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## MICROMEDEX® Healthcare Series

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## MICROMEDEX® 2.0: Coming Soon!

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## DRUGDEX® Evaluations

### ESCITALOPRAM

#### 0.0 Overview

- 1) Class
  - a) This drug is a member of the following class(es):
    - Antianxiety
    - Antidepressant
    - Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitor
- 2) Dosing Information
  - a) Escitalopram Oxalate
    - 1) Adult
      - a) Generalized anxiety disorder
        - 1) initial, 10 mg/day ORALLY as a single dose in the morning or ev  
Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009)
        - 2) maintenance, 10 mg/day ORALLY, may increase to 20 mg/day (C  
after a minimum of one week (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution  
2009)
      - b) Major depressive disorder
        - 1) initial, 10 mg/day ORALLY as a single dose in the morning or ev  
Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009)
        - 2) maintenance, 10 mg/day ORALLY, may increase to 20 mg/day (C  
after a minimum of one week (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution  
2009)
    - 2) Pediatric
      - a) safety and effectiveness in children for the acute treatment of genera  
disorder have not been established (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solutic  
tablets, 2009)
      - b) safety and effectiveness in children under the age of 12 years for the  
maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder have not been esta  
Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009)
      - 1) Major depressive disorder
        - a) age 12 years and older: initial, 10 mg/day ORALLY as a sin  
morning or evening (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Ora  
2009)
        - b) age 12 years and older: maintenance, 10 mg/day ORALLY,  
to 20 mg/day ORALLY only after a minimum of 3 weeks (Prod I  
LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009)
- 3) Contraindications
  - a) Escitalopram Oxalate
    - 1) concomitant use of pimozide or monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) (F  
Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
    - 2) hypersensitivity to citalopram, escitalopram, or any other component of th  
(Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 4) Serious Adverse Effects
  - a) Escitalopram Oxalate
    - 1) Depression, worsening
    - 2) Diabetes mellitus
    - 3) Grand mal seizure
    - 4) Heart failure
    - 5) Myocardial infarction
    - 6) Neuroleptic malignant syndrome
    - 7) Pancreatitis

- 8) Prolonged QT interval
  - 9) Rectal hemorrhage
  - 10) Serotonin syndrome
  - 11) Suicidal thoughts
  - 12) Suicide
  - 13) Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion
  - 14) Torsades de pointes
- 5) Clinical Applications
    - a) Escitalopram Oxalate
      - 1) FDA Approved Indications
        - a) Generalized anxiety disorder
        - b) Major depressive 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 Index)
- B) Synonyms
  - Escitalopram
  - Escitalopram Oxalate
- C) Physicochemical Properties
  - 1) Molecular Weight
    - a) 414.40 (Prod Info Lexapro™, 2002a)
  - 2) Solubility
    - a) Systemic: Escitalopram is freely soluble in methanol and dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO), sparingly soluble in water and in ethanol, slightly soluble in ethyl acetate and insoluble in heptane. (Prod Info Lexapro™, 2002a)

#### 1.2 Storage and Stability

- A) Escitalopram Oxalate
  - 1) Preparation
    - a) Oral route
      - 1) Allow at least 14 days between the discontinuation of an MAOI and the initiation of escitalopram or the discontinuation of escitalopram and initiation of MAO inhibitors (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).
      - 2) Administer without regard to meals (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral tablets, 2009).
- B) Oral route
  - 1) Tablets should be stored at 77 degrees Fahrenheit (25 degrees Celsius); capsules should be stored at 59 to 86 degrees Fahrenheit (15 to 30 degrees Celsius) (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral tablets, 2002g).

## ESCITALOPRAM

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### Overview

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- [Adult Dosage](#)
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#### – Pharmacokinetics

- [Onset and Duration](#)
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#### 1.3 Adult Dosage

### [Normal Dosage](#)

### [Dosage in Renal Failure](#)

### [Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency](#)

### [Dosage in Geriatric Patients](#)

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- Contraindications
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#### – Clinical Applications

- Monitoring Parameters
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- Place In Therapy
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- Comparative Efficacy / Evaluation With Other Therapies

#### References

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### 1.3.1 Normal Dosage

#### 1.3.1.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### 1.3.1.A.1 Oral route

[Generalized anxiety disorder](#)

[Major depressive disorder](#)

##### 1.3.1.A.1.a Generalized anxiety disorder

1) The initial recommended dose in the acute treatment of gen anxiety disorder in adults is escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) or; (morning or evening). After one week, the dose may be increas orally once daily. The efficacy of escitalopram in the treatment i anxiety disorder for longer than 8 weeks has not been establish on long-term treatment should be reevaluated periodically to de long term usefulness of escitalopram (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral tablets, 2009).

