Res 1980*; 6:149-157.
 93. Battistini N, Nardini M, & Malentacchi GM: A double-blind controlled study of viloxazine and imipramine in depression. *Res 1980a*; 6:149-157.
 94. Bauer GE, Hull R, Stokes G, et al: The reversibility of side effects of guanethidine therapy. *Med J Aust* 1983; 1:930
 95. Baumhackl U, Biziorek K, Fischbach R, et al: Efficacy and tolerability of moclobemide compared with imipramine in depression (DSM-III): an Austrian double-blind, multicentre study. *Br J Psychiatry* 1989; 155(suppl 6):78-83.
 96. Bayliss PFC, Dewsbury AR, Donald JF, et al: A double-blind controlled trial of 'Vivalan' (viloxazine hydrochloride) as a hydrochloride in the treatment of depression in general practice. *J Int Med Res* 1974a; 2:260-264.
 97. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973; 1:480-484.
 98. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973a; 1:480-484.
 99. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973b; 1:480-484.
 100. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973c; 1:480-484.
 101. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973d; 1:480-484.
 102. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973e; 1:480-484.
 103. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973f; 1:480-484.
 104. Beaumont G: Drug interactions with clomipramine. *J Int Med Res* 1973g; 1:480-484.
 105. Beers MH, Ouslander JG, Rollinger I, et al: Explicit criteria for determining inappropriate medication use in nursing home patients. *UCLA Division of Geriatric Medicine. Arch Intern Med* 1991; 151(9):1825-1832.
 106. Beers MH: Explicit criteria for determining potentially inappropriate medication use by the elderly. An update. *Arch Intern Med* 1991; 151(14):1531-1536.
 107. Behan P: Migraine: a rational approach to therapy. *Br J Clin Pract* 1982; 35:359-362.
 108. Behan P: Pizotifen in the treatment of severe recurrent headache. Single and divided dose therapy compared. *Br J Clin Pract* 1982; 36:13-17.
 109. Bell IR & Cole JO: Fluoxetine induces elevation of desipramine level and exacerbation of geriatric nonpsychotic depression. *Psychopharmacol* 1988; 8:447-448.
 110. Bell IR & Cole JO: Fluoxetine induces elevation of desipramine level and exacerbation of geriatric nonpsychotic depression. *Psychopharmacol* 1988a; 8:447-448.
 111. Benetello P, Fulnaut M, Zara G, et al: Imipramine pharmacokinetics in depressed geriatric patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1991; 10:191-195.
 112. Benetello P, Fulnaut M, Zara G, et al: Imipramine pharmacokinetics in depressed geriatric patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1991; 10:191-195.
 113. Benfield P & Ward A: Fluvoxamine: a review of its pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic properties, and therapeutic use in depressive illness. *Drugs* 1986; 32:313-334.
 114. Benkert O, Grunder G, Wetzel H, et al: A randomized, double-blind comparison of a rapidly escalating dose of venlafaxine and imipramine in inpatients with major depression and melancholia. *J Psychiatr Res* 1996; 30:441-451.
 115. Bennett JA, Moioffer M, Stanton SP, et al: A risk-benefit assessment of pharmacological treatments for panic disorder. *Psychopharmacol* 1998; 18(6):419-430.
 116. Bennett PN (ed): *Drugs and Human Lactation; Second Edition*. Elsevier Science, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, 1994.
 117. Bennett WM, Aronoff GR, Golper TA, et al: Drug prescribing in renal failure: dosing guidelines for adults, 3rd. *American College of Physicians, Philadelphia, PA*, 1994.
 118. Bennett WM, Aronoff GR, Golper TA, et al: Drug prescribing in renal failure: dosing guidelines for adults, 3rd. *American College of Physicians, Philadelphia, PA*, 1994a.
 119. Berciano J, Oterino A, Rebollo M, et al: Myasthenia gravis unmasked by cocaine abuse (letter). *N Engl J Med* 1991; 324:1000-1001.
 120. Beresin EV: Imipramine in the treatment of chronic pelvic pain. *Psychosomatics* 1986; 27:294-296.
 121. Berlanga C, Ortega-Soto HA, Ontiveros M, et al: Efficacy of S-adenosyl-L-methionine in speeding the onset of antidepressant action. *Psychiatry Res* 1992; 44(3):257-262.
 122. Berman JR, Adhikari SP, & Goldstein I: Anatomy and physiology of female sexual function and dysfunction. Classification and treatment options. *Eur Urol* 2000; 38:20-29.
 123. Bernstein GA, Garfinkel BD, & Borchardt CM: Comparative studies of pharmacotherapy for school refusal. *J Am Acad Child Psychiatry* 1991; 29:5:773-781.
 124. Berzowski H, Van Moffaert M, & Gagiano CA: Efficacy and tolerability of reboxetine compared with imipramine in patients suffering from major depressive episodes. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 1997; 7(suppl 1):S37-S47.
 125. Bescansa E, Nicolas M, Aguado C, et al: Myasthenia gravis aggravated by pyrantel pamoate. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry* 1997; 54:563.
 126. Bigger JT, Giardina EG, Perel JM, et al: Cardiac antiarrhythmic effect of imipramine hydrochloride. *N Engl J Med* 1981; 304:1000-1001.
 127. Bigger JT, Giardina EG, Perel JM, et al: Cardiac antiarrhythmic effect of imipramine hydrochloride. *N Engl J Med* 1981; 304:1000-1001.
 128. Bigger JT, Giardina EG, Perel JM, et al: Cardiac antiarrhythmic effect of imipramine hydrochloride. *N Engl J Med* 1981; 304:1000-1001.
 129. Bindelglas PM & Dee G: Enuresis treatment with imipramine hydrochloride: a 10-year follow-up study. *Am J Psychiatry* 1981; 138:1549.

130. Biros D, Schiele BC, & Ferguson D: A comparison of melitracen and imipramine in treatment of depressed patients 1969; 11:289-295.
131. Biziere K & Berger M: Efficacy of a reversible monoamine oxidase-A inhibitor versus imipramine in subgroups of de Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl 1990; 360:59-60.
132. Blackwell B, Peterson GR, Kuzma RJ, et al: The effect of five tricyclic antidepressants on salivary flow and mood in volunteers. *Comm Psychopharmacol* 1980; 4:255-261.
133. Blair JH & Simpson GM: Effects of antipsychotic drugs on the reproductive system. *Dis Nerv Syst* 1966; 27:645.
134. Blake DJ: Treatment of acute posttraumatic stress disorder with tricyclic antidepressants. *South Med J* 1986; 79:20
135. Blay SL, Ferraz MPT, & Cacil HM: Lithium-induced male sexual impairment: two case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 198
136. Blumenthal, M, Busse WR, et al Blumenthal, M, Busse WR, et al (Eds): *The Complete German Commission E Monographs*. American Botanical Council, Austin, TX, 1998, pp 87-88.
137. Boachie A, Goldfield GS, & Spettigue W: Olanzapine use as an adjunctive treatment for hospitalized children with a case reports. *Int J Eat Disord* 2003; 33:98-103.
138. Boakes AJ, Laurence DR, Teoh PC, et al: Interactions between sympathomimetic amines and antidepressant agents. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1973; 1:311-315.
139. Boakes AJ, Laurence DR, Teoh PC, et al: Interactions between sympathomimetic amines and antidepressant agents. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1973a; 1:311-315.
140. Boakes AJ: Sympathomimetic amines and antidepressant agents (letter). *Br Med J* 1973; 2:114.
141. Bouras N & Bridges PK: Bromocriptine in depression. *Curr Med Res Opin* 1982; 8:150-153.
142. Boyden TW, Nugent C, Ogihara T, et al: Reserpine, hydrochlorothiazide and pituitary-gonadal hormones in hypertension. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1980; 17:329.
143. Boyer EW & Shannon M: The serotonin syndrome. *N Engl J Med* 2005; 352(11):1112-1120.
144. Boyer P & Lecrubier Y: Atypical antipsychotic drugs in dysthymia: placebo controlled studies of amisulpride versus amineptine. *Eur Psychiatr* 1996; 11(suppl 3):135-140.
145. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1000-1001.
146. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1002-1003.
147. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1004-1005.
148. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1006-1007.
149. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1008-1009.
150. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1010-1011.
151. Brachfeld J, Wirtshafter A, & Wolfe S: Imipramine-tranlycypromine incompatibility. Near fatal toxic reaction. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1012-1013.
152. Branconnier RJ, Cole JO, Ghazvinian S, et al: Clinical pharmacology of bupropion and imipramine in elderly depressed patients. *Psychopharmacology* 1983a; 44:130-133.
153. Branconnier RJ, Cole JO, Oxenkrug GF, et al: Cardiovascular effects of imipramine and bupropion in aged depressed patients. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1983; 19:658-662.
154. Brechter CL: Another amitriptyline side effect?. *Lancet* 1968; 1:590.
155. Bremner JD, Abrahams LM, & Crupie JE: Multicenter double-blind comparison of nomifensine and imipramine for elderly depressed outpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984; 4:56-59.
156. Bremner JD: Fluoxetine in depressed patients: a comparison with imipramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984; 45:414-419.
157. Briant RH, Reid JL, & Dollery CT: Interaction between clonidine and desipramine in man. *Br Med J* 1973; 1:522-523.
158. Briant RH, Reid JL, & Dollery CT: Interaction between clonidine and desipramine in man. *Br Med J* 1973a; 1:522-523.
159. Briant RH, Reid JL, & Dollery CT: Interaction between clonidine and desipramine in man. *Br Med J* 1973b; 1:522-523.
160. Briant RH, Reid JL, & Dollery CT: Interaction between clonidine and desipramine in man. *Br Med J* 1973c; 1:522-523.
161. Briggs GG, Freeman RK, & Yaffe SJ: *Drugs in Pregnancy and Lactation*, 5th ed. Baltimore, MD, 1998.
162. Brock GB & Lue TF: Drug-induced male sexual dysfunction. An update. *Drug Saf* 1993; 8(6):414-426.
163. Brodie MJ: Drug interactions in epilepsy. *Epilepsia* 1992; 33(suppl 1):S13-S22.
164. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994; 343:475.
165. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994a; 343:475.
166. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994b; 343:475.
167. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994c; 343:475.
168. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994d; 343:475.
169. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994e; 343:475.
170. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994f; 343:475.
171. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994g; 343:475.
172. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994h; 343:475.
173. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994i; 343:475.
174. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994j; 343:475.
175. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994k; 343:475.
176. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994l; 343:475.
177. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994m; 343:475.
178. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994n; 343:475.
179. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994o; 343:475.
180. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994p; 343:475.
181. Brodribb TR, Downey M, & Gilbar PJ: Efficacy and adverse effects of moclobemide (letter). *Lancet* 1994q; 343:475.
182. Brooks ME, Berezin M, & Braf Z: Treatment of retrograde ejaculation with imipramine. *Urology* 1980; 15:353.
183. Brosen K & Gram LF: Quinidine inhibits the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine and desipramine but not the demethylation. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1989; 37:155-160.

184. Brosen K & Gram LF: Quinidine inhibits the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine and desipramine but not the demethylati
Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1989a; 37:155-160.
185. Brosen K & Gram LF: Quinidine inhibits the 2-hydroxylation of imipramine and desipramine but not the demethylati
Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1989b; 37:155-160.
186. Brosen K, Gram LF, Klysner R, et al: Steady-state levels of imipramine and its metabolites: significance of dose-de
Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1986; 30:43-49.
187. Brosen K, Hansen JG, Nielsen KK, et al: Inhibition by paroxetine of desipramine metabolism in extensive but not in
of sparteine. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1993; 44:349-355.
188. Brosen K, Hansen JG, Nielsen KK, et al: Inhibition by paroxetine of desipramine metabolism in extensive but not in
of sparteine. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1993a; 44:349-355.
189. Brotman AW, Herzog DB, & Woods SW: Antidepressant treatment of bulimia: The relationship between bingeing and
symptomology. J Clin Psychiatry 1984; 45:7-9.
190. Brown CS, Wells BG, Cold JA, et al: Possible influence of carbamazepine on plasma imipramine concentrations in
attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1990; 10:359-362.
191. Brown CS, Wells BG, Cold JA, et al: Possible influence of carbamazepine on plasma imipramine concentrations in
attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1990a; 10:359-362.
192. Brown D, Winsbers BG, Bialer I, et al: Imipramine therapy in seizures: three children treated for hyperactive behavi
Psychiatry 1973; 130:210-212.
193. Brown JJ, Davies D, Feriss J, et al: Comparison of surgery and prolonged spironolactone therapy in patients with h
aldosterone excess, and low plasma renin. Br Med J 1972a; 2:729.
194. Brown KGE, McMichen HU, & Briggs DS: Tachyarrhythmia in severe imipramine overdose controlled by practolol. J
1972; 47:104.
195. Brown RP, Kocsis JH, Glick ID, et al: Efficacy and feasibility of high dose tricyclic antidepressant treatment in elder
depressives. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1984; 4:311-315.
196. Brown SR, Schwartz JM, Summergrad P, et al: Globus hystericus syndrome responsive to antidepressants. Am J F
143:917-918.
197. Brown WA, Haier RJ, & Qualls CB: Dexamethasone suppression test identifies subtypes of depression which resp
antidepressants. Lancet 1980; 1:928-929.
198. Brown WA, Johnston R, & Mayfield D: The 24-hour dexamethasone suppression test in a clinical setting - relation
symptoms, and response to treatment. Am J Psychiatry 1979; 136:543-547.
199. Brown WA, Langhren TP, & Williams B: Differential effects of neuroleptic agents on the pituitary-gonadal axis in me
Psychiatry 1981; 124:420.
200. Brumback RA & Carlson KM: The depression of myotonic dystrophy: response to imipramine (letter). J Neurol Neu
1983; 46:587-588.
201. Buchsbaum MS, Lee S, Haier R, et al: Effects of amoxapien and imipramine on evoked potentials in the continuous
in patients with affective disorder. Neuropsychobiology 1988; 20:15-22.
202. Buckhardt D, Raider E, Muller V, et al: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressants and tetracyclic antidepres
239:213-216.
203. Buckley JP: Effects of imipramine, desmethylimipramine and their 2-OH metabolites on hemodynamics and myoca
dogs. Fed Proc 1975; 34:450.
204. Buckley M & Feely J: Antagonism of antihypertensive effect of guanfacine by tricyclic antidepressants (letter). Lanc
1174.
205. Buckley M & Feely J: Antagonism of antihypertensive effect of guanfacine by tricyclic antidepressants (letter). Lanc
337:1173-1174.
206. Buffum J: Pharmacosexology: the effects of drugs on sexual function, a review. J Psychoactive Drugs 1982; 14:5.
207. Bulpitt CJ & Dollery CT: Side effects of hypotensive agents evaluated by a self-administered questionnaire. Br Med
208. Bulpitt CJ, Dollery CT, & Carne S: A symptom questionnaire for hypertensive patients. J Chronic Dis 1974; 27:309.
209. Bulpitt CJ, Dollery CT, & Carne S: Change in symptoms of hypertensive patients after referral to hospital clinic. Br J
38:121.
210. Burnett WC & Chahine RA: Sexual dysfunction as a complication of propranolol therapy in men. Cardiovasc Med 1
211. Burns BH: Preliminary evaluation of a new anti-depressant, trimipramine, by a sequential method. Br J Psychiatry 1
1157.
212. Burrows GD & Davies B: Antidepressants and barbiturates. Br Med J 1971; 4:113.
213. Burstein A: Treatment of post-traumatic stress disorder with imipramine. Psychosomatics 1984; 25:681-687.
214. Burt CG: Amitriptyline in depressive states: a controlled trial. J Ment Sci 1962; 108:711.
215. Byerly WF, Reimherr FW, Wood DR, et al: Fluoxetine, a selective serotonin uptake inhibitor, for the treatment of ou
major depression. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1988; 8:112-115.
216. Cadisch R, Streit E, & Hartmann K: Exazerbation einer Myasthenia gravis pseudoparalytica nach Azithromycin (Zit
Schweiz Med Wochenschr 1996; 126:308-310.
217. Campbell M, Fish B, Shapiro T, et al: Imipramine in preschool autistic and schizophrenic children. J Autism Child S
1:267-282.
218. Campbell RK: The treatment of narcolepsy and cataplexy. Drug Intell Clin Pharm 1981; 15:257.
219. Cannon RO III, Quyyumi AA, Mincemoyer R, et al: Imipramine in patients with chest pain despite normal coronary
Engl J Med 1994; 330:1411-1417.
220. Cannon RO: Imipramine in patients with chest pain despite normal coronary angiograms (letter). N Engl J Med 199
883.
221. Capponi R, Hormazabal L, & Schmid-Burgk W: Diclofenisne and imipramine: a double-blind comparative trial in de
patients. Neuropsychobiology 1985; 14:173-180.

222. Cassano GB, Miniati M, Pini S, et al: Six-month open trial of haloperidol as an adjunctive treatment for anorexia nei preliminary report. *Int J Eat Disord* 2003; 33:172-177.
223. Charney DS, Woods SW, Goodman WK, et al: Drug treatment of panic disorder: the comparative efficacy of imipra and trazodone. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:580-586.
224. Chow MJ, Piergies AA, Bowsher DJ, et al: Torsade de pointes induced by N-acetylprocainamide. *J Am Coll Cardiol*
225. Chutka DS, Takahashi PY, & Hoel RW: Inappropriate medications for elderly patients. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2004; 79(1
226. Cicero TJ, Bell RD, Wiest WG, et al: Function of the male sex organs in heroin and methadone users. *N Engl J Med*
227. Ciraulo DA, Barnhill J, & Boxenbaum H: Pharmacokinetic interaction of disulfiram and antidepressants. *Am J Psych* 142:1373-1374.
228. Ciraulo DA, Barnhill JG, & Jaffe JH: Clinical pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine in alcoholics and nor *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1988; 43:509-518.
229. Claghorn JL: A double-blind study of maprotiline (Ludomil(R)) and imipramine in depressed outpatients. *Curr Ther* 452.
230. Clark DM, Salkovskis PM, Hackmann A, et al: A comparison of cognitive therapy, applied relaxation and imipramine of panic disorder. *Br J Psychiatry* 1994; 164:759-769.
231. Clayton AB, Harvey PG, & Betts TA: The effects of two antidepressant, imipramine and viloxazine upon driving per *Psychopharmacology* 1977; 55:9-12.
232. Clayton AB, Harvey PG, & Betts TA: The effects of two antidepressant, imipramine and viloxazine upon driving per *Psychopharmacology* 1977a; 55:9-12.
233. Clayton DO & Shen WW: Psychotropic drug-induced sexual function disorders. *Drug Saf* 1998; 19(4):299-312.
234. Cohen BM & Baldessarini RJ: Tolerance to therapeutic effects of antidepressants. *Am J Psychiatry* 1985; 142:489-
235. Cohen S: Cannabis and sex: multifaceted paradoxes. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 1982; 14:55.
236. Cohen SD, Monteiro W, & Marks IM: Two-year follow-up of agoraphobics after exposure and imipramine. *Br J Psyc* 144:276-281.
237. Cohen SD, Monteiro W, & Marks IM: Two-year follow-up of agoraphobics after exposure and imipramine. *Br J Psyc* 144:276-281.
238. Cohn JB & Wilcox C: Comparison of fluoxetine, imipramine, and placebo in patients with major depressive disorder 1985; 46:26-31.
239. Cohn JB & Wilcox CS: Paroxetine in major depression: a double-blind trial with imipramine and placebo. *J Clin Psy* (suppl 2):52-56.
240. Cohn JB, Varga L, & Lyford A: A two-center double-blind study of nomifensine, imipramine, and placebo in depress outpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984; 45:68-72.
241. Cohn JB: Double-blind, multicenter comparison of sertraline and amitriptyline in elderly depressed patients. *J Clin F* 51:28-33.
242. Colantonio LA & Orson JM: Triiodothyronine thyrotoxicosis: induction by desiccated thyroid and imipramine. *Am J I* 128:396.
243. Colgate R: Hyponatraemia and inappropriate secretion of antidiuretic hormone associated with the use of imipramin 1993; 163:819-822.
244. Connors CK & Petti T: Imipramine: Therapy of depressed children: methodologic considerations. *Psychopharmacol* 69.
245. Cooper AJ: Treatment of coexistent night-terrors and somnambulism in adults with imipramine and diazepam. *J Clin* 48:209-210.
246. Corey AE, Agnew JR, Valentine SN, et al: Azimilide pharmacokinetics following intravenous and oral administration capsule formulation. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1999; 39(12):1272-1276.
247. Coull DC, Crooks J, Dingwall-Fordyce I, et al: Amitriptyline and cardiac disease. *Lancet* 1970; 1:590-591.
248. Coull DC, Crooks J, Dingwall-Fordyce I, et al: Amitriptyline and cardiac disease. *Lancet* 1970a; 1:590-591.
249. Couper-Smartt JD & Rodham R: A technique for surveying side effects of tricyclic drugs with reference to reported *Int Med Res* 1973; 1:473-476.
250. Crammer JL, Scott B, & Rolfe B: Metabolism of ¹⁴C-imipramine: II. Urinary metabolites in man. *Psychopharmacol*
251. Crisp AH, Lacey JH, & Crutchfield M: Clomipramine and "drive" in people with anorexia nervosa: an in-patient study 1987; 150:355-358.
252. Cushman P & Dole V: Detoxification of rehabilitated methadone maintained patients. *JAMA* 1973; 226:747.
253. Cushman P: Sexual behavior in heroin addiction and methadone maintenance. *New York State J Med* 1972; 72:12
254. D'Arcy PF & Griffin JP: *Iatrogenic Diseases*, 2nd. Oxford University Press, New York, 1979.
255. Daras M, Samkoff LM & Koppel BS: Exacerbation of myasthenia gravis associated with cocaine use. *Am Acad Neu* 1996.
256. Davidson J, Raft D, & Pelton S: An outpatient evaluation of phenelzine and imipramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1987; 48:
257. Davidson JRT, McLeod MN, Turnbull CD, et al: A comparison of phenelzine and imipramine in depressed inpatient 1981; 42:395-397.
258. Davies B, Joshua S, Burrows G, et al: A sequential trial of viloxazine (Vivalan) and imipramine in moderately depre *J Aust* 1977; 1:521-522.
259. Davies DM: *Textbook of Adverse Drug Reactions*, 2nd. Oxford University Press, New York, 1981.
260. Davies RK, Tucker GJ, Harrow M, et al: Confusional episodes and antidepressant medication. *Am J Psychiatry* 197
261. De Leo D, Caneva A, Marazziti D, et al: Platelet imipramine binding in intensive care unit suicidal patients. *Eur Arch Neurosci* 1991; 241:85-87.
262. DeVane CL & Jusko WJ: Plasma concentration monitoring of hydroxylated metabolites of imipramine and desipram *Clin Pharm* 1981; 15(4):263-266.
263. DeVane CL, Walker RD, Sawyer WP, et al: Concentrations of imipramine and its metabolites during enuresis thera

- Pharmacol 1984; 4:245-251.
264. DeVita VT, Hahn MA, & Oliverio VT: Monoamine oxidase inhibition by a new carcinostatic agent, n-isopropyl-alpha methylhydrazino)-p-toluamide (MIH). *Proc Soc Exp Biol Med* 1965; 120:561-565.
 265. Delamere JP, Jobson S, Mackintosh LP, et al: Penicillamine-induced myasthenia in rheumatoid arthritis: its clinical features. *Ann Rheum Dis* 1983; 42:500-504.
 266. Deltito JA, Argyle N, & Klerman GL: Patients with panic disorder unaccompanied by depression improve with alprazolam treatment. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:121-127.
 267. Dement WC & Baird WP: Narcolepsy: care and treatment (a guide for the primary care physician whose patient is a narcolepsy), American Narcolepsy Association, Stanford, CA, 1977, pp 8.
 268. Dement WC, Carskadon MA, Guilleminault C, et al: Narcolepsy, diagnosis and treatment. *Primary Care* 1976; 3:60
 269. Denniston PL Jr, Denniston PW, Epner JA, et al: Imipramine hydrochloride, Physicians' GenRx, Smithtown, NY, 19
 270. Dillon DC, Salzman IJ, & Schulsinger DA: The use of imipramine in Tourette's syndrome and attention deficit disorder. *Clin Psychiatry* 1985; 46:348-349.
 271. Dominguez RA, Goldstein BJ, Jacobson AF, et al: A double-blind placebo-controlled study of fluvoxamine and imipramine in depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1985; 46:84-87.
 272. Dominguez RA, Jacobson AF, Weiss BL, et al: A placebo-controlled comparison of amoxapine and imipramine in depressed outpatients. *Curr Ther Res* 1981; 29:714-727.
 273. Dorman BW & Schmidt JD: Association of priapism in phenothiazine therapy. *J Urology* 116:51, 1976.
 274. Downs JM, Downs AD, Rosenthal TL, et al: Increased plasma tricyclic antidepressant concentrations in two patients treated with fluoxetine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1989; 50:226-227.
 275. Downs JM, Downs AD, Rosenthal TL, et al: Increased plasma tricyclic antidepressant concentrations in two patients treated with fluoxetine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1989a; 50:226-227.
 276. Drachman DB: Myasthenia gravis (part I). *N Engl J Med* 1978; 298:136-142.
 277. Drachman DB: Myasthenia gravis (part II). *N Engl J Med* 1978a; 298:186-193.
 278. Drayer DE: Pharmacologically active drug metabolites. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1976; 1:426.
 279. Dudek FA & Turner DJ: Alcoholism and sexual functioning. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 1982; 14:47.
 280. Duenas-Laita A, Castro-Villamor MA, Martin-Escudero JC, et al: New clinical manifestations of acute risperidone poisoning. *Clin Toxicol* 1999; 37(7):893-894.
 281. Dugas JE & Weber SS: Amoxapine. *Drug Intell Clin Pharm* 1982; 16:199-204.
 282. Dunbar GC, Cohn JB, Fabre LF, et al: A comparison of paroxetine, imipramine and placebo in depressed outpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:394-398.
 283. Duncan L & Bateman DN: Sexual function in women. Do antihypertensive drugs have an impact?. *Drug Saf* 1993; 16:11-15.
 284. Dunn MI & Dunlap JL: Guanadrel. A new antihypertensive drug. *JAMA* 1981; 245:1639.
 285. Dunner DL, Zisook S, Billow AA, et al: A prospective safety surveillance study for bupropion sustained-release in the treatment of depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1998; 59:366-373.
 286. Dupont H, Timsit JF, Souweine B, et al: Torsades de pointes probably related to sparfloxacin. *Eur J Clin Microbiol Infect Dis* 1999; 18:350-351.
 287. Ebringer A, Doyle AE, Dawborn JK, et al: The use of clonidine (Catapres) in the treatment of hypertension. *Med J Aust* 1978; 188:111-113.
 288. Edwards G: Comparison of the effect of imipramine and desipramine on some symptoms of depressive illness. *Br J Psychiatry* 1977; 131:889.
 289. Eggermont E, Raveschot J, Deneve V, et al: The adverse influence of imipramine on the adaptation of the newborn to extrauterine life. *Acta Paediatr Belg* 1972; 26:197-204.
 290. Eilenberg MD: A double-blind comparative trial of dothiepin and imipramine for the treatment of depressive inpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1980; 41:92-93.
 291. Eilenberg MD: A double-blind comparative trial of dothiepin and imipramine for the treatment of depressive inpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1980a; 41:92-93.
 292. Eisenberg J & Asnis G: Are antidepressant trials too short? A case report. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:38-39.
 293. Eklund K, Dunbar GC, Pinder RM, et al: Mianserin and imipramine in the treatment of elderly depressed patients. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1985; 72(suppl 320):54-59.
 294. El-Dakhakhny M, El-Latif HAA, & Ammon HPT: Different effects of the antidepressant drugs imipramine, maprotiline and amitriptyline on insulin secretion from mouse pancreatic islets. *Arzneimittelforschung* 1996; 46:667-669.
 295. Elingrod VL & Perry PJ: Venlafaxine: a heterocyclic antidepressant. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1994; 51:3033-3046.
 296. Elliott HL, McLean K, Sumner DJ, et al: Absence of an effect of mianserin on the actions of clonidine or methylphenidate in depressed patients. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; 24:15-19.
 297. Elliott HL, McLean K, Sumner DJ, et al: Pharmacodynamic studies on mianserin and its interaction with clonidine. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; 21:97-102.
 298. Elwan O: A comparative study of viloxazine and imipramine in the treatment of depressive states. *J Int Med Res* 1990; 18:1067-1069.
 299. Elwes RDC, Crewes JH, Chesterman LP, et al: Treatment of narcolepsy with L-tyrosine: double-blind placebo-controlled study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1989; 50:1067-1069.
 300. Escobar JL, Gomez J, Constain C, et al: Controlled clinical trial with trazodone, a novel antidepressant: a South American study. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1980; 20:124-130.
 301. European Porphyria Initiative: Recommendations for the use of drugs in the acute porphyrias (AIP, HCP, VP). Euro Initiative. Available from URL: www.porphyrria-europe.org. As accessed 2/13/06.
 302. Evans L, Kenardy J, Schneider P, et al: Effect of a selective serotonin uptake inhibitor in agoraphobia with panic attacks: a double-blind comparison of zimeldine, imipramine and placebo. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1986; 73:49-53.
 303. Fabre LF & McLendon DM: A double-blind study comparing the efficacy and safety of alprazolam with imipramine in the treatment of primary depression. *Curr Ther Res* 1980; 27:474-482.
 304. Fabre LF, McLendon DM, & Gainey A: Trazodone efficacy in depression: a double-blind comparison with imipramine.

- day-hospital type patients. *Curr Ther Res* 1979; 25:827-834.
305. Fabre LF, McLendon DM, & Gainey A: Trazodone efficacy in depression: a double-blind comparison with imipramine day-hospital type patients. *Curr Ther Res* 1979a; 25:827-834.
 306. Fabre LF: A 6-week, double-blind trial of paroxetine, imipramine, and placebo in depressed outpatients. *J Clin Psych (suppl 2)*:40-43.
 307. Fabre LF: Double-blind, placebo-controlled comparison of amoxapine and imipramine in depressed outpatients. *Cu* 22:611-619.
 308. Fabre LF: Treatment of depression in outpatients: a controlled comparison of the onset of action of amoxapine and *Psychiatry* 1985; 46:521-524.
 309. Faggiano P, Gardini A, D'Aloia A, et al: Torsade de pointes occurring early during oral amiodarone treatment. *Intern* 55:205-208.
 310. Faltus F & Geerling FC: A controlled double-blind study comparing binedaline and imipramine in the treatment of e depression. *Neuropsychobiology* 1984; 12:34-38.
 311. Fawcett J, Marcus RN, Anton SF, et al: Response of anxiety and agitation symptoms during nefazodone treatment depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1995; 56(suppl 6):37-42.
 312. Feagin OT, Mitchell JR, Shand DG, et al: Mechanism of antagonism of guanethidine and bethanidine by protriptylin 1969; 17:59.
 313. Feiger AD: A double-blind comparison of gepirone extended release, imipramine, and placebo in the treatment of o depression. *Psychopharm Bull* 1996; 32(4):659-665.
 314. Feighner JP & Boyer WF: Paroxetine in the treatment of depression: a comparison with imipramine and placebo. *A Scand* 1989; 80(suppl 350):125-129.
 315. Feighner JP & Boyer WF: Paroxetine in the treatment of depression: a comparison with imipramine and placebo. *J* 1992; 53(suppl 2):44-47.
 316. Feighner JP, Cohn JB, Fabre LF, et al: A study comparing paroxetine placebo and imipramine in depressed patient 1993; 28:71-79.
 317. Feighner JP, Meridith CH, Dutt JE, et al: A double-blind comparison of lofepramine, imipramine, and placebo in pat depression. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1982; 66:100-108.
 318. Feighner JP, Pambakian R, Fowler RC, et al: A comparison of nefazodone, imipramine, and placebo in patients wit severe depression. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1989; 25:219-221.
 319. Feighner JP: A review of controlled studies of adinazolam mesylate in patients with major depressive disorder. *Psy* 1986; 22:186-191.
 320. Feighner JP: Open label study of alprazolam in severely depressed inpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1983; 44:332-334.
 321. Feighner JP: Trazodone, a triazolopyridine derivative, in primary depressive disorder. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1980; 41:25
 322. Ferguson KL: Imipramine-provoked paradoxical pheochromocytoma crisis: a case of cardiogenic shock. *Am J Em* 12:190-192.
 323. Fernandez de Gatta MM, Galindo P, Rey F, et al: The influence of clinical and pharmacological factors on enuresis imipramine. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1990; 30:693-698.
 324. Fernandez de Gatta MM, Garcia MJ, Acosta A, et al: Monitoring of serum levels of imipramine and despiramine and of dose in enuretic children. *Ther Drug Monit* 1984; 6:438-443.
 325. Fernandez de Gatta MM, Tamayo M, Garcia MJ, et al: Prediction of imipramine serum levels in enuretic children by method: comparison with two other conventional dosing methods. *Ther Drug Monit* 1989; 11:637-641.
 326. Ferris SH, McCarthy M, Reisberg B et al: Influence of zimelidine and imipramine on psychomotor skill and cognitive International Symposium N Y Univ, 1980, 1980.
 327. Fick DM, Cooper JW, Wade WE, et al: Updating the Beers criteria for potentially inappropriate medication use in ol of a US consensus panel of experts. *Arch Intern Med* 2003; 163(22):2716-2724.
 328. Fielding JM: A double-blind comparative trial of dibenzepin and imipramine. *Med J Aust* 1969; 1(12):614-616.
 329. Finger WW & Slagle MA: Changes in sexual function secondary to medication effects. *Drugs Today* 1998; 34(4):30
 330. Finnerty RJ & Goldberg HL: Specific responses to imipramine and doxepin in psychoneurotic depressed patients w disturbance. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1981; 42:275-279.
 331. Finnerty RJ, Goldberg HL, & Rickels K: Doxepin versus imipramine in psychoneurotic depressed patients with slee double-blind study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1978; 39:852-856.
 332. Finnerty RJ, Goldberg HL, & Rickels K: Doxepin versus imipramine in psychoneurotic depressed patients with slee double-blind study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1978a; 39:852-856.
 333. Flaherty JJ, Cerva D, & Graff J: ARDS associated with massive imipramine overdose. *Am J Emerg Med* 1986; 4:19
 334. Flemenbaum A: Hypertensive episodes after adding methylphenidate (Ritalin) to tricyclic antidepressants. *Psychos* 13:265-268.
 335. Flemenbaum A: Methylphenidate: a catalyst for the tricyclic antidepressants?. *Am J Psychiatry* 1971; 128:239.
 336. Flemenbaum A: Methylphenidate: a catalyst for the tricyclic antidepressants?. *Am J Psychiatry* 1971a; 128:239.
 337. Fletcher SE, Case CL, Sallee FR, et al: Prospective study of the electrocardiographic effects of imipramine in childr 1993; 122:652-654.
 338. Floru VL, Czarny G, & Tegeller J: Double-blind study with the novel antidepressant viloxazine versus imipramine in *Arzneimittelforschung* 1976; 26:1170-1171.
 339. Foa EB, Steketee G, Kozak MJ, et al: Imipramine and placebo in the treatment of obsessive-compulsives: their effe and on obsessional symptoms. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1987; 23:8-11.
 340. Fogelson DL: Fenfluramine and the cytochrome p450 system (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1997; 154:436-437.
 341. Fogelson DL: Fenfluramine and the cytochrome p450 system (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1997a; 154:436-437.
 342. Fontaine R, Ontiveros A, Elie R, et al: A double-blind comparison of nefazodone, imipramine and placebo in major Psychiatry 1994; 55:234-241.

343. Forrest A, Hewett A, & Nicholson P: Controlled randomized group comparison of nomifensine and imipramine in de J Clin Pharmacol 1977; 4(suppl 2):215.
344. Forsberg L, Gustavii B, Hojerback T, et al: Impotence, smoking, and beta-blocking drugs. Fertil Steril 1979; 31:589.
345. Fournier JP, Garfinkel BD, Bond A, et al: Pharmacological and behavioral management of enuresis. J Am Acad Ch Psychiatry 1987; 6:849-853.
346. Franks S, Jacobs HS, Martin N, et al: Hyperprolactinaemia and impotence. Clin Endocrinol 1978; 8:277.
347. Fried MJ & Protheroe DT: D-penicillamine induced myasthenia gravis, its relevance for the anaesthetist. Br J Anaes 1193.
348. Fritz GK, Rockney RM, & Yeung AS: Plasma levels and efficacy of imipramine treatment for enuresis. J Am Acad C Psychiatry 1994; 1:60-64.
349. Fritz GK, Rockney RM, & Yeung AS: Plasma levels and efficacy of imipramine treatment for enuresis. J Am Acad C Psychiatry 1994a; 1:60-64.
350. Fromm GH, Amores CY, & Thies W: Imipramine in epilepsy. Arch Neurol 1972; 27:198.
351. Galloway GP, Newmeyer J, Knapp T et al: Imipramine for the treatment of cocaine and methamphetamine depend Addict Med 1994; 201-216, 1994.
352. Gambarana C, Ghiglier O, Tagliamonte A, et al: Crucial role of D dopamine receptors in mediating the antidepressant effect of imipramine. Pharmacol Biochem Behav 1995; 50:147-151.
353. Gangadhar BN, Kapur RL, & Kalyanasundaram S: Comparison of electroconvulsive therapy with imipramine in end depression: a double-blind study. Br J Psychiatry 1982; 141:367-371.
354. Garbutt G & Goldstein A: "Blind comparison of three methadone maintenance dosages in 180 patients" In: Proceed National Conference on Methadone Treatment. New York: National Association for Prevention of addiction to Narcotics 1978.
355. Garey KW, Amsden GW, & Johns CA: Possible interaction between imipramine and butalbital. Pharmacotherapy 1984; 4:1042.
356. Garey KW, Amsden GW, & Johns CA: Possible interaction between imipramine and butalbital. Pharmacotherapy 1984; 4:1042.
357. Garrettson LK, Perel JM, & Dayton PG: Methylphenidate interaction with both anticonvulsants and ethyl biscoumamine. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1983; 3:207-2053-2056.
358. Garvey MJ & Tollefson GD: Occurrence of myoclonus in patients treated with cyclic antidepressants. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1977; 44:269-272.
359. Gelenberg AJ, Wojcik JD, Lydiard RB, et al: Double-blind comparison of amoxapine and imipramine in the treatment of major depression. J Clin Psychiatry 1984; 45:54-59.
360. Geller B, Cooper TB, Farooki ZQ, et al: Dose and plasma levels of nortriptyline and chlorpromazine in delusionally depressed adolescents and of nortriptyline in nondelusionally depressed adolescents. Am J Psychiatry 1985; 142(3):336-338.
361. Gerner R, Estabrook W, Steuer J, et al: Treatment of geriatric depression with trazodone, imipramine, and placebo study. J Clin Psychiatry 1980; 41:216-220.
362. Gershon S & Newton R: Lack of anticholinergic side effects with a new antidepressant - trazodone. J Clin Psychiatry 1984; 45:104.
363. Gershon S: Comparative side effect profiles of trazodone and imipramine: special reference to the geriatric population. J Clin Psychopathology 1984; 17(suppl 2):39-50.
364. Gershon S: Evaluation of trazodone, a unique antidepressant, in the treatment of endogenous depression results of a double-blind study, in Royal Society of Medicine, New Directions in Antidepressant Therapy, Academic Press, London, 1984.
365. Ghaemi SN & Kirkwood CK: Elevation of nortriptyline plasma levels after cotreatment with paroxetine and thioridazine. J Clin Psychopharmacol 1998; 18(4):342-343.
366. Ghose K: Assessment of peripheral adrenergic activity and its interaction with drugs in man. Eur J Clin Pharmacol 1979; 16:177-179.
367. Giardina EGV & Bigger JT: Antiarrhythmic effect of imipramine hydrochloride in patients with ventricular premature beats and psychological depression. Am J Cardiol 1982; 50:172-179.
368. Giardina EGV, Bigger JT, Glassman AH, et al: The electrocardiographic and anti-arrhythmic effects of imipramine hydrochloride on therapeutic plasma levels. Circulation 1979; 60:1045.
369. Giardina EGV, Johnson LL, Vita J, et al: Effect of imipramine and nortriptyline on left ventricular function and blood pressure in patients treated for arrhythmias. Am Heart J 1985; 109:992-998.
370. Giardina EGV, Johnson LL, Vita J, et al: Effect of imipramine and nortriptyline on left ventricular function and blood pressure in patients treated for arrhythmias. Am Heart J 1985a; 109:992-998.
371. Giardina EGV, Louie M, Bigger JT, et al: Antiarrhythmic plasma-concentration range of imipramine against ventricular premature depolarizations. Clin Pharmacol Ther 1983; 34:284-289.
372. Gilja I, Radej M, Kovacic M, et al: Conservative treatment of female stress incontinence with imipramine. J Urol 1994; 151:198.
373. Gillette DW & Tannery LP: Beta blocker inhibits tricyclic metabolism. J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry 1994; 33:1000-1002.
374. Gillis JS: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on interpersonal learning. Res Comm Psychol Psychiatry Behav 1981; 10:1000-1002.
375. Gillis JS: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on interpersonal learning. Res Comm Psychol Psychiatry Behav 1981a; 10:1000-1002.
376. Gilman AG, Goodman LS, Rall TW, et al (Eds): Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 7th. MacMillan Publishing Co, New York, NY, 1985b.
377. Gilman AG, Goodman LS, Rall TW, et al (Eds): Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 7th. MacMillan Publishing Co, New York, NY, 1985a.
378. Gilman AG, Goodman LS, Rall TW, et al (Eds): Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 7th. Macmillan Publishing Co, New York, NY, 1985.
379. Gilman AG, Rall TW, Nies AS, et al (Eds): Goodman and Gilman's The Pharmacological Basis of Therapeutics, 8th. Macmillan Publishing Co, New York, NY, 1990.
380. Glass IB, Checkley SA, Shur E, et al: The effect of desipramine upon central adrenergic function in depressed patients. J Clin Psychiatry 1982; 43:372-376.