##### 1.3.1.A.1.b Major depressive disorder

1) The initial recommended dose in the acute and maintenanc major depressive disorder in adults is escitalopram 10 milligran once daily (morning or evening). After one week the dose may to 20 mg once daily; however, there were no statistically signific improvements in efficacy at the higher dose, and higher rates o effects were reported (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, OI 2009; Wade et al, 2002; Gorman, 2001a).

##### 1.3.1.A.2 Switching To Or From a Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitor

a) Because of a potential interaction, at least 14 days should elaps discontinuation of a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) and the in escitalopram therapy or between the cessation of escitalopram and of MAOI therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets

### 1.3.2 Dosage in Renal Failure

#### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

1) In patients with mild to moderate renal impairment, there is no dose e recommended. Caution should be used in patients with severe renal imp Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

### 1.3.3 Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency

#### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

1) Escitalopram is extensively metabolized in the liver. The recommend patients with hepatic impairment is 10 milligrams (mg) orally once daily ( LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

### 1.3.4 Dosage in Geriatric Patients

#### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

1) In pharmacokinetic studies, escitalopram half-life was increased by a 50% in elderly patients as compared with young patients. The recomme elderly patients is 10 milligrams (mg) of escitalopram once daily (Prod In (R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

### 1.3.6 Dosage in Other Disease States

#### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

##### 1) Discontinuation of Treatment

a) Patients should be monitored for withdrawal symptoms when dis escitalopram treatment and a gradual tapering of the dose, rather th discontinuation, is recommended whenever possible. If intolerable s occur after a dose reduction or upon cessation of treatment, the pre prescribed dose may be reinstated and then the dose may be reduc gradual rate (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 20

##### 2) Pregnancy

a) Neonates exposed to escitalopram and other selective serotonin

inhibitors (SSRI) or selective noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors (SNRI). In the third trimester have developed complications requiring prolonged hospitalization, mechanical tube feeding, and respiratory support. The potential risks and benefits should be carefully considered when treating pregnant women with escitalopram in the third trimester. Tapering escitalopram in the third trimester may be considered (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### 1.4 Pediatric Dosage

##### [Normal Dosage](#)

##### [Dosage in Renal Failure](#)

##### [Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency](#)

##### [Dosage in Other Disease States](#)

#### 1.4.1 Normal Dosage

##### 1.4.1.A Escitalopram Oxalate

###### 1.4.1.A.1 Oral route

###### 1.4.1.A.1.a Major depressive disorder

- 1) The initial recommended dose in the acute and maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder in adolescents age 12 years and older is escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) orally once daily (morning or evening). After 3 weeks the dose may be increased to 20 mg once daily; however, there were no statistically significant improvements in efficacy at the 20 mg and higher rates of adverse effects were reported (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).
- 2) The safety and effectiveness in children for the acute treatment of generalized anxiety disorder have not been established (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).
- 3) The safety and effectiveness in children under the age of 12 years for the acute and maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder have not been established (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### 1.4.2 Dosage in Renal Failure

##### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

- 1) In patients with mild to moderate renal impairment, there is no dose adjustment recommended. Caution should be used in patients with severe renal impairment (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### 1.4.3 Dosage in Hepatic Insufficiency

##### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

- 1) Escitalopram is extensively metabolized in the liver. The recommended dose for patients with hepatic impairment is 10 milligrams (mg) orally once daily (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### 1.4.5 Dosage in Other Disease States

##### A) Escitalopram Oxalate

###### 1) Discontinuation of Treatment

- a) Patients should be monitored for withdrawal symptoms when discontinuing escitalopram treatment and a gradual tapering of the dose, rather than abrupt discontinuation, is recommended whenever possible. If intolerable symptoms occur after a dose reduction or upon cessation of treatment, the previously prescribed dose may be reinstated and then the dose may be reduced at a gradual rate (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

## 2.0 Pharmacokinetics

### [Onset and Duration](#)

### Drug Concentration Levels

### ADME

#### **2.1 Onset and Duration**

- A) Onset
  - 1) Initial Response
    - a) DEPRESSION, ORAL: 1 to 2 weeks (Montgomery et al, 2001; Wade Burke, 2001a).
      - 1) Indicates time to a significant antidepressant effect compared to doses of 10 or 20 mg daily.
    - b) ANXIETY IN DEPRESSION, ORAL: 1 week (Lydiard, 2001b).