381. Glass IB, Checkley SA, Shur E, et al: The effect of desipramine upon central adrenergic function in depressed patients. *Psychiatry* 1982a; 141:372-376.
382. Glassman AH & Bigger T: Cardiovascular effects of therapeutic doses of tricyclic antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1982; 39:820.
383. Glassman AH, Bigger JT Jr, Giardina EV, et al: Clinical characteristics of imipramine-induced orthostatic hypotension. *Psychiatry* 1982; 43:468.
384. Glassman AH, Perel JM, Shostak M, et al: Clinical implications of imipramine plasma levels for depressive illness. *Psychiatry* 1977; 34:197.
385. Glassman AH, Walsh BT, Roose SP, et al: Factors related to orthostatic hypotension associated with tricyclic antidepressants. *Psychiatry* 1982; 43:35-38.
386. Godbout R & Montplaisir J: The effect of zimelidine, a serotonin-reuptake blocker, on cataplexy and daytime sleepiness in patients. *Clin Neuropharmacol* 1986; 9:46-51.
387. Godwin CD: Case report of tricyclic-induced delirium at a therapeutic drug concentration. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983; 140:1387-1388.
388. Goldstein BJ & Claghorn JL: An overview of 17 years of experience with dothiepin in the treatment of depression in patients. *Psychiatry* 1980; 41:64-70.
389. Gonella G, Gagnoli G, & Ecarl U: Fluvoxamine and imipramine in the treatment of depressive patients: a double-blind study. *Curr Med Res Opin* 1990; 12:177-184.
390. Goodnick PJ: Influence of fluoxetine on plasma levels of desipramine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989; 146:552.
391. Goodnick PJ: Influence of fluoxetine on plasma levels of desipramine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989a; 146:552.
392. Goodnick PJ: Influence of fluoxetine on plasma levels of desipramine (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1989b; 146:552.
393. Gordon GG, Altman K, Southren L, et al: The effect of alcohol (ethanol) administration on sex-hormone metabolism in patients. *Engl J Med* 1976; 295:793.
394. Grace ND: Prolonged jaundice due to imipramine with recovery. *Gastroenterology* 1970; 58:282.
395. Gram LF & Christiansen J: First-pass metabolism of imipramine in man. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1975; 17:555.
396. Gram LF, Hansen MGJ, Sindrup SH, et al: Citalopram: interaction studies with levomepromazine, imipramine, and amitriptyline. *Monit* 1993; 15:18-24.
397. Gram LF, Hansen MGJ, Sindrup SH, et al: Citalopram: interaction studies with levomepromazine, imipramine, and amitriptyline. *Monit* 1993a; 15:18-24.
398. Gram LF, Kofod B, Christiansen J, et al: Imipramine metabolism: pH-dependent distribution and urinary excretion. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1971; 12:239.
399. Gravenor DS, Leclerc JR, & Blake G: Tricyclic antidepressant agranulocytosis. *Can J Psychiatry* 1986; 31:661.
400. Greden JF, Kronfol Z, Gardner R, et al: Dexamethasone suppression test and selection of antidepressant medication in patients with major depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1981; 3:389-396.
401. Greenberg HR: Erectile impotence during the course of Tofranil(R) therapy. *Am J Psychiatry* 1965; 121:1021.
402. Greene HL, Richardson DW, Hallstrom AP, et al: Congestive heart failure after acute myocardial infarction in patients receiving antiarrhythmic agents for ventricular premature complexes (Cardiac Arrhythmia Pilot Study). *Am J Cardiol* 1989; 63:1089-1092.
403. Gross HA: J Clin Psychopharmacol 1981; 1:376-381. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1981; 1:376-381.
404. Gross MD: Reversal by bethanechol of sexual dysfunction caused by anticholinergic antidepressants. *Am J Psychiatry* 1993; 150:1193.
405. Guelfi JD, Dreyfus JF, Pichot P, et al: A double-blind controlled clinical trial comparing fluvoxamine with imipramine in the treatment of major depression. *Pharmacol Ther* 1983; 15:411S-417S.
406. Guilleminault C, Carskadon M, & Dement WC: On the treatment of rapid eye movement narcolepsy. *Arch Neurol* 1981; 38:1021-1024.
407. Gulati OD, Dave BT, Gokhale SD, et al: Antagonism of adrenergic neuron blockade in hypertensive subjects. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1966; 7:510-514.
408. Guy W, Ban TA, McEvoy JP, et al: A collaborative study of a new antidepressant, viloxazine in neurotic and endogenous depression. *Int Pharmacopsychiatry* 1982; 17:36-42.
409. Guy W, Wilson WH, Ban TA, et al: A double-blind clinical trial of fluvoxamine and imipramine in patients with primary depression. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1984; 20:73-78.
410. Haider I: A comparative investigation of desipramine and nortriptyline in the treatment of depression. *Br J Psychiatry* 1981; 139:1193.
411. Halikas J, Weller R, & Morse C: Effects of regular marijuana use on sexual performance. *J Psychoactive Drugs* 1991; 23:103-105.
412. Halmi KA, Eckert E & Falk JR: Cyproheptadine, an antidepressant and weight-inducing drug for anorexia nervosa. *Psychopharmacol Bull*; 19:103-105. 8. Halmi, 1983.
413. Handson L, Paschal A, & Julius S: Comparison of guanadrel and guanethidine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1973; 14:204.
414. Hanley SP & Hampton JR: Ventricular arrhythmias associated with lidoflazine: side effects observed in a randomized trial. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; 4:889-893.
415. Hardoby W: Imipramine and suicidal thoughts (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1992; 149:412-413.
416. Hardy PAJ & Wells JCD: Pain after spinal intrathecal clonidine. *Anaesthesia* 1988; 43:1026-1027.
417. Hare DL: Imipramine in patients with chest pain despite normal coronary angiograms. *N Engl J Med* 1994; 331:882-883.
418. Hare PJ: "Visage mauve" (from imipramine?). *Br J Dermatol* 1970; 83:420.
419. Hargreaves MA & Maxwell C: The speed of action of desipramine: a controlled trial. *Int J Neuropsychiatry* 1967; 3:103-105.
420. Harmon J & Aliapoulous MA: Gynecomastia in marijuana users. *N Engl J Med* 1972; 287:936.
421. Harrison WM, Rabkin JG, Ehrhardt AA, et al: Effects of antidepressant medication on sexual function: a controlled study. *Psychopharmacol* 1986; 6:144-149.
422. Harrison WM, Stewart J, Ehrhardt AA, et al: A controlled study of the effects of antidepressants on sexual function. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1985; 21:85-88.
423. Hartter S, Hermes B, Szegedi A, et al: Automated determination of paroxetine and its main metabolite by column-switch HPLC. *J Chromatogr B* 1994; 714:400-406.
424. Hartter S, Wetzel H, Hammes E, et al: Inhibition of antidepressant demethylation and hydroxylation by fluvoxamine in patients with major depression. *Psychopharmacol* 1994; 115:103-105.

- patients. *Psychopharmacology* 1993; 110:302-308.
425. Hartter S, Wetzel H, Hammes E, et al: Inhibition of antidepressant demethylation and hydroxylation by fluvoxamine patients. *Psychopharmacology* 1993a; 110:302-308.
 426. Harvey AM, Johns RJ, McKusick VA, et al (Eds): *The Principles and Practice of Medicine*, Appleton & Lange, Norw
 427. Hasan KZ & Akhtar MI: Double blind clinical study comparing doxepin and imipramine in depression. *Curr Ther Res* 336.
 428. Hashimoto K, Joselow SA, & Tye MJ: Imipramine hyperpigmentation: a slate-gray discoloration caused by long-term administration. *J Am Acad Dermatol* 1991; 25:357-361.
 429. Haydu GG, Whittier JR, Goldschmidt L, et al: Differential therapeutic results of three antidepressant medication acc functional schedules. *J Nerv Mental Dis* 1964; 139:475-478.
 430. Hayes RL, Gerner RH, Fairbanks L, et al: ECG findings in geriatric depressives given trazodone, placebo, or imipra *Psychiatry* 1983; 44:180-183.
 431. Hebenstreit GF, Fellerer K, Fichte K, et al: Rolipram in major depressive disorder: results of a double-blind compar: imipramine. *Pharmacopsychiatry* 1989; 22:156-160.
 432. Heck HA, Buttrill JE Jr, Flynn NW, et al: Bioavailability of imipramine tablets relative to a stable isotope-labelled inte increasing the power of bioavailability tests. *J Pharmacokinet Biopharm* 1979; 7:233-248.
 433. Heel R, Brogden R, Speight T, et al: Atenolol: a review of its pharmacological and therapeutic efficacy in angina pe hypertension. *Drugs* 1979; 17:425.
 434. Heinonen OP, Slone D, & Shapiro S: *Heinonen OP, Slone D, & Shapiro S: Birth Defects and Drugs in Pregnancy*, Pl Group, Inc, Littleton, MA, 1977.
 435. Heller A, Zahourek R, & Whittington HG: Effectiveness of antidepressant drugs: a triple-blind study comparing imipi desipramine, and placebo. *Am J Psychiatry* 1971; 127:1092-1095.
 436. Hellerstein DJ, Kocsis JH, Chapman D, et al: Double-blind comparison of sertraline, imipramine, and placebo in the dysthymia: effects on personality. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:1436-44.
 437. Hembree WC: Marijuana effects upon the human testes. *Clin Res* 1976; 24:272A.
 438. Hermann DJ, Krol TF, Dukes GE, et al: Comparison of verapamil, diltiazem, and labetalol on the bioavailability and imipramine. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1992; 32:176-183.
 439. Hermann DJ, Krol TF, Dukes GE, et al: Comparison of verapamil, diltiazem, and labetalol on the bioavailability and imipramine. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1992a; 32:176-183.
 440. Hermann DJ, Krol TF, Dukes GE, et al: Comparison of verapamil, diltiazem, and labetalol on the bioavailability and imipramine. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1992b; 32:176-183.
 441. Hermann DJ, Krol TF, Dukes GE, et al: Comparison of verapamil, diltiazem, and labetalol on the bioavailability and imipramine. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1992c; 32:176-183.
 442. Hesson I: Hypertension during imipramine treatment. *Lancet* 1970; 1:84.
 443. Hicks R, Dysken MW, Davis JM, et al: The pharmacokinetics of psychotropic medication in the elderly: a review. *J* 1981; 42:374-385.
 444. Hicks R, Dysken MW, Davis JM, et al: The pharmacokinetics of psychotropic medication in the elderly: a review. *J* 1981a; 42:374-385.
 445. Hillard JR & Vieweg WV: Marked sinus tachycardia resulting from the synergistic effects of marijuana and nortriptyl *Psychiatry* 1983; 140:626-627.
 446. Hillard JR & Vieweg WV: Marked sinus tachycardia resulting from the synergistic effects of marijuana and nortriptyl *Psychiatry* 1983a; 140:626-627.
 447. Hilton DK, Martin CA, Heffron WM, et al: Imipramine treatment of ADHD in a fragile X child. *J Am Acad Child Adole* 1991; 30:831-834.
 448. Himmelhoch JM, Thase ME, Mallinger AG, et al: Tranylcypromine versus imipramine in anergic bipolar depression. 1991; 148:910-916.
 449. Hiramatsu KI, Takahashi R, Mori A, et al: A multicentre double-blind comparative trial of zimeldine and imipramine i depressive disorders. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1983; 68(suppl 308):41-54.
 450. Hishikawa Y, Ida H, Nakai K, et al: Treatment of narcolepsy with imipramine (tofranil) and desmethylimipramine (pe *Sci* 1966; 3:453-461.
 451. Hnatko SI: Agranulocytosis associated with imipramine (Tofranil(R)). *Can Med Assoc J* 1965; 92:33.
 452. Hoehn-Saric R, McLeod DR, & Zimmerli WD: Differential effects of alprazolam and imipramine in generalized anxiety versus psychic symptoms. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1988; 49:293-301.
 453. Hoffman L & Halmi K: *Psychopharmacology in the treatment of anorexia nervosa and bulimia nervosa*. *Psychiatr C* 16:767-778.
 454. Hogan MJ, Wallin JK, & Baer RM: Antihypertensive therapy and male sexual dysfunction. *Psychosomatics* 1980; 2
 455. Holden JMC, Kerry RH, & Orme JE: Amoxapine in depressive illness. *Curr Med Res Opin* 1979; 6:338-341.
 456. Holland OB, Fairchild C, & Gomez-Sanchez GE: Effect of guanabenz and hydrochlorothiazide on blood pressure ar activity. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; 21:133.
 457. Hollifield JW, Sherman K, Vander Zwagg R, et al: Proposed mechanisms of propranolol's antihypertensive effect in hypertension. *N Engl J Med* 1976; 295:68.
 458. Hollister LE: Disorders of the nervous system due to drugs In: Meyler L & Peck HM (Eds): *Drug-Induced Disease*, 4 Medica, Amsterdam, 1972.
 459. Hollister LE: Plasma concentrations of tricyclic antidepressants in clinical practice. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1982; 43:66-69
 460. Honda Y, Hishikawa Y, & Takahashi Y: Long-term treatment of narcolepsy with methylphenidate. *Curr Ther Res* 19
 461. Hordern A: Amitriptyline in depressive states: phenomenology and prognostic considerations. *Br J Psychiatry* 1963
 462. Horowitz JD & Goble AJ: Drugs and impaired male sexual function. *Drugs* 1979; 18:206.
 463. Howland JS, Poe TE, & Keith JF: Cardiomyopathy associated with tricyclic antidepressants. *South Med J* 1983; 76

464. Huang HFS, Nahas GG, & Hembree WC: Morphological changes of spermatozoa during marihuana induced depressive spermatogenesis (abstract). *Fed Proc* 1978; 37:739.
465. Hudson CJ: Tricyclic antidepressants and alcoholic blackouts. *J Nerv Ment Dis* 1981; 169:381-382.
466. Hudson JI, Pope HG, Jonas JM, et al: Treatment of anorexia nervosa with antidepressants. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1983; 3:194-195.
467. Huessy HR & Wright AL: The use of imipramine in children's behavior disorders. *Ser Paedopsychiatr* 1970; 37:194-195.
468. Hui KK: Hypertensive crisis induced by interaction of clonidine with imipramine. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1983; 31:164-165.
469. Hui KK: Hypertensive crisis induced by interaction of clonidine with imipramine. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1983a; 31:164-165.
470. Hui KK: Hypertensive crisis induced by interaction of clonidine with imipramine. *J Am Geriatr Soc* 1983b; 31:164-165.
471. Hunsballe JM, Rittig S, Pedersen EB, et al: Single dose imipramine reduces nocturnal urine output in patients with and nocturnal polyuria. *J Urol* 1997; 158:830-836.
472. Hurley RM, Harris D, & Shepherd RR: Incontinence in myelodysplasia: imipramine hydrochloride revisited. *Clin Pediatr* 1980; 19:489-491.
473. Hurst DL: The use of imipramine in minor motor seizures. *Pediatr Neurol* 1986; 2:13-17.
474. Hutchinson JT & Smedberg D: Treatment of depression: a comparative study of ECT and six drugs. *Br J Psychiatry* 1965; 111:590-591.
475. Hynes B: Combining the antidepressant drugs. *Br Med J* 1965; 1:590.
476. Idanpaan-Heikkila J & Saxen L: Possible teratogenicity of imipramine/chloropyramine. *Lancet* 1973; 2:282-283.
477. Iijima S, Sugita Y, Teshima Y, et al: Therapeutic effects of mazindol on narcolepsy. *Sleep* 1986; 9:265-268.
478. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
479. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
480. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
481. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
482. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
483. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
484. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
485. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
486. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
487. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
488. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
489. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
490. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
491. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
492. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
493. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
494. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
495. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
496. Insel TR, Roy BF, Cohen RM, et al: Possible development of the serotonin syndrome in man. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:100-101.
497. Iruela LM, Minguéz L, Merino J, et al: Toxic interaction of S-adenosylmethionine and clomipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1998; 155:522.
498. Iruela LM, Minguéz L, Merino J, et al: Toxic interaction of S-adenosylmethionine and clomipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1998; 155:522.
499. Isberg RS: A comparison of phenelzine and imipramine in an obsessive-compulsive patient. *Am J Psychiatry* 1981; 138:100-101.
500. Itil TM, Shrivastava RK, Mukherjee S, et al: A double-blind placebo-controlled study of fluvoxamine and imipramine with primary depression. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; 15:433S-438S.
501. Jabbari B: Incidence of seizures with tricyclic and tetracyclic antidepressants. *Arch Neurol* 1985; 42:480-481.
502. Jackson BA: Nadolol, a once daily treatment for hypertension multi-centre clinical evaluation. *Br J Clin Pract* 1980; 34:1497-1498.
503. Janahyala BS, Clarke DE, & Buckley JP: The effects of prolonged administration of certain antihypertensive agents. *Hypertension* 1974; 6:1497.
504. Jano E & Aparasu RR: Healthcare outcomes associated with beers' criteria: a systematic review. *Ann Pharmacother* 1998; 32:438-447.
505. Jarvis GJ: A controlled trial of bladder drill and drug therapy in the management of detrusor instability. *Br J Urol* 1980; 52:100-101.
506. Jenkins DG, Ebbutt AF, & Evans CD: Tofranil in the treatment of low back pain. *J Int Med Res* 1976; 4:28-40.
507. Jensen J, Lendorf A, Stimpel H, et al: The prevalence and etiology of impotence in 101 male hypertensive outpatients. *Hypertension* 1999; 12:271-275.
508. Jick H: Tricyclic antidepressants and convulsions. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1983; 3:182-185.
509. Johanson AJ & Knorr NJ: L-Dopa as treatment for anorexia nervosa. In: Vigersky RA (Ed): *Anorexia Nervosa*, Raven Press, New York, NY, 1977, pp 363-372.
510. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
511. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980a; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
512. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980b; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
513. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980c; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
514. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980d; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
515. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980e; 8(suppl 3):88-95.

516. John VA, Luscombe DK, & Kemp H: Effects of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on the pharmacokinetics of clomipramine and its desmethyl metabolite during chronic dosing. *J Int Med Res* 1980f; 8(suppl 3):88-95.
517. Johnson CD, Reeves KO, & Jackson D: Alcohol and sex. *Heart Lung* 1983; 12:93.
518. Jones BD, Steinberg S, & Chouinard G: Fast-cycling bipolar disorder induced by withdrawal from long-term treatment with antidepressants. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984; 141:108-109.
519. Jorgenson OS, Lober M, Christiansen J, et al: Plasma concentration and clinical effect in imipramine treatment of depression. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1980; 5:386-393.
520. Kafka MP: Successful antidepressant treatment of nonparaphilic sexual addictions of paraphilias in men. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1992; 52:60-65.
521. Kales A, Soldatos CR, Cadieux R, et al: Propranolol in treatment of narcolepsy. *Ann Intern Med* 1979; 91:741.
522. Kales AK & Kales JD: Sleep disorders: recent findings in the diagnosis and treatment of disturbed sleep. *N Engl J Med* 1979; 290:487-499.
523. Kane FJ Jr & Keeler MH: Visual hallucinations while receiving imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1964; 121:611.
524. Kantor SJ, Bigger JT Jr, Glassman AH, et al: Imipramine-induced heart block. A longitudinal case study. *JAMA* 1977; 237:1005-1007.
525. Kantor SJ, Glassman AH, Bigger JT Jr, et al: The cardiac effects of therapeutic plasma concentrations of imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1978; 135(5):534-538.
526. Kantor SJ, Glassman AH, Bigger JT Jr., et al: The cardiac effects of therapeutic plasma concentrations of imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1978a; 135:534-538.
527. Kantor SJ, Glassman AH, Bigger JT Jr., et al: The cardiac effects of therapeutic plasma concentrations of imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1978b; 135:534-538.
528. Kaplan RM: More on the globus hystericus syndrome (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1987; 144:528-529.
529. Karp JF, Frank E, Ritenour A, et al: Imipramine and sexual dysfunction during the long-term treatment of recurrent depression. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 1994; 11:21-27.
530. Kaskey GB, Nasr S, & Meltzer HY: Drug treatment in delusional depression. *Psychiatry Res* 1980; 1:267-277.
531. Kasper S, Pletan Y, Solles A, et al: Comparative studies with milnacipran and tricyclic antidepressants in the treatment of major depression: a summary of clinical trial results. *Intern Clin Psychopharmacol* 1996; 11(suppl 4):35-39.
532. Kathol RG, Jaekle R, Wysham C, et al: Imipramine effect on hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal axis response to hypoglycemia. *Psychiatry Res* 1991; 41:45-52.
533. Katz MR: Raised serum levels of desipramine with the antiarrhythmic propafenone (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:1005-1007.
534. Kaufmann JS: Pheochromocytoma and tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974; 229:1282.
535. Kaye WH, Weltzin TE, Hsu LK, et al: An open trial of fluoxetine in patients with anorexia nervosa. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1990; 51:1005-1007.
536. Keidan H: Impotence during antihypertensive treatment. *Can Med Assoc J* 1976; 114:874.
537. Keller MB, Lavori PW, Goldenberg IM, et al: Influence of depression on the treatment of panic disorder with imipramine and placebo. *J Affect Disord* 1993; 28:27-38.
538. Kelly ME & Needle MA: Imipramine for aspermiuria after lymphadenectomy. *Urology* 1979; 13:414.
539. Kennedy SH, Eisfeld BS, Dickens SE, et al: Antidepressant-induced sexual dysfunction during treatment with moclobemide, sertraline, and venlafaxine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2000; 61:276-281.
540. Kerihuel JC & Dreyfus JF: Meta-analysis of the efficacy and tolerability of the tricyclic antidepressant lofepramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:1005-1007.
541. Kessell A & Holt NF: A controlled study of nortriptyline and imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1970; 126:938.
542. Khan A, Camel G, & Perry HMJ: Clonidine (Catapres): a new antihypertensive agent. *Curr Ther Res* 1970; 12:10.
543. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972; 222:702-703.
544. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972a; 222:702-703.
545. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972b; 222:702-703.
546. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972c; 222:702-703.
547. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972d; 222:702-703.
548. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972e; 222:702-703.
549. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972f; 222:702-703.
550. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972g; 222:702-703.
551. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972h; 222:702-703.
552. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972i; 222:702-703.
553. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972j; 222:702-703.
554. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972k; 222:702-703.
555. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972l; 222:702-703.
556. Khurana RC: Estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1972m; 222:702-703.
557. Kiev A & Okerson L: Comparison of the therapeutic efficacy of amoxapine with that of imipramine. A controlled clinical trial in patients with depressive illness. *Clin Trials J* 1979; 16:68-72.
558. Kimura Y: Absorption, distribution, and metabolism of doxepin HCl. *Pharmacokinetics* 1972; 6:955.
559. Kinney JL & Evans RL Jr: Evaluation of amoxapine. *Clin Pharm* 1982; 1:417-424.
560. Kinsey AC, Pomeroy WB, & Martin CE: *Sexual behavior in the human male*, Saunders, Philadelphia, 1948.
561. Kleber HD, Weissman MM, Rounsaville BJ, et al: Imipramine as treatment for depression in addicts. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1977; 34:649-653.
562. Klein JJ: Galactorrhea due to imipramine, report of a case. *N Engl J Med* 1964; 271:510.
563. Klein RG, Koplewicz HS, & Kanner A: Imipramine treatment of children with separation anxiety disorder. *J Am Acad Psychiatry* 1992; 31:21-28.
564. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974; 227:807.
565. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974a; 227:807.
566. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974b; 227:807.

567. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974c; 227:807.
568. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974d; 227:807.
569. Kline NS: Experimental use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors with tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1974e; 227:807.
570. Knarr JW: Impotence from propranolol?. *Ann Intern Med* 1976; 85:259.
571. Kocsis JH, Frances AJ, Voss C, et al: Imipramine treatment for chronic depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1988; 45:52:56-59.
572. Kocsis JH, Mason BJ, Frances AJ, et al: Prediction of response of chronic depression to imipramine. *J Affect Dis* 1988; 45:52:56-59.
573. Kocsis JH, Sutton BM, & Frances AJ: Long-term follow-up of chronic depression treated with imipramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1991; 52:56-59.
574. Koehl GW & Wenzel JE: Severe postural hypotension due to imipramine therapy. *Pediatrics* 1971; 47:132.
575. Kolodny RC, Masters WH, Hendryx J, et al: Plasma testosterone and semen analysis in male homosexuals. *N Engl J Med* 1974; 290:872.
576. Kolodny RC, Masters WH, Kolodner RM, et al: Depression of plasma testosterone levels after chronic intensive male homosexuality. *Am J Psychiatry* 1974; 131:1170.
577. Korczyn AD & Kish I: The mechanism of imipramine in enuresis nocturna. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol* 1979; 6:31-35.
578. Kornstein SG, Schatzberg AF, Tahse ME, et al: Gender differences in treatment response to sertraline versus imipramine in major depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:1445-52.
579. Kosten TR, Frank JB, Dan E, et al: Pharmacotherapy for posttraumatic stress disorder using phenelzine or imipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991; 148:366-370.
580. Kotin J, Wilbert DE, Verburg D, et al: Thioridazine and sexual dysfunction. *Am J Psychiatry* 1976; 133:82.
581. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984a; 141:696-697.
582. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984a; 141:696-697.
583. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984b; 141:696-697.
584. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984c; 141:696-697.
585. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984d; 141:696-697.
586. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984e; 141:696-697.
587. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984f; 141:696-697.
588. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984g; 141:696-697.
589. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984h; 141:696-697.
590. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984i; 141:696-697.
591. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984j; 141:696-697.
592. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984k; 141:696-697.
593. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984l; 141:696-697.
594. Krishnan KR, France RD, & Ellinwood EH: Tricyclic-induced akathisia in patients taking conjugated estrogens. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984m; 141:696-697.
595. Kristensen CB: Imipramine serum protein binding in healthy subjects. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1983; 35:689-694.
596. Kristensen CB: Plasma protein binding of imipramine in patients with rheumatoid arthritis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; 24:225-226.
597. Kronfol Z, Greden JF, & Zis A: Imipramine-induced tremor: effects of a beta-adrenergic blocking agent. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1983; 44:225-226.
598. Kupfer DJ, Perel JM, & Frank E: Adequate treatment with imipramine in continuation treatment. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1983; 44:225-226.
599. Kvinesdal B, Molin J, Froland A, et al: Imipramine treatment of painful diabetic neuropathy. *JAMA* 1984; 251:1727-1730.
600. Laederach-Hofmann K, Graf C, Horber F, et al: Imipramine and diet counseling with psychological support in the binge eaters: a randomized, placebo-controlled double-blind study. *Int J Eat Disord* 1999; 26(3):231-244.
601. Lafave HG, March BW, Kargas AK, et al: Desipramine and imipramine in an out-patient setting: a comparative study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1965; 122:698-701.
602. Laird LK & Lydiard RB: Imipramine-related tinnitus (letter). *J Clin Psychiatry* 1989; 50:146.
603. Laird LK, Lydiard RB, Morton WA, et al: Cardiovascular effects of imipramine, fluvoxamine, and placebo in depressed patients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1993; 54:224-228.
604. Lake CR, Mikkelsen E, Rapoport JL, et al: Effect of imipramine on norepinephrine and blood pressure in enuretic boys. *Pharmacol Ther* 1979; 26:647.
605. Lake CR, Mikkelsen E, Rapoport JL, et al: Effect of imipramine on norepinephrine and blood pressure in enuretic boys. *Pharmacol Ther* 1979a; 26:647.
606. Lammers GJ, Arends J, Declerck AC, et al: Gammahydroxybutyrate and narcolepsy: a double-blind placebo-controlled study. *Acta Psychol* 1993; 16(3):216-220.
607. Landauer AA, Milner G, & Patman J: Alcohol and amitriptyline effects on skills related to driving behavior. *Science* 1968; 161:1468.

608. Lande G, Drouin E, Gauthier C, et al: Arrhythmogenic effects of sultopride chlorhydrate: clinical and cellular electro correlation. *Ann Fr Anesth Reanim* 1992; 11:629-635.
609. Lang AB, Goeckner DJ, Adesso VJ, et al: Effects of alcohol on aggression in male social drinkers. *J Abnorm Psych*
610. Langdon N, Shindler J, & Parkes JD: Fluoxetine in the treatment of cataplexy. *Sleep* 1986; 9:371-372.
611. Lapierre YD, Browne M, Horn E, et al: Treatment of major affective disorder with fluvoxamine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 198
612. Laroche P, Belanger L, Lemire F, et al: Dose-response effect of propafenone in patients with ventricular arrhythm
- 1984; 36:959-969.
613. Law W, Petti TA, & Kazdin AE: Withdrawal symptoms after graduated cessation of imipramine in children. *Am J Ps*
- 138:647-650.
614. Leahy MR & Martin ICA: Double-blind comparison of nortriptyline and amitriptyline in depressive illness. *Br J Psych*
- 113:1433.
615. Lecrubier Y & Guelfi JD: Efficacy of reversible inhibitors of monoamine oxidase-A in various forms of depression. *A*
- Scand Suppl* 1990; 360:18-23.
616. Lecrubier Y, Boyer P, Puech A et al: Amisulpride versus imipramine e placebo nella distimia. *Congress Nice France*
617. Lee M & Sharifi R: More on drug-induced sexual dysfunction. *Clin Pharm* 1982; 1:397.
618. Lehmann HE, Picknold JC, Ban TA, et al: A double-blind comparative clinical trial with maprotiline (Ludiomil(R)) an
- newly-admitted depressed patients. *Curr Ther Res* 1976; 19:463-468.
619. Leinonen E, Lepola U, Koponen H, et al: Long-term efficacy and safety of milnacipran compared to clomipramine ir
- major depression. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1997; 96:497-504.
620. Lemere F & Smith JW: Alcohol induced sexual impotence. *Am J Psychiatry* 1973; 130:212.
621. Lenox RH, Shipley JE, Peyser JM, et al: Double-blind comparison of alprazolam versus imipramine in the inpatient
- depressive illness. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1984; 20:79-82.
622. Lepola U, Arato M, Zhu Y, et al: Sertraline versus imipramine treatment of comorbid panic disorder and major depr
- Clin Psychiatry* 2003; 64(6):654-662.
623. Lepola U, Jolkkonen J, Rimon R, et al: Long-term effects of alprazolam and imipramine on cerebrospinal fluid mono
- and neuropeptides in panic disorder. *Neuropsychobiology* 1989; 21:182-186.
624. Levin R, Burt DM, Levin WA, et al: Ventricular fibrillation in a tetraplegic patient who had a therapeutic level of a tri
- antidepressant: case report. *Paraplegia* 1985; 23:354-357.
625. Levine S, Deo R, & Mahadevan K: A comparative trial of a new antidepressant, fluoxetine. *Br J Psychiatry* 1987a; 1
626. Levine S: A controlled comparison of maprotiline (Ludiomil(R)) with imipramine avoiding observer bias. *J Int Med R*
- 2):75-78.
627. Levine SB: Marital sexual dysfunction: introductory concepts. *Ann Intern Med* 1976; 84:448.
628. Levy IS: Diagnosis and treatment of depressive reactions. (With special emphasis on newer pharmacological agen
- 1966; 27:474.
629. Lewis DA & McChesney C: Tritiated imipramine binding distinguishes among subtypes of depression. *Arch Gen Ps*
- 42:485-488.
630. Liebowitz MR, Quitkin FM, Stewart JW, et al: Phenelzine v imipramine in atypical depression: a preliminary report. *J*
- Psychiatry* 1984; 41:669-677.
631. Lin HH, Sheu BC, Lo M, et al: Comparison of treatment outcomes of imipramine for female genuine stress incontine
- Gynaecol* 1999; 106:1089-1092.
632. Lindsay J Jr, Smith MA, & Light JA: Torsades de pointes associated with antimicrobial therapy for pneumonia. *Che*
- 223.
633. Linnoila M, George L, Guthrie S, et al: Effect of alcohol consumption and cigarette smoking on antidepressant level
- patients. *Am J Psychiatry* 1981; 138:841-842.
634. Linnoila M, Gualtieri CT, Jobson K, et al: Characteristics of the therapeutic response to imipramine in hyperactive c
- Psychiatry* 1979; 136:1201.
635. Linnoila M, Gualtieri CT, Jobson K, et al: Characteristics of the therapeutic response to imipramine in hyperactive c
- Psychiatry* 1979a; 136:1201.
636. Lipman RS, Covi L, Rickels K, et al: Imipramine and chlordiazepoxide in depressive and anxiety disorders: I. Effic
- outpatients. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1986; 43:68-77.
637. Liskin B, Walsh BT, Roose SP, et al: Imipramine-induced inappropriate ADH secretion. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 19
638. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965; 1:921.
639. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965a; 1:921.
640. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965b; 1:921.
641. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965c; 1:921.
642. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965d; 1:921.
643. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965e; 1:921.
644. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965f; 1:921.
645. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965g; 1:921.
646. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965h; 1:921.
647. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965i; 1:921.
648. Lockett MF & Milner G: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965j; 1:921.
649. Lodge-Patch I, Pitt B, & Yeo Y: The direct comparison of antidepressants: imipramine and chlorprothixene. *J Psych*
- 5:273-280.
650. Loga S, Curry S, & Lader M: Interaction of chlorpromazine and nortriptyline in patients with schizophrenia. *Clin Pha*
- 6(6):454-462.
651. Logue JN, Sachais BA, & Feighner JP: Comparisons of maprotiline with imipramine in severe depression: a multic
- trial. *J Clin Pharmacol* 1979; 19:64-74.

652. Lopez JA, Harold JG, Rosenthal MC, et al: QT prolongation and torsades de pointes after administration of trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole. *Am J Cardiol* 1987; 59:376-377.

653. Loriaux DL, Menard R, Taylor A, et al: Spironolactone and endocrine dysfunction. *Ann Intern Med* 1976; 85:630.

654. Lund-Larsen PG & Sivertssen E: Imipramine cardiopathy. *Nord Med* 1968; 80:986.

655. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

656. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980a; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

657. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980b; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

658. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980c; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

659. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980d; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

660. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980e; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

661. Luscombe DK & John V: Influences of age, cigarette smoking and the oral contraceptive on plasma concentrations. *Postgrad Med J* 1980f; 56(suppl 1):99-102.

662. Lydiard RB, Anton RF, & Cunningham T: Interactions between sertraline and tricyclic antidepressants. *Am J Psych* 150:1125-1126.

663. Lydiard RB, Laird LK, Morton WA, et al: Fluvoxamine, imipramine and placebo in the treatment of depressed outpatients. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1989; 25:68-70.

664. Maas JW, Fawcett JA, Dekirmerjian H, et al: Catecholamine metabolism, depressive illness and drug response. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1972; 26:252.

665. Maas JW, Kocsis JH, Bowden CL, et al: Pre-treatment neurotransmitter metabolites and response to imipramine or placebo. *Psychol Med* 1982; 12:37-43.

666. Maas JW, Koslow SH, Katz MM, et al: Pretreatment neurotransmitter metabolite levels and response to tricyclic antidepressants. *Am J Psychiatry* 1984; 141:1159-1171.

667. MacDonald JT: Childhood migraine. Differential diagnosis and treatment. *Postgrad Med* 1986; 80:301-303.

668. Magni G, Arsie D, & De Leo D: Antidepressants in the treatment of cancer pain: a survey in Italy. *Pain* 1987; 29:34.

669. Malatynska E: Antidepressants and seizure-interactions at the GABA receptor-chloride-ionophore complex. *Life Sci* 1987; 41:307.

670. Malina A, Gaskill J, McConaha C, et al: Olanzapine treatment of anorexia nervosa: a retrospective study. *Int J Eat Disord* 1999; 25:234-237.

671. Malitz JS & Kanzler M: Are antidepressants better than placebo?. *Am J Psychiatry* 1971; 127:1605.

672. Maloney MJ & Farrell MK: Treatment of severe weight loss in anorexia nervosa with hyperalimentation and psychotherapy. *Psychiatry* 1980; 43:310-314.

673. Manglick MP & Buchanan N: Imipramine in primary nocturnal enuresis and the value of blood level measurements. *Am J Psychiatry* 1973; 130:68-69.

674. Marazziti D, Giusti P, Rotondo A, et al: Imipramine receptors in human platelets: effect of age. *Int J Clin Pharm Res* 1990; 10:37-44.

675. Marco LA & Randels RM: Drug interactions in alcoholic patients. *Hillside J Clin Psychiatry* 1981; 3:27-44.

676. Marill KA & Runge T: Meta-analysis of the risk of torsades de pointes in patients treated with intravenous racemic sotalolol. *Emerg Med* 2001; 8(2):117-124.

677. Marks IM, Stern RS, Mawson D, et al: Clomipramine and exposure for obsessive-compulsive rituals: I. *Br J Psychiatry* 1987; 151:25.

678. Marlatt GA, Demming B, & Reid JB: Loss of control drinking in alcoholics: an experimental analogue. *J Abnorm Psychol* 1972; 81:233.

679. Marshall EJ: Why patients do not take their medication. *Am J Psychiatry* 1971; 128:656.

680. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982; 103:401-414.

681. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982a; 103:401-414.

682. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982aa; 103:401-414.

683. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ab; 103:401-414.

684. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ac; 103:401-414.

685. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ad; 103:401-414.

686. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ae; 103:401-414.

687. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982af; 103:401-414.

688. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ag; 103:401-414.

689. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ah; 103:401-414.

690. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ai; 103:401-414.
691. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982aj; 103:401-414.
692. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982b; 103:401-414.
693. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982c; 103:401-414.
694. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982d; 103:401-414.
695. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982e; 103:401-414.
696. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982f; 103:401-414.
697. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982g; 103:401-414.
698. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982h; 103:401-414.
699. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982i; 103:401-414.
700. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982j; 103:401-414.
701. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982k; 103:401-414.
702. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982l; 103:401-414.
703. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982m; 103:401-414.
704. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982n; 103:401-414.
705. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982o; 103:401-414.
706. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982p; 103:401-414.
707. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982q; 103:401-414.
708. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982r; 103:401-414.
709. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982s; 103:401-414.
710. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982t; 103:401-414.
711. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982u; 103:401-414.
712. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982v; 103:401-414.
713. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982w; 103:401-414.
714. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982x; 103:401-414.
715. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982y; 103:401-414.
716. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982z; 103:401-414.
717. Marshall JB & Forker AD: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressant drugs: therapeutic usage, overdose, and complications. *Am Heart J* 1982ak; 103:401-414.
718. Martin ICA & Leahy MR: Prediction in anti-depressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1968; 114:1289.
719. Martyn JAJ, Avernethy DR, & Greenblatt DJ: Plasma protein binding of drugs after severe burn injury. *Clin Pharma* 35:535-539.
720. Mason JW: A comparison of seven antiarrhythmic drugs in patients with ventricular tachyarrhythmias: electrophysiological monitoring investigators. *N Engl J Med* 1993; 329:452-458.
721. Masters WH & Johnson VE: Human sexual inadequacies, Little & Brown, Boston, 1979.
722. Mauro VF, Bingle JF, Ginn SM, et al: Torsade de pointes in a patient receiving intravenous vasopressin. *Crit Care I* 201.
723. Mavissakalian M & Perel JM: Clinical experiments in maintenance and discontinuation of imipramine therapy in par agoraphobia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1992a; 49:318-323.
724. Mavissakalian M & Perel JM: Protective effects of imipramine maintenance treatment in panic disorder with agoraphobia. *Psychiatry* 1992b; 149:1053-1057.