#### **2.2 Drug Concentration Levels**

- A) Therapeutic Drug Concentration
  - 1) Not established.
- B) Time to Peak Concentration
  - 1) ORAL, TABLET: 3 to 6 hours (single 20-mg dose) (Prod Info Lexapro(TM) Drewes et al, 2001; Gutierrez et al, 2001).
    - a) In healthy subjects, a mean peak plasma level of 18.8 ng/mL was observed 4 hours after single oral doses of escitalopram 20 mg in healthy subjects. Its major metabolite, S(+)-desmethylcitalopram, occurred in 14 hours (mean peak level 1.5 ng/mL) (Drewes et al, 2001). After 40-mg oral doses of racemic citalopram, nearly identical peak levels and times to peak levels of escitalopram and S(+)-desmethylcitalopram (3.5 ng/mL in 14.2 hours) were observed. Other pharmacokinetic parameters were also very similar (eg, AUC, half-life, excretion). These data collectively suggest that 20 mg escitalopram is bioequivalent to 40 mg citalopram with respect to escitalopram and S(+)-desmethylcitalopram.
    - b) Duration: Following single oral doses of escitalopram 20 mg, plasma levels fell from a peak of about 19 ng/mL to approximately 1 ng/mL at 120 hours (Drewes et al, 2001).
- C) Area Under the Curve
  - 1) 600 to 635 hr x ng/mL (20-mg single dose) (Drewes et al, 2001); (Gutierrez et al, 2001).
    - a) AUC (infinity) values for both escitalopram and S(+)-desmethylcitalopram were similar after oral doses of escitalopram 20 mg and citalopram 40 mg in healthy subjects. Specifically, the mean AUC was approximately 600 hr x ng/mL after 20 mg escitalopram (Drewes et al, 2001).

#### **2.3 ADME**

##### Absorption

##### Distribution

##### Metabolism

##### Excretion

##### Elimination Half-life

#### **2.3.1 Absorption**

- A) Bioavailability
  - 1) ORAL, TABLET: 80% for citalopram; no data available for escitalopram (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h)
    - a) Escitalopram 20 mg and citalopram 40 mg appear bioequivalent to escitalopram and S(+)-desmethylcitalopram (peak plasma levels at 4 hours, times to peak levels, other pharmacokinetic parameters) (Drewes et al, 2001).
- B) Effects of Food
  - 1) None (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h)

#### **2.3.2 Distribution**

- A) Distribution Sites

- 1) Protein Binding
  - a) 56% (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h).
- B) Distribution Kinetics
  - 1) Volume of Distribution
    - a) approximately 1330 L (single 20-mg oral dose) (Drewes et al, 2001)
      - 1) Similar to the value for escitalopram after 40 mg of oral citalopram (Drewes et al, 2001).