725. Mavissakalian M, Turner SM, Michelson L, et al: Tricyclic antidepressants in obsessive-compulsive disorder: antiob antidepressant agents? II. *Am J Psychiatry* 1985; 142:572-576.
726. Mavissakalian MR & Michelson L: Agoraphobia: relative and combined effectiveness of therapist-assisted in vivo exposure with imipramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:117-122.
727. Mavissakalian MR & Perel J: Imipramine in the treatment of agoraphobia: dose-response relationships. *Am J Psychiatry* 1986; 142:1032-1036.
728. Mavissakalian MR & Perel JM: Dose-response characterization of the antipanic effects of imipramine. *Psychopharmacology* 1986; 30:171-174.
729. Mavissakalian MR & Perel JM: Imipramine dose-response relationship in panic disorder with agoraphobia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1986; 43:127-131.
730. Mavissakalian MR & Perel JM: Long-term maintenance and discontinuation of imipramine therapy in panic disorder. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1999; 56:821-827.
731. Mavissakalian MR, Michelson L, & Dealy RS: Pharmacological treatment of agoraphobia: Imipramine versus imipramine programmed practice. *Br J Psychiatry* 1983; 143:348-355.
732. Mavissakalian MR, Perel J, & Michelson L: The relationship of plasma imipramine and N-desmethylimipramine to ir agoraphobia. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1984; 20:123-125.
733. Maxwell C & Seldrup J: Imipramine in the treatment of childhood enuresis. *Practitioner* 1971; 207:809.
734. May EF & Calvert PC: Aggravation of myasthenia gravis by erythromycin. *Ann Neurol* 1990; 28:577-579.
735. McClure DJ, Low GL, & Gent M: Clomipramine HCL - a double-blind study of a new antidepressant drug. *Can Psychol* 1973; 18:403-408.
736. McCue RE, Georgotas A, Nagachandran N, et al: Plasma levels of nortriptyline and 10-hydroxynortriptyline and tre electrocardiographic changes in the elderly depressed. *J Psychiatr Res* 1989; 23:71-79.
737. McEvoy JP, Libiger J, Wilson WH, et al: Viloxazine HCl in the treatment of endogenous depression: a standard (imipramine) controlled clinical study. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1982; 43:111-112.
738. McGrath PJ, Blood DK, Stewart JW, et al: A comparative study of the electrocardiographic effects of phenelzine, tri antidepressants, mianserin and placebo. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1987; 7:335-339.
739. McGrath PJ, Nunes EV, Stewart JW, et al: Imipramine treatment of alcoholics with primary depression: a placebo-controlled trial. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1996; 53:232-240.
740. McGrath PJ, Stewart JW, Janal MN, et al: A placebo-controlled study of fluoxetine versus imipramine in the acute to atypical depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 2000; 157:344-350.
741. McGrath PJ, Stewart JW, Quitkin FM, et al: Does imipramine worsen atypical depression?. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1996; 16:272.
742. McMahon CD, Shaffer RN, Hoskins HD, et al: Adverse effects experienced by patient taking timolol. *Am J Ophthalmol* 1980; 90:194-196.
743. McMahon FG: Management of essential hypertension, Furtura Publishing, New York, 1978, pp 194.
744. Meinhardt W, Kropman RF, Vermeij P, et al: The influence of medication on erectile function. *Int J Impot Res* 1997; 9:105-108.
745. Møller M, Lorentzen K, Bech P, et al: A trend analysis of changes during treatment of panic disorder with alprazolam. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1991; 365:28-32.
746. Melman A & Gingell JC: The epidemiology and pathophysiology of erectile dysfunction. *J Urol* 1999; 161:5-11.
747. Mendels J & Schless AP: Comparative efficacy of alprazolam, imipramine, and placebo administered once a day in depressed patients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:357-361.
748. Mendels J: Comparative trial of nortriptyline and amitriptyline in 100 depressed patients. *Am J Psychiatry* 1968; 124:124-126.
749. Mendelson JH, Ellingboe J, Keuhle JC, et al: Effect of naltrexone on mood and neuroendocrine function in normal subjects. *Psychoneuroendocrinology* 1978; 3:231.
750. Mendelson JH, Keuhle J, Ellingboe J, et al: Plasma testosterone levels before, during and after chronic marijuana use. *J Med* 1974; 291:1051.
751. Mendelson JH, Mello NK, & Ellingboe J: Effects of acute alcohol intake on pituitary-gonadal hormones in normal humans. *Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1977; 202:676.
752. Mendis N, Hanvella DRC, Weerasinghe C, et al: A double-blind comparative study: amineptine (Survector 100) versus imipramine. *Clin Neuropharmacol* 1989; 12(suppl 2):58-65.
753. Merideth CH & Feighner JP: A double-blind, controlled evaluation of zimeldine, imipramine and placebo in patients with affective disorders. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1983; 68(suppl 308):70-79.
754. Merideth CH, Feighner JP, & Hendrickson G: A double-blind comparative evaluation of the efficacy and safety of nortriptyline, imipramine, and placebo in depressed geriatric outpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984; 45:73-77.
755. Merigian KS & Browning RG: Desipramine and amantadine causing false-positive urine test for amphetamine (letter). *Med* 1993; 22:1927-1928.
756. Middleton RSW: A comparison between maprotiline (Ludiomil(R)) and imipramine in the treatment of depressive illness. *J Int Med Res* 1975; 3(suppl 2):79-83.
757. Miller DD & Macklin M: Cimetidine - imipramine interaction: a case report. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983; 140:351-352.
758. Miller DD & Macklin M: Cimetidine - imipramine interaction: a case report. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983a; 140:351-352.
759. Miller ME, Perry CJ, & Siris SG: Psychosis in association with combined cimetidine and imipramine treatment. *Psychopharmacology* 1983; 28:217-219.
760. Mills LC: Drug-induced impotence. *Am Fam Physician* 1975; 12:104.
761. Milne RJ & Goa KL: Citalopram: a review of its pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic properties, and therapeutic use in depressive illness. *Drugs* 1991; 41:450-477.
762. Milner G & Landauer AA: The effects of doxepin, alone and together with alcohol, in relation to driving safety. *Med* 1981; 1:837-841.
763. Milner G & Landauer AA: The effects of doxepin, alone and together with alcohol, in relation to driving safety. *Med* 1981; 1:837-841.

764. Ming ME, Bhawan J, & Stefanato CM: Imipramine-induced hyperpigmentation: four cases and a review of the literature. *Dermatol* 1999; 40(2 pt 1):159-166.
765. Minotti V, De Angelis V, Righetti E, et al: Double-blind evaluation of short-term analgesic efficacy of orally administered diclofenac plus codeine, and diclofenac plus imipramine in chronic cancer pain. *Pain* 1998; 74:133-137.
766. Mintz J, O'Hare K, & O'Brien CP: Sexual problems of heroin addicts. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1974; 31:700.
767. Mirin SM, Meyer RE, Mendelson JH, et al: Opiate use and sexual function. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:909.
768. Misurec J & Nahunek K: Die beeinflussung der konvulsionsbereitschaft durch einige tricyclische antidepressiva. *Arzt* 1969; 19:429.
769. Mitchell JE & Popkin MK: Antidepressant drug therapy and sexual dysfunction in men: a review. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1982; 2:133-137.
770. Mitchell JE & Popkin MK: Antipsychotic drug therapy and sexual dysfunction in men. *Am J Psychiatry* 1982; 139:63.
771. Mitchell JR, Arias L, & Oates JA: Antagonism of the antihypertensive action of guanethidine sulfate by desipramine. *JAMA* 1967; 202:973-976.
772. Mitchell JR, Arias L, & Oates JA: Antagonism of the antihypertensive action of guanethidine sulfate by desipramine. *JAMA* 1967a; 202:973-976.
773. Mitchell JR, Cavanaugh JH, Arias L, et al: Guanethidine and related agents. III. Antagonism by drugs which inhibit the sodium pump in man. *J Clin Invest* 1970; 49:1596-1604.
774. Mitler MM, Nelson S, & Hajdukovic RF: Narcolepsy: diagnosis, treatment, and management. *Psychiatr Clin North Am* 1986; 9:606.
775. Mitler MM, Shafor R, Hajdukovich R, et al: Treatment of narcolepsy: objective studies on methylphenidate, pemoline, and protriptyline. *Sleep* 1986; 9:260-264.
776. Moir DC, Cornwell WB, Dingwall-Fordyce I, et al: Cardiotoxicity of amitriptyline. *Lancet* 1972a; 2(7777):561-564.
777. Moir DC, Crooks J, Cornwell WB, et al: Cardiotoxicity of amitriptyline. *Lancet* 1972; 2:561-564.
778. Moller HJ & Volz HP: Brofaromine in major depressed patients: a controlled clinical trial versus imipramine and placebo over one year. *J Affect Dis* 1992; 26:163-172.
779. Montgomery SA: Novel selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors. Part 1. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1992; 53:107-112.
780. Moody JP, Whyte SF, MacDonald AJ, et al: Pharmacokinetic aspects of protriptyline plasma levels. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; 11:51-56.
781. Moore DC: Amitriptyline therapy in anorexia nervosa. *Am J Psychiatry* 1977; 134:1303-1304.
782. Moore MR & Hift RJ: Drugs in the acute porphyrias--toxicogenetic diseases. *Cell Mol Biol (Noisy-le-grand)* 1997; 43:1-12.
783. Moore R: Naloxone in the treatment of anorexia nervosa: Effect on weight gain and lipolysis. *J Royal Soc Med* 1988; 81:100-102.
784. Moorehead CN & Knox SJ: Imipramine-Induced Auricular Fibrillation. *Am J Psychiatry* 1965; 122:217.
785. Morinobu S, Tanaka T, Kawakatsu S, et al: Effects of genetic defects in the CYP2C19 gene on the N-demethylator and clinical outcome of imipramine therapy. *Psychiatr Clin Neurosci* 1997; 51:253-257.
786. Morrow PL, Hardin NJ, & Bonadies J: Hypersensitivity myocarditis and hepatitis associated with imipramine and its desipramine. *J Forensic Sci* 1989; 34:1016-1020.
787. Moskovitz R, DeVane CL, Harris R, et al: Toxic hepatitis and single daily dosage imipramine therapy. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1988; 49:166.
788. Mouret J, Lemoine P, Sanchez P, et al: Treatment of narcolepsy with L-tyrosine. *Lancet* 1988; 2:1458-1459.
789. Munger MA & Efron BA: Amoxapine cardiotoxicity. *Am J Med* 1988; 17:274-278.
790. Munjack DJ: Sex and Drugs. *Clin Toxicol* 1979; 15:75.
791. Murphy JE, Donald JF, & Molla AL: Mianserin in the treatment of depression in general practice. *Practitioner* 1976; 116:251-260.
792. Murphy JE: A comparative clinical trial of Org GB94 and imipramine in the treatment of depression in general practice. *Br J Psychiatry* 1975; 127:251-260.
793. Nagy A & Treiber L: Quantitative determination of imipramine and desipramine in human blood plasma. *J Pharm Biomed Sci* 1985; 25:599.
794. Nair NPV & Schwartz G: Viloxazine in the treatment of endogenous depression. *Curr Ther Res* 1982; 31:969-975.
795. Nemeroff CB, Evans DL, Gyulai L, et al: Efficacy of imipramine and paroxetine in the treatment of bipolar depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 2001; 158(6):906-912.
796. Neshkes RE, Gerner R, Jarvik LF, et al: Orthostatic effect of imipramine and doxepin in depressed geriatric outpatients. *Psychopharmacol* 1985; 5:102-106.
797. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993; 342:1419.
798. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993a; 342:1419.
799. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993b; 342:1419.
800. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993c; 342:1419.
801. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993d; 342:1419.
802. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993e; 342:1419.
803. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993f; 342:1419.
804. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993g; 342:1419.
805. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalopram and moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993h; 342:1419.

806. Neuvonen PJ, Pohjola-Sintonen S, Tacke U, et al: Five fatal cases of serotonin syndrome after moclobemide-citalo moclobemide-clomipramine overdoses (letter). *Lancet* 1993i; 342:1419.

807. Newman RJ & Salerno HR: Sexual dysfunction due to methyl dopa. *Br Med J* 1974; 4:106.

808. Nishikawa T, Tsuda A, Tanaka M, et al: Prophylactic effect of neuroleptics in symptom-free schizophrenics. *Psych* 1982; 77:301-304.

809. Norton KR, Sireling LI, Bhat AV, et al: A double-blind comparison of fluvoxamine, imipramine and placebo in depre: *Affect Disord* 1984; 7:297-308.

810. Nulman I, Rovet J, Steward DE, et al: Child development following exposure to tricyclic antidepressants or fluoxetine life: A prospective, controlled study. *Am J Psychiatry* 2002; 159(11):1889-1895.

811. Nunes EV, Quitkin FM, Donovan SJ et al: Imipramine treatment of opiate-dependent patients with depressive disor controlled trial. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1998; 55:153-160, 1998.

812. Nurnberg HG & Coccaro EF: Response of panic disorder and resistance of depression to imipramine. *Am J Psychi* 139:1060-1062.

813. O'Brien JM, Rockwood RP, & Suh KI: Haloperidol-induced torsade de pointes. *Ann Pharmacother* 1999; 33:1046-1

814. Ober KF & Wang RI: Drug interactions with guanethidine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1973; 14:190-195.

815. Ober KF & Wang RI: Drug interactions with guanethidine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1973a; 14:190-195.

816. Oberg KC & Bauman JL: QT interval prolongation and torsades de pointes due to erythromycin lactobionate. *Pharm* 15(6):687-692.

817. Oberg KC & Bauman JL: QT interval prolongation and torsades de pointes due to erythromycin lactobionate. *Pharm* 1995a; 15(6):687-692.

818. Ohrberg S, Christiansen PE, Severin B, et al: Paroxetine and imipramine in the treatment of depressive patients in practice. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1992; 86:437-444.

819. Olivier-Martin R, Marzin D, Buschenschutz E, et al: Concentration plasmatiques dell'imipramine et de la desmethylil antidepressur au cours d'un traitement controls. *Psychopharmacologia* 1975; 41:187.

820. Olness K: Comparison of self-hypnosis and propranolol in the treatment of juvenile classic migraine. *Pediatrics* 198

821. Onesti G, Bock KD, Heimsoth U, et al: Clonidine: a new antihypertensive agent. *Am J Cardiol* 1971; 28:74.

822. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

823. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

824. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

825. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

826. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

827. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

828. Oppenheim G: Estrogens in the treatment of depression: neuropharmacological mechanisms. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983

829. Overall JE, Donachie ND, & Faillace LA: Implications of restrictive diagnosis for compliance to antidepressant drug alprazolam versus imipramine. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1987; 48:51-54.

830. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacott* (3):310-319.

831. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacott* (3):310-319.

832. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacott* (3):310-319.

833. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacott* (3):310-319.

834. Owens R: Risk assessment for antimicrobial agent-induced QTc prolongation and torsades de pointes. *Pharmacott* (3):310-319.

835. Pallmeyer TP & Petti TA: Effects of imipramine on aggression and dejection in depressed children. *Am J Psychiatry*

836. Palmer JD & Nugent CA: Guanadrel sulfate: a postganglionic sympathetic inhibitor for the treatment of mild to mode *Pharmacotherapy* 1983; 3:220.

837. Pancheri P, Scapicchio P, & Delle Chiaie R: A double-blind, randomized parallel-group, efficacy and safety study of adenosyl-L-methionine 1,4- butanedisulphonate (SAME) versus imipramine in patients with major depressive disor *Neuropsychopharmacol* 2002; 5:287-294.

838. Papadopoulos C: Cardiovascular drugs and sexuality. A cardiologist's review. *Arch Intern Med* 1980; 140:1341.

839. Parraga HC & Cochran MK: Emergence of motor and vocal tics during imipramine administration in two children. *J Psychopharmacol* 1992; 2:227-234.

840. Pascuzzi RM: Medications and myasthenia gravis.. Available at <http://www.myasthenia.org/drugs/reference.htm> (ci October, 2000).

841. Patel YJ, Scherl ND, Elias S, et al: Ischemic colitis associated with psychotropic drugs. *Dig Dis Sci* 1992; 37:1148-

842. Patman J, Landauer AA, & Milner G: The combined effect of alcohol and amitriptyline on skills similar to motor-car i 1969; 2:946-949.

843. Peck AW: Incidence of seizures during treatment of tricyclic antidepressant drugs and bupropion. *J Clin Psychiatry*

844. Pecknold JC, Chang H, Fleury D, et al: Platelet imipramine binding in patients with panic disorder and major familia *Psychiatr Res* 1987; 21:319-326.

845. Penick SB & Carrier RN: Asymptomatic eosinophilia during imipramine therapy. *J Med Soc N J* 1967; 64:522.

846. Perel JM, Hurwic MJ, & Kanzler MB: Pharmacodynamics of imipramine in depressed patients. *Psychopharmacol B*

847. Perrin JM, Friedman RA, & Knilans TK: Cardiovascular monitoring and stimulant drugs for attention-deficit/hyperac *Pediatrics* 2008; 122(2):451-453.

848. Perry GF, Fitzsimmons B, Shapiro L, et al: Clinical study of mianserin, imipramine and placebo in depression: blood correlations. *Proceedings of a symposium on mianserin. Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1978; 5(suppl 1):35S-41S.

849. Perry HM: Treatment of mild hypertension: preliminary results of a two-year feasibility trial. *Circ Res* 1977; 40:1180
850. Perry NK: Venlafaxine-induced serotonin syndrome with relapse following amitriptyline. *Postgrad Med J* 2000; 76:2
851. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991.
852. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991a.
853. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991b.
854. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991c.
855. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991d.
856. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991e.
857. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991f.
858. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991g.
859. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991h.
860. Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Perry PJ, Alexander B, & Liskow BI: Psychotropic Drug Handbook, 6th. Harvey Company, Cincinnati, OH, 1991i.
861. Personal Communication: Jose F Gonzalez, MD, Executive Director Medical Services. McNeil Pharmaceutical, Spr November 6, 1990.
862. Personal Communication: Jose F Gonzalez, MD, Executive Director Medical Services. McNeil Pharmaceutical, Spr November 6, 1990a.
863. Perucca E & Richens A: Interaction between phenytoin and imipramine. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1977; 4:485-486.
864. Perucca E & Richens A: Interaction between phenytoin and imipramine. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1977a; 4:485-486.
865. Peselow ED, Deutsch SI, & Fieve RR: Imipramine plasma levels and clinical response in depressed outpatients. *Rt Psychiatry Behav* 1983; 8:75-83.
866. Peselow ED, Fieve RR, Goldring N, et al: The DST and clinical symptoms in predicting response to tricyclic antidepressants. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1983a; 19:642-645.
867. Peselow ED, Filippi AM, Goodnick P, et al: The short- and long-term efficacy of paroxetine HCl: A. Data from a 6-week parallel design trial vs imipramine and placebo. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1989; 25:267-271.
868. Peselow ED, Filippi AM, Goodnick P, et al: The short- and long-term efficacy of paroxetine HCl: B. Data from a double-blind study and from a year-long term trial vs imipramine and placebo. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1989a; 25:272-276.
869. Petersen KE, Andersen OO, & Hansen T: Mode of action and relative value of imipramine and similar drugs on the enuresis. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1974; 7:187.
870. Petrie WM, McEvoy JP, Wilson WH, et al: Viloxazine in the treatment of depressive neurosis: a placebo and double-blind controlled clinical study. *Int Pharmacopsychiatry* 1980; 15:193-196.
871. Petti TA & Campbell M: Imipramine and seizures. *Am J Psychiatry* 1975; 132:538-540.
872. Petti TA & Campbell M: Imipramine and seizures. *Am J Psychiatry* 1975a; 132:538-540.
873. Petti TA & Campbell M: Imipramine and seizures. *Am J Psychiatry* 1975b; 132:538.
874. Petti TA & Connors CK: Changes in behavioral ratings of depressed children treated with imipramine. *J Am Acad Child Psychiatry* 1983; 22:355-360.
875. Petti TA & Law W: Abrupt cessation of high-dose imipramine treatment in children. *JAMA* 1981; 246:768-769.
876. Pichot P, Dreyfus JF, & Pull C: A double-blind multicentre trial comparing mianserine with imipramine. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1985; 5:87S-90S.
877. Pillans PI & Woods DJ: Adverse reactions associated with nefopam. *NZ Med J* 1995; 108:832-834.
878. Pillay VKG: Some side-effects of alpha-methyldopa. *S Afr Med J* 1976; 50:625.
879. Pina Latorre MA & Cobeta JC Rodilla F: Influence of calcium antagonist drugs in myasthenia gravis in the elderly. *J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol* 1998; 23(5):399-401.
880. Pinder RM, Brogden RN, Speight TM, et al: Doxepin up-to-date: a review of its pharmacological properties and their clinical uses with particular reference to depression. *Drugs* 1977a; 13:161-218.
881. Pinder RM, Brogden RN, Speight TM, et al: Doxepin up-to-date: a review of its pharmacological properties and their clinical uses with particular reference to depression. *Drugs* 1977; 13:161-218.
882. Pitts NE: A clinical evaluation of prazosin, a new antihypertensive agent. *Postgrad Med* 1975; 58:117.
883. Pohl R, Balon R, Yeragani VK, et al: Serotonergic anxiolytics in the treatment of panic disorder: a controlled study. *J Affect Disord* 1989; 22(suppl 1):60-67.
884. Pollack MH, Otto MW, Sachs GS, et al: Anxiety psychopathology predictive of outcome in patients with panic disorder treated with imipramine, alprazolam and placebo. *J Affect Disord* 1994; 30:273-281.
885. Pollack R: An oral syndrome complicating psychopharmacotherapy: study II. *Am J Psychiatry* 1964; 121:384.
886. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1999.
887. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1999.
888. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1999.

889. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

890. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

891. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

892. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

893. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

894. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

895. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

896. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

897. Pond SM, Graham GG, Birkett DJ, et al: Effects of tricyclic antidepressants on drug metabolism. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 199.

898. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977; 34:954-961.

899. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977a; 34:954-961.

900. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977b; 34:954-961.

901. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977c; 34:954-961.

902. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977d; 34:954-961.

903. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977e; 34:954-961.

904. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977f; 34:954-961.

905. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977g; 34:954-961.

906. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977h; 34:954-961.

907. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977i; 34:954-961.

908. Ponto LB, Perry PJ, Liskow BI, et al: Drug therapy reviews: tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor therapy. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977j; 34:954-961.

909. Pope HG, Hudson JI, & Jonas JM: Antidepressant treatment of bulimia: preliminary experience and practical recommendations. *Psychopharmacol* 1983; 3:274-281.

910. Pope HG, Hudson JI, Jonas JM, et al: Antidepressant treatment of bulimia: a two year follow-up study. *J Clin Psych* 5:320-327.

911. Pope HG, Hudson JI, Jonas JM, et al: Bulimia treated with imipramine: A placebo-controlled, double-blind study. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983a; 140:554-558.

912. Powell WJ, Koch-Weser J, & Williams RA: Lethal hepatic necrosis after therapy with imipramine and desipramine. *Am J Psychiatry* 1966; 106:642.

913. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972; 219:143-144.

914. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972a; 219:143-144.

915. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972b; 219:143-144.

916. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972c; 219:143-144.

917. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972d; 219:143-144.

918. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972e; 219:143-144.

919. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972f; 219:143-144.

920. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972g; 219:143-144.

921. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972h; 219:143-144.

922. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972i; 219:143-144.

923. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972j; 219:143-144.

924. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972k; 219:143-144.

925. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972l; 219:143-144.

926. Prange AJ Jr: Estrogens may well affect response to antidepressants. *JAMA* 1972m; 219:143-144.

927. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluoxetine. *Psychopharmacol* 1994; 14:90-98.

928. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluoxetine. *Psychopharmacol* 1994a; 14:90-98.

929. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluoxetine. *Psychopharmacol* 1994b; 14:90-98.

930. Preskorn SH, Alderman J, Chung M, et al: Pharmacokinetics of desipramine coadministered with sertraline or fluox Psychopharmacol 1994c; 14:90-98.
931. Preskorn SH, Beber JH, Faul JC, et al: Serious adverse effects of combining fluoxetine and tricyclic antidepressant Psychiatry 1990; 147:532.
932. Preskorn SH, Weller EB, & Weller RA: Depression in children: relationship between plasma imipramine levels and Psychiatry 1982; 43:450-453.
933. Preskorn SH, Weller EB, Weller RA, et al: Plasma levels of imipramine and adverse effects in children. Am J Psych 140:1332-1335.
934. Price LH, Charney DS, Delgado PL, et al: Fenfluramine augmentation in tricyclic-refractory depression. J Clin Psych 1990; 10:312-317.
935. Price LH, Charney DS, Delgado PL, et al: Fenfluramine augmentation in tricyclic-refractory depression. J Clin Psych 1990a; 10:312-317.
936. Product Information: ADDERALL(R) oral tablets, dextroamphetamine saccharate, amphetamine aspartate monohydrate, dextroamphetamine sulfate, amphetamine sulfate oral tablets. Shire US Inc, Wayne, PA, 2006.
937. Product Information: AZILECT(R) oral tablets, rasagiline oral tablets. Teva Pharmaceuticals, Kfar Saba, Israel, 200
938. Product Information: Agenerase(R), amprenavir. Glaxo Wellcome Inc., Research Triangle Park, NC, 2000.
939. Product Information: Anzemet(R), dolasetron. Hoechst Marion Roussel, Inc., Kansas City, MO, 1997.
940. Product Information: Aralen(R), chloroquine phosphate (oral), chloroquine hydrochloride (intravenous). Sanofi Phar York, NY, 1999.
941. Product Information: Avelox(TM), moxifloxacin hydrochloride. Bayer Corporation, West Haven, CT, 2000.
942. Product Information: BROVANA(TM) inhalation solution, arformoterol tartrate inhalation solution. Sepracor, Inc, Mar 2006.
943. Product Information: Betapace(R), sotalol HCl. Berlex Laboratories, Wayne, NJ, 1996.
944. Product Information: Biaxin(R), clarithromycin. Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, IL, 2002.
945. Product Information: COARTEM(R) oral tablets, artemether lumefantrine oral tablets. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Co Hanover, NJ, 2009.
946. Product Information: CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, duloxetine hcl delayed-release oral capsules. I Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2008.
947. Product Information: Catapres(R), clonidine. Boehringer Ingelheim Pharmaceuticals, Inc., Ridgefield, CT, 1996.
948. Product Information: Celexa(TM), citalopram hydrobromide. Forest Pharmaceuticals, Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2002.
949. Product Information: Cerebyx(R), fosphenytoin sodium injection. Parke-Davis, Division of Warner-Lambert, Morris F
950. Product Information: Compazine(R), prochlorperazine maleate spansule. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park
951. Product Information: Corvert(R), ibutilide fumarate injection. Pharmacia & Upjohn Company, Kalamazoo, MI, 2000.
952. Product Information: DAYTRANA(TM) transdermal system, methylphenidate transdermal system. Shire US Inc., W
953. Product Information: DEXEDRINE(R) sustained-release oral capsules, oral tablets, dextroamphetamine sulfate sus capsules, oral tablets. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2006.
954. Product Information: DynaCirc(R), isradipine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2000.
955. Product Information: EMSAM(R) transdermal patch, selegiline transdermal patch. Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, I 2006.
956. Product Information: Effexor(R) XR, venlafaxine hydrochloride extended-release. Wyeth Laboratories, Philadelphia
957. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999.
958. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999a.
959. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999b.
960. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999c.
961. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999d.
962. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999e.
963. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999f.
964. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999g.
965. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999h.
966. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999i.
967. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999j.
968. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999k.
969. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999l.
970. Product Information: Elavil(R), amitriptyline. Merck & Co, Inc, West Point, PA, 1999m.
971. Product Information: Enablex, darifenacin. Pfizer Inc., Brooklyn, New York, USA, 2004.
972. Product Information: FORADIL(R) AEROLIZER(R) inhalation powder, formoterol fumarate inhalation powder. Sche Kenilworth, NJ, 2006.
973. Product Information: Factive(R), gemifloxacin mesylate tablets. LG Life Sciences, Ltd., Seoul, Korea, 2003.
974. Product Information: Foscavir(R), foscarnet. AstraZeneca, Inc., Alexandria, VA, 1998.
975. Product Information: GEODON(R) oral capsules, IM injection, ziprasidone hcl oral capsules, ziprasidone mesylate I Pfizer, Inc, New York, NY, 2007.
976. Product Information: GenESA(R), arbutamine hydrochloride. Gensia Automedics, Inc., San Diego, CA, 1997.
977. Product Information: Halfan(R), halofantrine hydrochloride. Research Triangle Park, NC, 1998.
978. Product Information: Hismanal(R), astemizole. Janssen Pharmaceutica, Inc., Titusville, NJ, 1996.
979. Product Information: Hylorel(R), guanadrel. Fisons Corporation, Rochester, NY, 1995.
980. Product Information: Inapsine(R), droperidol. Akorn, Inc., Decatur, IL, 2002.
981. Product Information: Invirase(R), saquinavir mesylate. Roche Pharmaceuticals, Nutley, NJ, 2003.
982. Product Information: LEXIVA(R) oral solution, oral tablets, fosamprenavir calcium oral solution, oral tablets. GlaxoS

- Research Triangle Park, NC, 2009.
983. Product Information: Manerix(R), Moclobemide. Hoffmann-La Roche Limited, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada, 2001.
 984. Product Information: Marplan(R), isocarboxazid. Roche Laboratories Inc., Nutley, NJ, 1998.
 985. Product Information: Matulane(R), procarbazine. Roche Laboratories Inc., Nutley, NJ, 1997.
 986. Product Information: Mellaril(R), thioridazine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, New Jersey, 2001.
 987. Product Information: NARDIL(R) Tablets, USP, phenelzine sulfate tablets, USP. Parke-Davis, New York, NY, 2005.
 988. Product Information: NIRAVAM(TM) orally disintegrating tablet, alprazolam orally disintegrating tablet. Schwarz Pharma, Inc., Kenilworth, NJ, 2003.
 989. Product Information: Naropin(TM), ropivacaine injection. Astra USA, Inc., Westborough, MA, 1996.
 990. Product Information: Norpramin(R), desipramine hydrochloride tablets. Aventis Pharmaceuticals Inc., Kansas City, MO, 1999.
 991. Product Information: Norvir(R), zidovudine. Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, IL, 1999.
 992. Product Information: Orap(R) pimozone. TEVA Pharmaceuticals, Sellersville, PA, 1999.
 993. Product Information: Orap(R), pimozone. Gate Pharmaceuticals, Sellersville, PA, 1999.
 994. Product Information: Orap(R), pimozone. Gate Pharmaceuticals, Sellersville, PA, 1999a.
 995. Product Information: Orlaam(R), levomethadyl. Roxane Laboratories, Inc., 2001.
 996. Product Information: PCE(R), erythromycin particles in tablets. Abbott Laboratories, North Chicago, IL, 1997.
 997. Product Information: Pamelor(R), nortriptyline. Mallinckrodt Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2001.
 998. Product Information: Parnate(R), tranlycypromine sulfate tablets. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2001.
 999. Product Information: Paxil CR(TM), paroxetine. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2003.
 1000. Product Information: Posicor(R), mibefradil dihydrochloride. Roche Laboratories Inc., Nutley, NJ, 1997.
 1001. Product Information: Propulsid(R), cisapride. Janssen Pharmaceutica Inc., Titusville, NJ, 2000.
 1002. Product Information: Prozac(R), fluoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2001.
 1003. Product Information: Quinaglute(R), quinidine gluconate. Berlex Laboratories, Inc., Wayne, NJ, 1999.
 1004. Product Information: Raxar(R), grepafloxacin hydrochloride. Glaxo Wellcome Inc., Research Triangle Park, NC, 1999.
 1005. Product Information: Reyataz(TM), atazanavir. Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, Princeton, NJ, 2003.
 1006. Product Information: SEREVENT(R) DISKUS(R) inhalation powder, salmeterol xinafoate inhalation powder. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2006.
 1007. Product Information: Sandostatin(R), octreotide. Novartis Pharmaceuticals, East Hanover, NJ, 1999.
 1008. Product Information: Serentil(R), mesoridazine. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2001.
 1009. Product Information: Solian(R), amisulpride tablets. Lorex Synthelabo, Maidenhead, Berkshire, UK, 1999.
 1010. Product Information: Stelazine(R), trifluoperazine hydrochloride. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2001.
 1011. Product Information: Strattera(TM), atomoxetine. Eli Lilly and Company, Indianapolis, IN, 2002.
 1012. Product Information: Syprine(R), trientine hydrochloride. Merck & Co., Inc., West Point, PA, 2001.
 1013. Product Information: TOFRANIL(R) tablets, imipramine hydrochloride tablets. Mallinckrodt Inc., St. Louis, MO, 2001.
 1014. Product Information: TOFRANIL-PM(R) capsules, imipramine pamoate capsules. Novartis Pharmaceuticals Corporation, East Hanover, NJ, 2005.
 1015. Product Information: TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsule, imipramine pamoate oral capsule. Mallinckrodt Inc, St. Louis, MO, 2005.
 1016. Product Information: TOFRANIL-PM(R) oral capsules, imipramine pamoate oral capsules. Mallinckrodt, Inc, Hazelwood, MO, 2005.
 1017. Product Information: Tambacor(R) flecainide acetate. 3M Pharmaceuticals, Northridge, CA, 1998.
 1018. Product Information: Tequin(TM), gatifloxacin. Bristol-Myers Squibb Company, Princeton, NJ, 1999.
 1019. Product Information: Thorazine(R), chlorpromazine. Smithkline Beecham Pharmaceuticals, Philadelphia, PA, 2002.
 1020. Product Information: Tofranil(R), Imipramine. Geigy Pharmaceuticals, Summit, NJ, 1995.
 1021. Product Information: Tofranil(R), Imipramine. Geigy Pharmaceuticals, Summit, NJ, 1995a.
 1022. Product Information: Tofranil(R), Imipramine. Geigy Pharmaceuticals, Summit, NJ, 1995b.
 1023. Product Information: Trisenox(R), arsenic trioxide. Cell Therapeutics, Inc., Seattle, WA, 2000.
 1024. Product Information: Trisenox(R), arsenic trioxide. Cell Therapeutics, Inc., Seattle, WA, 2000a.
 1025. Product Information: Ultram(R), tramadol hydrochloride. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceutical, Raritan, NJ, 1998.
 1026. Product Information: VYVANSE(TM) oral capsules, lisdexamfetamine dimesylate oral capsules. New River Pharmaceuticals, Blacksburg, VA, 2007.
 1027. Product Information: Vascor(R), bepridil hydrochloride. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceuticals, Raritan, NJ, 2000.
 1028. Product Information: Vivactil(R), nortriptyline. Merck & Co Inc, Westpoint, PA, 1999.
 1029. Product Information: Wellbutrin XL(TM), bupropion hydrochloride extended-release tablets. GlaxoSmithKline, Research Triangle Park, NC, 2003.
 1030. Product Information: ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, linezolid IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension. Pharmacia & Upjohn Company, New York, NY, 2008.
 1031. Product Information: Zagam(R), sparfloxacin. Rhone-Poulenc Rorer Pharmaceuticals Inc, Collegeville, PA, 1998.
 1032. Product Information: Zagam(R), sparfloxacin. Rhone-Poulenc Rorer Pharmaceuticals Inc, Collegeville, PA, 1998a.
 1033. Product Information: Zolof(R), sertraline hydrochloride. Roerig Division of Pfizer Inc, New York, NY, 1999.
 1034. Product Information: Zomig(R), zolmitriptan tablets. AstraZeneca Pharmaceuticals, Wilmington, DE, 2001.
 1035. Product Information: Zyban(R), bupropion hydrochloride. Glaxo Wellcome, Inc., Research Triangle Park, NC, 2000.
 1036. Product Information: imipramine hcl oral tablets, imipramine hcl oral tablets. Par Pharmaceutical Companies, Inc, Syosset, NY, 2007.
 1037. Product Information: imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet, imipramine hydrochloride oral tablet. Par Pharmaceutical Companies, Inc, Syosset, NY, 2003.
 1038. Product Information: selegiline hydrochloride oral tablet, USP, selegiline hydrochloride oral tablet, USP. Par Pharmaceutical Companies, Inc, Spring Valley, NY, 2003.
 1039. Product Information: tapentadol immediate release oral tablets, tapentadol immediate release oral tablets. Ortho-McNeil Pharmaceuticals Inc, Raritan, NJ, 2008.

1040. Product Information: venlafaxine extended release oral tablets, venlafaxine extended release oral tablets. Upstate I Rochester, NY, 2008.
1041. Quintana J: Platelet MAO deamination of serotonin in depressed patients: changes after imipramine treatment and correlations. *Biol Psychiatry* 1988; 23:44-52.
1042. Quitkin FM, McGrath PJ, Stewart JW, et al: Atypical depression, panic attacks, and response to imipramine and ph *Psychiatry* 1990; 47:935-941.
1043. Quitkin FM, McGrath PJ, Stewart JW, et al: Phenelzine and imipramine in mood reactive depressives: further delin syndrome of atypical depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1989; 46:787-793.
1044. Quitkin FM, Stewart JW, McGrath PJ, et al: Columbia atypical depression: a subgroup of depressives with better re than to tricyclic antidepressants or placebo. *Br J Psychiatry* 1993; 163(suppl 21):30-34.
1045. Quitkin FM, Stewart JW, McGrath PJ, et al: Phenelzine versus imipramine in the treatment of probable atypical dep syndrome boundaries of selective MAOI responders. *Am J Psychiatry* 1988; 145:306-311.
1046. Rabey JM, Moriel EZ, Farkas A, et al: Detrusor hyperreflexia in multiple sclerosis. *Eur Neurol* 1979; 18:33.
1047. Racy J & Ward-Racy EA: Tinnitus in imipramine therapy. *Am J Psychiatry* 1980; 137(7):854-855.
1048. Raisfeld IH: Cardiovascular complications of antidepressant therapy. Interactions at the adrenergic neuron. *Am He*: 133.
1049. Rampling DJ: Aggression: a paradoxical response to tricyclic antidepressants. *Am J Psychiatry* 1978; 135:117.
1050. Rampling DJ: Imipramine and aggression. *Med J Aust* 1976; 1:894.
1051. Rancurello MD: Clinical applications of antidepressant drugs in childhood behavioral and emotional disorders. *Psych* 15:88-100.
1052. Rancurello MD: Clinical applications of antidepressant drugs in childhood behavioral and emotional disorders. *Psych* 15:88-100.
1053. Rao AV: Imipramine induced auricular fibrillation. *J Indian Med Assoc* 1966; 47:36.
1054. Rapoport JL, Mikkelsen EJ, Zavadil A, et al: Childhood enuresis. II. Psychopathology, tricyclic concentration in plas antienuretic effect. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1980; 37:1146-1152.
1055. Rapoport JL, Mikkelsen EJ, Zavadil A, et al: Childhood enuresis. II. Psychopathology, tricyclic concentration in plas antienuretic effect. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1980a; 37:1146-1152.
1056. Rapoport JL, Mikkelsen EJ, Zavadil A, et al: Childhood enuresis. II. Psychopathology, tricyclic concentration in plas antienuretic effect. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1980b; 37:1146-1152.
1057. Raskind M, Veith R, Barnes R, et al: Cardiovascular and antidepressant effects of imipramine in the treatment of se depression in patients with ischemic heart disease. *Am J Psychiatry* 1982; 139:1114-1117.
1058. Ray WA, Griffin MR, Schaffner W, et al: Psychotropic drug use and the risk of hip fracture. *N Engl J Med* 1987; 316
1059. Ray WA, Meredith S, Thapa PB, et al: Cyclic antidepressants and the risk of sudden cardiac death. *Clin Pharmacol* (3):234-241.
1060. Regan WM, Margolin RA, & Mathew RJ: Cardiac arrhythmia following rapid imipramine withdrawal. *Biol Psychiatry*
1061. Reilly PP: *RI Med J* 1977; 60:455-456. *RI Med J* 1977; 60:455-456.
1062. Remick RA: Diagnosis and management of depression in primary care: a clinical update and review.. *CMAJ*. 2002;
1063. Richmond PW & Roberts AH: A comparative trial of imipramine, amitriptyline, isocarboxazid and tranlycypromine in depressive illness. *Br J Psychiatry* 1964; 110:846.
1064. Rickels J & Schweizer E: Panic disorder: long-term pharmacotherapy and discontinuation. *J Clin Psychopharmac* 2):12s-18s.
1065. Rickels K, Case WG, Werblowsky J, et al: Amoxapine and imipramine in the treatment of depressed outpatients: a *Am J Psychiatry* 1981; 138:20-24.
1066. Rickels K, Chung HR, Csanalosi IB, et al: Alprazolam, diazepam, imipramine, and placebo in outpatients with majo *Gen Psychiatry* 1987; 44:862-866.
1067. Rickels K, Chung HR, Csanalosi IB, et al: Alprazolam, diazepam, imipramine, and placebo in outpatients with majo *Gen Psychiatry* 1987a; 44:862-866.
1068. Rickels K, Cohen D, Csanalosi I, et al: Alprazolam and imipramine in depressed outpatients: a controlled study. *Cu* 32:157-164.
1069. Rickels K, Weise CC, Zal HM, et al: Lofepramine and imipramine in unipolar depressed outpatients. *Acta Psychiatr* 66:109-120.
1070. Riddiough MA: Preventing, detecting and managing adverse reactions of antihypertensive agents in the ambulant p essential hypertension. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1977; 39:465.
1071. Rieger W, Rickels K, Norstad N, et al: Maprotiline (Ludiomil(R)) and imipramine in depressed in-patients: a controll *Res* 1975; 3:413-416.
1072. Rifkin A, Saraf K, Kane J, et al: A comparison of trimipramine and imipramine: a controlled study. *J Clin Psychiatry*
1073. Robinson D, Napoliello MJ, & Schenk J: The safety and usefulness of buspirone as an anxiolytic drug in elderly ver patients. *Clin Ther* 1988; 10:740-746.
1074. Rocca P, Fonzo V, Scotta M, et al: Paroxetine efficacy in the treatment of generalized anxiety disorder. *Acta Psych* 95:444-450.
1075. Rocca P, Fonzo V, Scotta M, et al: Paroxetine efficacy in the treatment of generalized anxiety disorders. *Acta Psych* 95:444-450.
1076. Rodriguez I, Kilborn MJ, Liu XK, et al: Drug-induced QT prolongation in women during the menstrual cycle. *JAMA* 2 (10):1322-1326.
1077. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.
1078. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.

1079. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.

1080. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.

1081. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.

1082. Rom WN & Benner EJ: Toxicity by interaction of tricyclic antidepressant and monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Calif Me* 66.

1083. Roos JC: Cardiac effects of antidepressant drugs: a comparison of the tricyclic antidepressants and fluvoxamine. *B* 1983; 15(suppl 3):439S-445S.

1084. Roose SP, Glassman AH, Giardina EGV, et al: Cardiovascular effects of imipramine and bupropion in depressed p congestive heart failure. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1987; 7:247-251.