### 2.3.3 Metabolism

- A) Metabolism Sites and Kinetics
  - 1) LIVER, extensive (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h; Greenblatt et al, 2001; Moltke et al, 2001; Greenblatt et al, 2000); (Gutierrez et al, 2001).
    - a) Escitalopram (S(+)-citalopram) is metabolized to S(+)-desmethyl which is mediated by cytochrome P450 isozymes 2D6, 2C19, and 3A4. The metabolism of S(+)-desmethylcitalopram to S(+)-didesmethylcitalopram via cytochrome P450-2D6 (von Moltke et al, 2001; Greenblatt et al, 2000).
      - b) Studies with human liver microsomes (Greenblatt et al, 2001) have shown that escitalopram and S(+)-desmethylcitalopram are only weak or non-inhibitors of cytochrome P450 isozymes 1A2, 2C19, 2C9, 2D6, 2E1, and 3A4. Didesmethylcitalopram was also only a weak inhibitor of 1A2, 2C19, and 3A4, although moderate inhibition of the 2C9 and 2C19 isozymes was observed with this metabolite; these latter effects do not appear clinically relevant due to the low plasma levels of S(+)-didesmethylcitalopram observed after escitalopram.
      - c) There is no apparent in vivo interconversion from S-enantiomers to R-enantiomers following oral doses of escitalopram (Drewes et al, 2001).
- B) Metabolites
  - 1) S(+)-Desmethylcitalopram (active in vitro) (von Moltke et al, 2001).
    - a) Major metabolite; 7 times less potent than escitalopram. Despite evidence of serotonin reuptake inhibition, the contribution of this metabolite to the clinical activity of escitalopram is considered minimal (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h).
  - 2) S(+)-Didesmethylcitalopram (active in vitro) (Greenblatt et al, 2001).
    - a) Twenty-seven times less potent than escitalopram. Despite evidence of serotonin reuptake inhibition, the contribution of this metabolite to the clinical activity of escitalopram is doubtful as it is present in very low concentrations in plasma (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h).

### 2.3.4 Excretion

- A) Kidney
  - 1) Renal Clearance (rate)
    - a) 2.7 L/hr (single 20-mg oral dose) (Drewes et al, 2001).
      - 1) Similar to the value for escitalopram after oral citalopram 40 mg.
      - 2) For S(+)-desmethylcitalopram, a value of 6.9 L/hr was reported for 20 mg oral escitalopram (Drewes et al, 2001); this was similar to the value for S(+)-desmethylcitalopram after oral citalopram 40 mg.
  - 2) Renal Excretion (%)
    - a) 8% unchanged (single 20-mg oral dose) (Drewes et al, 2001).
      - 1) Identical to the escitalopram value observed after oral doses of 40 mg.
      - 2) Approximately 10% of an oral dose of escitalopram 20 mg is excreted as S(+)-desmethylcitalopram (Drewes et al, 2001). This is similar to the value for S(+)-desmethylcitalopram excretion after oral citalopram 40 mg.
- B) Total Body Clearance
  - 1) 600 mL/min (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h).
    - a) Similar to the value for escitalopram clearance after oral doses of 40 mg (Drewes et al, 2001).

### 2.3.5 Elimination Half-life

- A) Parent Compound
  - 1) ELIMINATION HALF-LIFE
    - a) 22 to 32 hours (single 20-mg oral dose) (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h; Gutierrez et al, 2001)(Drewes et al, 2001).
      - 1) Escitalopram half-life is increased by approximately 50% in elderly patients as compared with young patients. (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002h)
      - 2) Similar to the value for escitalopram after oral citalopram 40 mg.

et al, 2001).

**B) Metabolites**

- 1) S(+)-Desmethylcitalopram, 59 hours (Drewes et al, 2001).
  - a) Represents value after 20 mg oral escitalopram.
  - b) This value is similar to that observed for the metabolite following citalopram 40 mg (Drewes et al, 2001).

**3.0 Cautions**

Contraindications

Precautions

Adverse Reactions

Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy/Breastfeeding

Drug Interactions

**3.0.A Black Box WARNING**

**1) Escitalopram Oxalate**

**a) Oral (Tablet; Solution)**

**Suicidality and Antidepressant Drugs**

Antidepressants increased the risk compared to placebo of suicidal think behavior (suicidality) in children, adolescents, and young adults in short-of major depressive disorder (MDD) and other psychiatric disorders. Any considering the use of escitalopram oxalate or any other antidepressant adolescent, or young adult must balance this risk with the clinical need. : studies did not show an increase in the risk of suicidality with antidepres compared to placebo in adults beyond age 24; there was a reduction in antidepressants compared to placebo in adults aged 65 and older. Depr certain other psychiatric disorders are themselves associated with incre of suicide. Patients of all ages who are started on antidepressant therap monitored appropriately and observed closely for clinical worsening, suic unusual changes in behavior. Families and caregivers should be advise for close observation and communication with the prescriber. Escitalopr not approved for use in pediatric patients (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tabl 2009).