1085. Roose SP, Glassman AH, Giardina EGV, et al: Tricyclic antidepressants in depressed patients with cardiac conduc *Gen Psychiatry* 1987a; 44:273-275.

1086. Roots I, Johnne A, Schmider J, et al: Interaction of a herbal extract from St. John's Wort with amitriptyline and its me (abstract). *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2000; 67(2):159.

1087. Rose JT & Westhead TT: Comparison of desipramine and imipramine in depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1964; 121:45

1088. Rose JT & Westhead TT: Treatment of depression: a comparative trial of imipramine and desipramine. *Br J Psychi* 113:659.

1089. Rose JT, Leahy MR, Martin ICA, et al: A comparison of nortriptyline and amitriptyline in depression. *Br J Psychiatry*

1090. Rose LE, Underwood RH, Newmark SR, et al: Pathophysiology of spironolactone-induced gynecomastia. *Ann Inter* 87:398.

1091. Roselaar SE, Langdon N, Lock CB, et al: Selegiline in narcolepsy. *Sleep* 1987; 10:491-495.

1092. Rosenbaum AH, Schatzberg AF, Maruta T, et al: MHPG as a predictor of antidepressant response to imipramine a *J Psychiatry* 1980; 137:1090.

1093. Rosenberg NK, Møllergaard M, Rosenberg R, et al: Characteristics of panic disorder patients responding to placebo *Scand Suppl* 1991; 365:33-38.

1094. Rosenberg R, Bech P, Møllergaard M, et al: Alprazolam, imipramine and placebo treatment of panic disorder: predic response. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1991c; 365:46-52.

1095. Rosenberg R, Bech P, Møllergaard M, et al: Secondary depression in panic disorder: an indicator of severity with a v outcome in alprazolam and imipramine treatment. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1991a; 365:39-45.

1096. Rosenberg R, Bech P, Møllergaard M, et al: Secondary depression in panic disorder: an indicator of severity with a v outcome in alprazolam and imipramine treatment. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1991aa; 365:39-45.

1097. Rosenthal SH: More on the globus hystericus syndrome (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1987; 144:529.

1098. Roth WT, Margraf J, Ehlers A, et al: Imipramine and alprazolam effects on stress test reactivity in panic disorder. *B* 1992; 31:35-51.

1099. Roth WT, Margraf J, Ehlers A, et al: Imipramine and alprazolam effects on stress test reactivity in panic disorder. *B* 1992a; 31:35-51.

1100. Rothschild AJ: New directions in the treatment of antidepressant-induced sexual dysfunction. *Clin Ther* 2000; 22(S

1101. Rothschild R, Quitkin HM, Quitkin FM, et al: A double-blind placebo-controlled comparison of phenelzine and imipr: treatment of bulimia in atypical depressives. *Int J Eat Dis* 1994; 15:1-9.

1102. Rubin AE, Alroy GG, Peled R, et al: Preliminary clinical experience with imipramine HCl in the treatment of sleep ap *Eur Neurol* 1986; 25:81-85.

1103. Russ MJ & Ackerman SH: Antidepressants and weight gain. *Appetite* 1988; 10:103-117.

1104. Saleh JW & Leibold P: Metoclopramide-induced gastric emptying in patients with anorexia nervosa. *Am J Gastroe* 74:127-132.

1105. Salem RM, Fischer RG, & Horton M: Lack of cross-allergenicity between tricyclic antidepressants. *South Med J* 19

1106. Saletu B, Grunberger J, Rajna P, et al: Clovoxamine and fluvoxamine-2 biogenic amine re-uptake inhibiting antidep quantitative EEG, psychometric and pharmacokinetic studies in man. *J Neural Transm* 1980; 49:63-86.

1107. Salin-Pascual R, de la Fuente JR, & Fernandez-Guardiola A: Effects of clonidine in narcolepsy. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1

1108. Sallee FR & Pollock BG: Clinical pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1990; 18:3

1109. Sallee FR & Pollock BG: Clinical pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine. *Clin Pharmacokinet* 1990a; 18:

1110. Salzman C: Clinical guidelines for the use of antidepressant drugs in geriatric patients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1985; 46:3

1111. Salzmann MM: A controlled trial with trimipramine, a new anti-depressant drug. *Br J Psychiatry* 1965; 111:1105-11

1112. Sandifer MG, Wilson IC, Gambill JM, et al: The influence of case selection and dosage in an antidepressant drug tr *1965*; 111:142.

1113. Sandison RA, Whitelaw E, & Currie JDC: Clinical trials with Mellaril (TP21) in the treatment of schizophrenia. *J Mer* 106:732.

1114. Santonastaso P, Maistrello I, & Battistin L: Comparison of Vivalan (viloxazine hydrochloride) with imipramine in the depression. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1979; 60:137-143.

1115. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965; 1:251.

1116. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965a; 1:251.

1117. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965b; 1:251.

1118. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965c; 1:251.

1119. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965d; 1:251.

1120. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965e; 1:251.

1121. Sargent W: Combining the antidepressant drugs (letter). *Br Med J* 1965f; 1:251.

1122. Satel SL & Nelson JC: Stimulants in the treatment of depression: a critical overview. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1989; 50:241

1123. Sathananthan GL & Gershon S: Imipramine withdrawal: an akathisia-like syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1973a; 130:1.

1124. Sathananthan GL & Gershon S: Renal damage due to imipramine. *Lancet* 1973c; 1:833.

1125. Sathananthan GL, Matz R, Thompson H, et al: Amoxapine and imipramine: a double-blind study in depressed patients. *Am J Psychiatry* 1973b; 15:919-922.

1126. Scagliotti D, Strasberg B, Hai HA, et al: Aprindine-induced polymorphous ventricular tachycardia. *Am J Cardiol* 1981; 47:1183-1187.

1127. Schachter M, Price PA, & Parkes JD: Deprenyl in narcolepsy. *Lancet* 1979; 1:183.

1128. Schaefer MS, Edmunds AL, Markin RS, et al: Hepatic failure associated with imipramine therapy. *Pharmacotherapy* 1989; 9:329-330.

1129. Scharf MB & Fletcher KA: GHB-new hope for narcoleptics?. *Biol Psychiatry* 1989; 26:329-330.

1130. Scharf MB, Fletcher KA, & Jennings SW: Current pharmacologic management of narcolepsy. *Am Fam Physician* 1991; 43:1183-1187.

1131. Schmidt HS, Clark RW, & Hyman PR: Protriptyline: an effective agent in the treatment of the narcolepsy-cataplexy hypersomnia. *Am J Psychiatry* 1977; 134:183-185.

1132. Schoonover SC: Depression In: Bassuk EL, Schoonover SC, & Gelenberg AJ (Eds): *The Practitioner's Guide to Psychopharmacology*. 2nd. Plenum Medical Book Company, New York, NY, 1983.

1133. Schottland JR: Ofloxacin in the Lambert-Eaton myasthenic syndrome. *Neurology* 1999; 52:435.

1134. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971; 24:509-514.

1135. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971a; 24:509-514.

1136. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971b; 24:509-514.

1137. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971c; 24:509-514.

1138. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971d; 24:509-514.

1139. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971e; 24:509-514.

1140. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971f; 24:509-514.

1141. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971g; 24:509-514.

1142. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971h; 24:509-514.

1143. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971i; 24:509-514.

1144. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971j; 24:509-514.

1145. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971k; 24:509-514.

1146. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971l; 24:509-514.

1147. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971m; 24:509-514.

1148. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971n; 24:509-514.

1149. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971o; 24:509-514.

1150. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971p; 24:509-514.

1151. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971q; 24:509-514.

1152. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971r; 24:509-514.

1153. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971s; 24:509-514.

1154. Schuckit M, Robins E, & Feighner JP: Tricyclic antidepressants and monoamine oxidase inhibitors. Combination therapy in the treatment of depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1971t; 24:509-514.

1155. Schuckit MA & Feighner JP: Safety of high-dose tricyclic antidepressant therapy. *Am J Psychiatry* 1972; 128:1456.

1156. Schullerbrandt JG, Raskin A, & Reatig N: True and apparent side effects in a controlled trial of chlorpromazine and depression. *Psychopharmacology* 1974; 38:303.

1157. Schulz P & Luttrell S: Increased plasma protein binding of imipramine in cancer patients. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1981; 1:104-108.

1158. Schweizer E, Feighner J, Mandos LA, et al: Comparison of venlafaxine and imipramine in the acute treatment of major depression in outpatients. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1994; 55:104-108.

1159. Schweizer E, Rickels K, Hassman H, et al: Buspirone and imipramine for the treatment of major depression in the elderly. *Am J Psychiatry* 1998; 59:175-183.

1160. Schweizer E, Rickels K, Weiss S, et al: Maintenance drug treatment of panic disorder: I. Results of a prospective, parallel comparison of alprazolam and imipramine. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1993; 50:51-60.

1161. Scrima L, Hartman PG, Johnson FH, et al: Efficacy of gamma-hydroxybutyrate versus placebo in treating narcolepsy: a double-blind subjective measures. *Biol Psychiatry* 1989; 26:331-343.

1162. Semmens JP & Semmens FJ: Inadequate vaginal lubrication. *Med Asp Hum Sex* 1978; 12:58.
1163. Seppala T, Linnoila M, Elonen E, et al: Effect of tricyclic antidepressants and alcohol on psychomotor skills related Pharmacol Ther 1975; 17:515-522.
1164. Seppala T: Psychomotor skills during acute and two-week treatment with mianserin (ORG GB 94) and amitriptyline combined effects with alcohol. *Ann Clin Res* 1977; 9:66-72.
1165. Settle EC: Autoerythrocyte sensitization successfully treated with antidepressants. *JAMA* 1983; 250:1749-1750.
1166. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: A possible bupropion and imipramine interaction (letter). *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1997; 17:100-101.
1167. Shad MU & Preskorn SH: A possible bupropion and imipramine interaction (letter). *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1997a; 17:100-101.
1168. Shain BN, Naylor M, Shipley JE, et al: Imipramine effects on sleep in depressed adolescents: a preliminary report. 1990; 28:459-462.
1169. Shen WW & Mallya AR: Psychotropic-induced sexual inhibition. *Am J Psychiatry* 1983; 140:514.
1170. Shen WW & Sata LS: Neuropharmacology of the male sexual function. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1983; 3:265.
1171. Shen WW, Urosevich Z, & Clayton DO: Sildenafil in the treatment of female sexual dysfunction induced by selective reuptake inhibitors. *J Reprod Med* 1999; 44:535-542.
1172. Shen WW: Alcohol, amoxapine, and akathisia (letter). *Biol Psychiatry* 1984; 19:929-930.
1173. Sheth UK, Paul T, Desai NK, et al: Comparative effects of imipramine and dothiepin on salivary rate in normal volu Pharmacol 1979; 8:475-478.
1174. Sheth UK, Paul T, Desai NK, et al: Comparative effects of imipramine and dothiepin on salivary rate in normal volu Pharmacol 1979a; 8:475.
1175. Shrand H: Agoraphobia and imipramine withdrawal (letter)? *Pediatrics* 1982; 70:825.
1176. Shrivastava RK & Edwards D: Hypoglycemia associated with imipramine. *Biol Psychiatry* 1983; 18:1509-1510.
1177. Shrivastava RK & Itil TM: Flu-like illness after discontinuance of imipramine. *Biol Psychiatry* 1985; 20:792-794.
1178. Shrivastava RK, Shrivastava SHP, Overweg N, et al: A double-blind comparison of paroxetine, imipramine, and pla depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1992; 53(suppl 2):48-51.
1179. Sieb JP: Fluoroquinolone antibiotics block neuromuscular transmission. *Neurology* 1998; 50(3):804-807.
1180. Silverman G & Braithwaite R: Interaction of benzodiazepines with tricyclic antidepressants (letter). *Br Med J* 1972; 3:100-101.
1181. Simon GE, VonKorff M, Heiligenstein JH, et al: Initial antidepressant choice in primary care: effectiveness and cost tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1996; 275:1897-1902.
1182. Simons P: Antidepressants, benzodiazepines, and convulsions (letter). *Biol Psychiatry* 1983; 18:517.
1183. Simpson GM, Blair JH, & Amuso D: Effects of antidepressants on genitourinary function. *Dis Nerv Syst* 1965; 26:78-79.
1184. Simpson HB, Schneier FR, Campeas RB, et al: Imipramine in the treatment of social phobia. *J Clin Psychopharma (2)*:132-135.
1185. Simpson WT: Nature and incidence of unwanted effects with atenolol. *Postgrad Med J* 1977; 53:162.
1186. Sindrup SH, Ejlersen B, Froland A, et al: Imipramine treatment in diabetic neuropathy: relief of subjective symptom in peripheral and autonomic nerve function. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1989; 37:151-153.
1187. Sindrup SH, Gram LF, Skjold T, et al: Concentration-response relationship in imipramine treatment of diabetic neur Clin Pharmacol Ther 1990; 47:509-515.
1188. Sindrup SH, Gram LF, Skjold T, et al: Concentration-response relationship in imipramine treatment of diabetic neur Clin Pharmacol Ther 1990a; 47:509-515.
1189. Singer A, Wonnemann M, & Muller WE: Hyperforin, a major antidepressant constituent of St. John's wort, inhibits s elevating free intracellular Na+. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1999; 290(3):1361-1368.
1190. Singh AN, Saxena B, Gent M, et al: Maprotiline (Ludiomil, Ciba 34,276-Ba) and imipramine in depressed outpatient clinical study. *Curr Ther Res* 1976; 19:451-462.
1191. Singh BN: The coming of age of the class III antiarrhythmic principle: retrospective and future trends. *Am J Cardiol (suppl)*:17-27.
1192. Singh G: Cardiac arrest with clomipramine (letter). *BMJ* 1972; 3:698.
1193. Siris SG, Aronson A, & Sellow AP: Imipramine-responsive panic-like symptomatology in schizophrenia/schizoaffect Psychiatry 1989a; 25:485-488.
1194. Siris SG, Bermanzohn PC, Mason SE, et al: Continuation treatment with adjunctive imipramine in schizophrenia. *P Bull* 1992; 28:303-307.
1195. Siris SG, Bermanzohn PC, Mason SE, et al: Maintenance imipramine therapy for secondary depression in schizopt Psychiatry 1994; 51:109-115.
1196. Siris SG, Cooper TB, Rifkin AE, et al: Plasma imipramine concentrations in patients receiving concomitant fluphenz Am J Psychiatry 1982; 139(1):104-106.
1197. Siris SG, Cutler J, Owen K, et al: Adjunctive imipramine maintenance treatment in schizophrenic patients with remi depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1989; 146:1495-1497.
1198. Siris SG, Mason SE, Bermanzohn PC, et al: Dual Diagnosis/Psychiatric comorbidity of drug dependence: epidemic treatment. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1993; 29:127-133.
1199. Siris SG, Rifkin AE, Reardon GT, et al: Response of postpsychotic depression to adjunctive imipramine or amitripty Psychiatry 1982a; 43(12):485-486.
1200. Sisson JC, Wieland DM, Sherman P, et al: Metaiodobenzylguanidine to map scintigraphically the adrenergic nervo J Nucl Med 1987; 28:1625-1636.
1201. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965; 58:967-978.
1202. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965a; 58:967-978.
1203. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965b; 58:967-978.

1204. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965c; 58:967-978.

1205. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965d; 58:967-978.

1206. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965e; 58:967-978.

1207. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965f; 58:967-978.

1208. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965g; 58:967-978.

1209. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965h; 58:967-978.

1210. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965i; 58:967-978.

1211. Sjoqvist F: Psychotropic drugs (2). Interaction between monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitors and other substances 1965j; 58:967-978.

1212. Skinner C, Coull DC, & Johnston AW: Antagonism of the hypotensive action of bethanidine and debrisoquine by tri antidepressants. *Lancet* 1969; 2:564-566.

1213. Skinner C, Coull DC, & Johnston AW: Antagonism of the hypotensive action of bethanidine and debrisoquine by tri antidepressants. *Lancet* 1969a; 2:564-566.

1214. Slag MF, Morley JE, Elson MK, et al: Impotence in medical clinic outpatients. *JAMA* 1983; 249:1736.

1215. Smellie JM, McGrigor VS, Meadow SR, et al: Nocturnal enuresis: a placebo controlled trial of two antidepressant drugs. *Child* 1996; 75:62-66.

1216. Smith DE, Moser C, Wesson DR, et al: A clinical guide to the diagnosis and treatment of heroin-related sexual dysfunction. *Psychoactive Drugs* 1982; 14:91.

1217. Snow LH & Rickels K: The controlled evaluation of imipramine and amitriptyline in hospitalized depressed psychiatric patients: contribution to the methodology of drug evaluation. *Psychopharmacologia* 1964; 5:409.

1218. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973; 223:560.

1219. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973a; 223:560.

1220. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973b; 223:560.

1221. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973c; 223:560.

1222. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973d; 223:560.

1223. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973e; 223:560.

1224. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973f; 223:560.

1225. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973g; 223:560.

1226. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973h; 223:560.

1227. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973i; 223:560.

1228. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973j; 223:560.

1229. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973k; 223:560.

1230. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973l; 223:560.

1231. Somani SM & Khurana RC: Mechanism of estrogen-imipramine interaction (letter). *JAMA* 1973m; 223:560.

1232. Sovner R & Orsulak PJ: Excretion of imipramine and desipramine in human breast milk. *Am J Psychiatry* 1979; 136:136-137.

1233. Sovner R: Anorgasmia associated with imipramine but not desipramine: Case report. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1983; 44:34-35.

1234. Spark RF & Melby JC: Aldosteronism in hypertension: the spironolactone response test. *Ann Intern Med* 1968; 69:69-70.

1235. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1236. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1237. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1238. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1239. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1240. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1241. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1242. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1243. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1244. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1245. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1246. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 1997; 171:306-248.

1247. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1248. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1249. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1250. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1251. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1252. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1253. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1254. Spigset O, Mjorndal T, & Lovheim O: Serotonin syndrome caused by a moclobemide-clomipramine interaction. *Br J Psychiatry* 306:248.
1255. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1256. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1257. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1258. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1259. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1260. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1261. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1262. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1263. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1264. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1265. Spiker DG & Pugh DD: Combining tricyclic and monoamine oxidase inhibitor antidepressants. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 830.
1266. Spina E & Koike Y: Differential effects of cimetidine and ranitidine on imipramine demethylation and desmethylimipramine hydroxylation by human liver microsomes. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1986; 30:239-242.
1267. Spina E, Avenoso A, Campo GM, et al: Effect of ketoconazole on the pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine subjects. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1997; 43:315-318.
1268. Spina E, Avenoso A, Campo GM, et al: Effect of ketoconazole on the pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine subjects. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1997a; 43:315-318.
1269. Spina E, Avenoso A, Campo GM, et al: Phenobarbital induces the 2-hydroxylation of desipramine. *Ther Drug Monit* 1992; 14:194-196.
1270. Spina E, Campo GM, Avenoso A, et al: Interaction between fluvoxamine and imipramine/desipramine in four patients. *Ther Drug Monit* 1992; 14:194-196.
1271. Spina E, Campo GM, Avenoso A, et al: Interaction between fluvoxamine and imipramine/desipramine in four patients. *Ther Drug Monit* 1992a; 14:194-196.
1272. Spina E, Pollicino AM, Avenoso A, et al: Effect of fluvoxamine on the pharmacokinetics of imipramine and desipramine subjects. *Ther Drug Monit* 1993a; 15:243-246.
1273. Spina E, Pollicino AM, Avenoso A, et al: Fluvoxamine-induced alterations in plasma concentrations of imipramine in depressed patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Res* 1993; 13:167-171.
1274. Spina E, Pollicino AM, Avenoso A, et al: Fluvoxamine-induced alterations in plasma concentrations of imipramine in depressed patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Res* 1993a; 13:167-171.
1275. Spina E, Pollicino AM, Avenoso A, et al: Fluvoxamine-induced alterations in plasma concentrations of imipramine in depressed patients. *Int J Clin Pharmacol Res* 1993aa; 13:167-171.
1276. Sprague DH & Wolf S: Enflurane seizures in patients taking amitriptyline. *Anesth Analg* 1982; 61:67-68.
1277. Sprague DH & Wolf S: Enflurane seizures in patients taking amitriptyline. *Anesth Analg* 1982a; 61:67-68.
1278. St Jean A, Ban TA, & Noe W: The effect of iminodibenzyls in the treatment of chronic psychotic patients. *Curr Ther* 1965.
1279. Stabl M, Biziere K, Schmid-Burgk W, et al: Moclobemide vs tricyclic antidepressants and vs placebo in depressive disorder. *Transm* 1989; 28(suppl):77-89.
1280. Stacher G, Abatzi-Wenzel T-A, Wiesnagrotzki S, et al: Gastric emptying, body weight, and symptoms in primary anorexia nervosa: long-term effects of cisapride. *Br J Psychiatry* 1993; 162:398-402.
1281. Stark P & Hardison CD: A review of multicenter controlled studies of fluoxetine vs imipramine and placebo in outpatients with depressive disorder. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1985; 46:53-58.
1282. Stein GS: Lithium in a case of severe anorexia nervosa. *Br J Psychiatry* 1982; 140:526-528.
1283. Stein JJ & Martin DC: Priapism. *Urology* 1974; 3:8.

1284. Steinberg MD & Block P: The use and abuse of epinephrine in local anesthetics. *J Am Podiat Assoc* 1971; 61:341-344.
1285. Steiner E, Dumont E, Spina E, et al: Inhibition of desipramine 2-hydroxylation by quinidine and quinine. *Clin Pharm Ther* 1981; 30:577-581.
1286. Steiner J, Cassar J, Mashiterk, et al: Effects of methyl dopa on prolactin and growth hormone. *Br Med J* 1976; 1:118-119.
1287. Stern SL & Mendels J: Withdrawal symptoms during the course of imipramine therapy. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1980; 41:6-10.
1288. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991; 148:705-713.
1289. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991a; 148:705-713.
1290. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991b; 148:705-713.
1291. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991c; 148:705-713.
1292. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991d; 148:705-713.
1293. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991e; 148:705-713.
1294. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991f; 148:705-713.
1295. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991g; 148:705-713.
1296. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991h; 148:705-713.
1297. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991i; 148:705-713.
1298. Sternbach H: The serotonin syndrome. *Am J Psychiatry* 1991j; 148:705-713.
1299. Stevenson JG & Umstead GS: Sexual dysfunction due to antihypertensive agents. *Drug Intell Clin Pharm* 1984; 18:10-12.
1300. Stewart JA & Mitchell PH: A comparative trial of desipramine and nortriptyline in depression. *Br J Psychiatry* 1968; 124:10-12.
1301. Stewart JW, McGrath PJ, Quitkin FM, et al: Relevance of DMS-III depressive subtype and chronicity of antidepressant response to phenelzine, imipramine, and placebo. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1989; 46:11-15.
1302. Stewart JW, Tricamo E, McGrath PJ, et al: Prophylactic efficacy of phenelzine and imipramine in chronic atypical depression: differential response to discontinuation after 6 months' remission. *Am J Psychiatry* 1997; 154(1):31-36.
1303. Stone CA, Porter CC, Stavorski JM, et al: Antagonism of certain effects of catecholamine-depleting agents by antidepressants. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1964; 144:196-204.
1304. Stone CA, Porter CC, Stavorski JM, et al: Antagonism of certain effects of catecholamine-depleting agents by antidepressants. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1964a; 144:196-204.
1305. Straker M, Davanloo H, Moll A, et al: A double-blind comparison of a new anti-depressant, protriptyline, with imipramine. *Can Med Assoc J* 1966; 94:1220-1222.
1306. Stramba-Badiale M, Nador F, Porta N, et al: QT interval prolongation and risk of life-threatening arrhythmias during prophylaxis with spiramycin in neonates. *Am Heart J* 1997; 133:108-111.
1307. Stressman J & Ben-Ishay D: Chlorthalidone-induced impotence. *Br Med J* 1980; 281:714.
1308. Strober M, Freeman R, & Rigali J: The pharmacotherapy of depressive illness in adolescence: I. An open label trial. *Psychopharmacol Bull* 1990; 26:80-84.
1309. Sussman N, Ginsberg DL, & Bikoff J: Effects of nefazodone on body weight: a pooled analysis of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor and imipramine-controlled trials. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2001; 62(4):256-260.
1310. Sutfin TA, DeVane CL, & Jusko WJ: The analysis and disposition of imipramine and its active metabolites in man. *Psychopharmacology* 1984; 82:310-317.
1311. Sutherland DL, Remillard AJ, Haight KR, et al: The influence of cimetidine versus ranitidine on doxepin pharmacokinetics. *Pharmacol Ther* 1987; 32:159-164.
1312. Svebak S, Cameron A, & Levander S: Clonazepam and imipramine in the treatment of panic attacks: a double-blind study of efficacy and side effects. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1990; 51(suppl 5):14-17.
1313. Sweetman S (Ed): *Martindale: The Complete Drug Reference*. London: Pharmaceutical Press. Electronic version, 1999. Greenwood Village, Colorado, Edition expires 06/2003.
1314. Szymura-Oleksiak J, Wyska E, & Wasieczko A: Pharmacokinetic interaction between imipramine and carbamazepine in major depression. *Psychopharmacology* 2001; 154:38-42.
1315. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987; 42:760-763.
1316. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987a; 42(7):760-763.
1317. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987b; 42:760-763.
1318. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987c; 42:760-763.
1319. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987d; 42:760-763.
1320. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987e; 42:760-763.
1321. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987f; 42:760-763.
1322. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987g; 42:760-763.
1323. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987h; 42:760-763.
1324. Tackley RM & Tregaskis B: Fatal disseminated intravascular coagulation following a monoamine oxidase inhibitor/antidepressant. *Anaesthesia* 1987i; 42:760-763.
1325. Takahashi R, Sakuma A, Hava T, et al: Comparison of efficacy of amoxapine and imipramine in a multi-clinic double-blind study. *J Int Med Res* 1979; 7:7-18.
1326. Taketomo CK, Hodding JH, & Kraus DM: *Pediatric Dosage Handbook*, Lexi-Comp, Inc, Cleveland, OH, 1992.

1327. Tamayo M, Fernandez de Gatta MM, Garcia MJ, et al: Dosage optimization methods applied to imipramine and desmethylimipramine treatment. *J Clin Pharm Ther* 1992; 17:55-59.
1328. Tandon R, Grunhaus L, & Greden JF: Imipramine and tinnitus. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1987; 48:109-111.
1329. Tasini M: Complex partial seizures in a patient receiving trazodone. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:318-319.
1330. Taylor CB, Hayward C, King R, et al: Cardiovascular and symptomatic reduction effects of alprazolam and imipramine in panic disorder: results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1990; 10:112-118.
1331. Taylor D: Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and tricyclic antidepressants in combination. *Br J Psychiatry* 1995; 167:318-321.
1332. Thase ME & Perel JM: Antiarrhythmic effects of tricyclic antidepressants. *JAMA* 1982; 248:429.
1333. Thase ME, Fava M, Halbreich U, et al: A placebo-controlled, randomized clinical trial comparing sertraline and imipramine in the treatment of dysthymia. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1996; 53:777-784.
1334. Thase ME, Mallinger AG, McKnight D, et al: Treatment of imipramine-resistant recurrent depression IV: a double-blind study of transylcypromine for anergic bipolar depression. *Am J Psychiatry* 1992; 149:195-198.
1335. Thase ME, Rush AJ, Howland RH, et al: Double-blind switch study of imipramine or sertraline treatment of antidepressant-resistant depression. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 2002; 59(3):233-239.
1336. Thiede HM & Walper A: Inhibition of MAO and COMT by hypericum extracts and hypericin. *J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol* 1991; 4:554-556.
1337. Thorstrand C: Clinical features in poisonings by tricyclic antidepressants with special reference to the ECG. *Acta Med Scand* 1991; 229:337-344.
1338. Tignol J, Pujol-Domenech J, Chartres JP, et al: Double-blind study of the efficacy and safety of milnacipran and imipramine in patients with major depressive episode. *Acta Psychiatr Scand* 1998; 97:157-165.
1339. Tollefson G, Valentine R, Garvey M, et al: Imipramine metabolism in recurrent depressive episodes. *J Affect Disord* 1990; 21:1-10.
1340. Trissel LA: Handbook on Injectable Drugs, 6th. American Society of Hospital Pharmacists, Bethesda, MD, 1990.
1341. Trissel LA: Handbook on Injectable Drugs, 6th. American Society of Hospital Pharmacists, Bethesda, MD, 1990a.
1342. Trissel LA: Handbook on Injectable Drugs, 8th. American Society of Hospital Pharmacists, Bethesda, MD, 1994.
1343. Udabe RU, Marquez CA, Traballi CA, et al: Double-blind comparison of moclobemide, imipramine and placebo in dysthymia. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1990; 360:54-56.
1344. Ueno S, Takahashi M, Kajiyama K, et al: Parkinson's disease and myasthenia gravis: adverse effect of trihexyphenidyl on neuromuscular transmission. *Neurology* 1987; 37:823-833.
1345. Van Den Hoed J, Lucas EA, & Dement WC: Hallucinatory experiences during cataplexy in patients with narcolepsy. *Neurology* 1979; 29:1211-1214.
1346. Van Thiel DH & Lester R: Sex and alcohol. *N Engl J Med* 1974; 291:251.
1347. Van Thiel DH & Lester R: Sex and alcohol: a second peek. *N Engl J Med* 1976; 295:835.
1348. Van Thiel DH: Testicular atrophy and other endocrine changes in alcoholic men. *Med Asp Human Sexuality* 1976; 1:1-10.
1349. Vandel S, Bertschy G, Perault MC, et al: Minor and clinically non-significant interaction between tolloxatone and imipramine. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1993; 54:97-99.
1350. VanderVelde CD: Maprotiline versus imipramine and placebo in neurotic depression. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1981; 42:13-17.
1351. Varley CK: Sudden death of a child treated with imipramine. *J Child Adolesc Psychopharmacol* 2000; 10(4):321-322.
1352. Vasquez JM, Ellegova MS, Nazian SJ, et al: Effect of hyperprolactinemia on pituitary sensitivity to luteinizing hormone-releasing hormone following manipulation of sex steroids. *Fertil Steril* 1980; 33:543.
1353. Vaughan DA: Interaction of fluoxetine with tricyclic antidepressants (letter). *Am J Psychiatry* 1988; 145:1478.
1354. Veith RG, Raskind MA, Caldwell JH, et al: Cardiovascular effects of tricyclic antidepressants in depressed patients with cardiovascular disease. *N Engl J Med* 1982; 306:954-959.
1355. Versiani M, Nardi AE, Mundim FD, et al: Moclobemide, imipramine and placebo in the treatment of major depressive disorder. *Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl* 1990a; 360:57-58.
1356. Versiani M, Nardi AE, Mundim FD, et al: Moclobemide, imipramine, and placebo in the treatment of major depressive disorder. *Neural Transm* 1989a; 28(suppl):65-75.
1357. Versiani M, Oggero U, Alterwain P, et al: A double-blind comparative trial of moclobemide v imipramine and placebo in the treatment of major depressive episodes. *Br J Psychiatry* 1989; 155(suppl 6):72-77.
1358. Vertucci P, Lanzi C, Capece G, et al: Desmethylimipramine and imipramine in the management of nocturnal enuresis: a double-blind study. *J Clin Pract* 1997; 51:27-31.
1359. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1360. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1361. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1362. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1363. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1364. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1365. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1366. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.
1367. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1975; 3:1484-1488.

1368. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *N* 283:1484-1488.
1369. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *N* 283:1484-1488.
1370. Vesell ES, Passananti GT, & Greene FE: Impairment of drug metabolism in man by allopurinol and nortriptyline. *N* 283:1484-1488.
1371. Vetter VL, Elia J, Erickson C, et al: Cardiovascular monitoring of children and adolescents with heart disease receive drugs: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association Council on Cardiovascular Disease in the Young Cardiac Defects Committee and the Council on Cardiovascular Nursing. *Circulation* 2008; 117:2407-2423.
1372. Vigersky RA & Loriaux DL: The effect of cyproheptadine in anorexia nervosa: A double blind trial. In: Vigersky RA (*Anorexia Nervosa*, Raven Press, New York, NY; pp 349-356, 1977.
1373. Vinarova E, Uhlir O, Stika L, et al: Side effects of lithium administration. *Activ Nerv Sup (Praha)* 1972; 14:105.
1374. Volavka J, Neziroglu F, & Yaryura-Tobias JA: Clomipramine and imipramine in obsessive-compulsive disorder. *Psy* 14:83-91.
1375. Von Frenckell R, Ansseau M, Serre C, et al: Pooling two controlled comparisons of milnacipran (F2207) and amitriptyline in endogenous inpatients: a new approach in dose ranging studies. *Intern Clin Psychopharmacol* 1990; 5:49-56.
1376. Waehrens J & Gerlach J: Bromocriptine and imipramine in endogenous depression: a double-blind, controlled trial. *Affect Disord* 1981; 3:193-202.
1377. Wagner W, Johnson SB, Walker D, et al: A controlled comparison of two treatments for nocturnal enuresis. *J Pediatr* 307.
1378. Waldron J & Bates TJM: The management of depression in hospital: a comparative trial of desipramine and imipramine. *Psychiatry* 1965; 111:511.
1379. Wartman SA: Sexual side effects of antihypertensive drugs. *Treatment strategies and structures. Postgrad Med* 1990; 68:100-105.
1380. Wassmann S, Nickenig G, & Bohm M: Long QT syndrome and torsade de pointes in a patient receiving fluconazole. *Am J Cardiol* 1999; 131:797.
1381. Wedin GP: Relative toxicity of cyclic antidepressants. *Ann Emerg Med* 1986; 15:797-804.
1382. Weegink CJ, Chamuleau RAFM, Reesink HW, et al: Development of myasthenia gravis during treatment of chronic hepatitis C with interferon-alpha and ribavirin. *J Gastroenterol* 2001; 36:723-724.
1383. Weller EB, Weller RA, & Carr S: Imipramine treatment of trichotillomania and coexisting depression in a seven-year-old child. *Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 1989; 28(6):952-953.
1384. Wells BG, Pieper JA, Self TH, et al: The effect of ranitidine and cimetidine on imipramine disposition. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1985; 31:285-290.
1385. Wells BG, Pieper JA, Self TH, et al: The effect of ranitidine and cimetidine on imipramine disposition. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1985; 31:285-290.
1386. White JA & Schnaultz NL: Successful treatment of anorexia nervosa with imipramine. *Dis Nerv Syst* 1977; 38:567-571.
1387. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984; 45:67-69.
1388. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984a; 45:67-69.
1389. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984b; 45:67-69.
1390. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984c; 45:67-69.
1391. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984d; 45:67-69.
1392. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984e; 45:67-69.
1393. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984f; 45:67-69.
1394. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984g; 45:67-69.
1395. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984h; 45:67-69.
1396. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984i; 45:67-69.
1397. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984j; 45:67-69.
1398. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984k; 45:67-69.
1399. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984l; 45:67-69.
1400. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984m; 45:67-69.
1401. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984n; 45:67-69.
1402. White K & Simpson G: The combined use of MAOIs and tricyclics. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1984o; 45:67-69.
1403. Wijkstra J, Lijmer J, Balk F, et al: Pharmacological treatment for psychotic depression. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* (4):CD004044.
1404. Wilens TE, Biederman J, & Spencer TJ: Case study: Adverse effects of smoking marijuana while receiving tricyclic antidepressants. *Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 1997; 36(1):45-48.
1405. Wilens TE, Biederman J, & Spencer TJ: Case study: Adverse effects of smoking marijuana while receiving tricyclic antidepressants. *Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry* 1997a; 36(1):45-48.
1406. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976; 45:63-73.
1407. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976a; 45:63-73.
1408. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976b; 45:63-73.
1409. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976c; 45:63-73.
1410. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976d; 45:63-73.
1411. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoagulation. *Med* 1976e; 45:63-73.

- Med 1976e; 45:63-73.
1412. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976f; 45:63-73.
1413. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976g; 45:63-73.
1414. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976h; 45:63-73.
1415. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976i; 45:63-73.
1416. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976j; 45:63-73.
1417. Williams JR, Griffin JP, & Parkins A: Effect of concomitantly administered drugs on the control of long term anticoag Med 1976k; 45:63-73.
1418. Williams RB Jr & Sherter C: Cardiac complications of tricyclic antidepressant therapy. *Ann Intern Med* 1971; 74:39f
1419. Wilson IC, Loosen PT, Pettus CW, et al: A double-blind clinical comparison of amoxapine, imipramine, and placebo of depression. *Curr Ther Res* 1977; 22:620-627.
1420. Wilson IC, Prange AJ Jr, & Lara PP: Methyltestosterone with imipramine in men: conversion of depression to paranoid Psychiatry 1974; 131:21.
1421. Winer JA & Bahn S: Loss of teeth with antidepressant drug therapy. *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 1967; 16:239.
1422. Winsberg BG, Kupietz SS, & Yeros LE: Ineffectiveness of imipramine in children who fail to respond to methylphen Dev Disord 1980; 10:129.
1423. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971; 118:301-304.
1424. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971a; 118:301-304.
1425. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971b; 118:301-304.
1426. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971c; 118:301-304.
1427. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971d; 118:301-304.
1428. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971e; 118:301-304.
1429. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971f; 118:301-304.
1430. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971g; 118:301-304.
1431. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971h; 118:301-304.
1432. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971i; 118:301-304.
1433. Winston F: Combined antidepressant therapy. *Br J Psychiatry* 1971j; 118:301-304.
1434. Wittbrodt ET: Drugs and myasthenia gravis. *Arch Intern Med* 1997; 157:399-407.
1435. Witton K: Sexual dysfunction secondary to mellaril. *Dis Nerv Syst* 1962; 23:175.
1436. Woody RC & Blaw ME: Ophthalmoplegic migraine in infancy. *Clin Pediatr* 1986; 25:82-84.
1437. Workman EA & Short DD: Atypical antidepressants versus imipramine in the treatment of major depression: a meta Psychiatry 1993; 54:5-12.
1438. Workman EA & Short DD: Atypical antidepressants versus imipramine in the treatment of major depression: a meta Psychiatry 1993a; 54:5-12.
1439. Worrall EP, Moody JP, Peet M, et al: Controlled studies of the acute antidepressant effects of lithium. *Br J Psychiatry*
1440. Wright N & Cooke D: Hemodialysis and forced diuresis for tricyclic antidepressant poisoning. *Br Med J* 1974; 4:407
1441. Wroblewski BA: The incidence of seizures during tricyclic antidepressant drug treatment in a brain-injured population Psychopharmacol 1990; 10:124-128.
1442. Wyatt RJ, Fram DH, Buchbinder R, et al: Treatment of intractable narcolepsy with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *J* 1971; 285:987-991.
1443. Yamreudeewong W, DeBisschop M, Martin LG, et al: Potentially significant drug interactions of class III antiarrhythmic Safety 2003; 26(6):421-438.
1444. Yamreudeewong W, DeBisschop M, Martin LG, et al: Potentially significant drug interactions of class III antiarrhythmic Safety 2003a; 26(6):421-438.
1445. Yendt ER, Guay GF, & Garcia DA: The use of thiazides in the prevention of renal calculi. *Can Med Assoc J* 1970; 1
1446. Yeragani VK, Pohl R, Balon R, et al: Imipramine-induced jitteriness and decreased serum iron levels. *Neuropsychol* 25:8-10.
1447. Ylikahri R, Huttunen M, Harkunen M, et al: Low plasma testosterone values in men during hangover. *J Steroid Biochem*
1448. Young JB, Vandermolen LA, & Pratt CM: Torsade de pointes: an unusual manifestation of chloral hydrate poisoning 1986; 112:181-184.
1449. Zapotoczky HG & Simhandl CA: Interaktionen von Antidepressiva. *Wien Klin Wochenschr* 1995; 107:293-300.
1450. Zarcone V: Narcolepsy. *N Engl J Med* 1973; 288:1156-1166.
1451. Zarren HS & Black PM: Unilateral gynecomastia and impotence during low-dose spironolactone administration in rat 1975; 140:417.
1452. Ziere G, Dieleman JP, vanderCammen TJ, et al: Selective serotonin reuptake inhibiting antidepressants are associated increased risk of nonvertebral fractures. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 2008; 28(4):411-417.
1453. Zitron CM: Differential treatment of phobias: Use of imipramine for panic attacks. *J Behav Ther Exp Psychiatry* 1983
1454. Zubenko GS, Cohen BM, & Lipinski JF: Antidepressant-related akathisia. *J Clin Psychopharmacol* 1987; 7:254-257
1455. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986; 47:40-41.
1456. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986a; 47:40-41.
1457. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar disorder

- disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986b; 47:40-41.
1458. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar tr disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986c; 47:40-41.
1459. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar tr disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986d; 47:40-41.
1460. de la Fuente JR, Berlanga C, & Leon-Andrade C: Mania induced by tricyclic-MAOI combination therapy in bipolar tr disorder: case reports. *J Clin Psychiatry* 1986e; 47:40-41.
1461. von Knorring L: Changes in saliva secretion and accommodation width during short-term administration of imipramine healthy volunteers. *Int Pharmacopsychiatry* 1981; 16:69-78.
1462. von Moltke LL, Greenblatt DJ, Cotreau-Bibbo MM, et al: Inhibition of desipramine hydroxylation in vitro by serotonin inhibitor antidepressants, and by quinidine and ketoconazole; a model system to predict drug interactions in vivo. *J Ther* 1994; 268:1278-1283.

Last Modified: May 04, 2009

© 1974- 2009 Thomson Reuters. All rights reserved.