**3.1 Contraindications**

**A) Escitalopram Oxalate**

- 1) concomitant use of pimozide or monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs) (F Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 2) hypersensitivity to citalopram, escitalopram, or any other component of th (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**3.2 Precautions**

**A) Escitalopram Oxalate**

- 1) suicidal ideation and behavior or worsening depression; increased risk, p children, adolescents, and young adults, during the first few months of therap changes in dosage (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 2) abnormal bleeding has been reported, including life-threatening hemorrh; Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 3) abrupt withdrawal; serious discontinuation symptoms have been reported Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 4) bipolar disorder; increased risk of precipitation of a mixed/manic episode Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)
- 5) concomitant use of NSAIDs, aspirin, or other drugs that affect coagulator bleeding, particularly the gastrointestinal tract, may occur (Prod Info Lexapro tablets, solution, 2009)
- 6) concomitant serotonergic drug use (serotonin precursors (tryptophan), SS serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors); monitoring recommended duri escitalopram initiation and discontinuation (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, 2009)
- 7) diseases or conditions that produce altered metabolism or hemodynamic

(Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**8)** hepatic impairment; reduced drug clearance; lower or less frequent dose required (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**9)** mania history; risk of activation of mania/hypomania (Prod Info Lexapro(F solution, 2009)

**10)** seizure disorder, history (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**11)** serotonin syndrome has been reported, including cases that are life-threatening that resemble neuroleptic malignant syndrome; monitoring recommended (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**12)** use of escitalopram within 14 days of MAOI discontinuation (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**13)** use of MAOIs within 14 days after escitalopram discontinuation (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

**14)** volume-depleted, elderly, or concurrent diuretic therapy; hyponatremia; inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion (SIADH) has occurred; discontinuation of symptoms develop (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009)

### 3.3 Adverse Reactions

[Cardiovascular Effects](#)

[Dermatologic Effects](#)

[Endocrine/Metabolic Effects](#)

[Gastrointestinal Effects](#)

[Hematologic Effects](#)

[Hepatic Effects](#)

[Immunologic Effects](#)

[Musculoskeletal Effects](#)

[Neurologic Effects](#)

[Ophthalmic Effects](#)

[Psychiatric Effects](#)

[Renal Effects](#)

[Respiratory Effects](#)

[Other](#)

#### 3.3.1 Cardiovascular Effects

##### 3.3.1.A Escitalopram Oxalate

[Bradycardia](#)

[Heart failure](#)

[Hypertension](#)

[INR raised](#)

Myocardial infarction

Palpitations

Prolonged QT interval

Sudden cardiac death

Torsades de pointes

**3.3.1.A.1 Bradycardia**

- a) Incidence: 1% or less (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) No significant effects on blood pressure, heart rate, or the ECG were observed with therapeutic doses in studies monitoring these parameters (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Burke, 2001; Burke, 2000).
- c) A 60-year-old post-stroke female experienced severe bradycardia, loss of consciousness and respiratory failure within 45 minutes of escitalopram treatment. Upon admission to the stroke unit 3 days prior, neurological examination revealed a left brachiofacial hemiparesis and ECG was normal. Acute ischemic stroke involving the right temporo-insular cortex was confirmed by MRI, while doppler ultrasonography and cerebral angiography revealed 90% stenosis of the left internal carotid artery and complete occlusion of the right internal carotid artery. Because she had a history of depression (untreated at the time) she was treated with escitalopram after her stroke, she was treated with escitalopram. The episode of bradycardia (20-30 beats/min) was successfully treated and the patient survived. She retrospectively remembered experiencing dizziness and fainting following her treatment with escitalopram 20 mg several years prior. The exact cause of the life-threatening bradycardia is unclear, but stroke involving the insular cortex has been reported to induce ECG abnormalities, increasing the risk for cardiac abnormality (Beyenburg & Schonegger, 2007).

**3.3.1.A.2 Heart failure**

- a) Cardiac failure has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.1.A.3 Hypertension**

- a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Hypertension has been reported in at least 1% of patients following escitalopram treatment (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).
- c) No significant effects on blood pressure, heart rate, or the ECG were observed with therapeutic doses in studies monitoring these parameters (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Burke, 2001; Burke, 2000).

**3.3.1.A.4 INR raised**

- a) Increased INR has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.1.A.5 Myocardial infarction**

- a) Myocardial infarction has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.1.A.6 Palpitations**

- a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Palpitations have been reported in at least 1% of patients following escitalopram treatment (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).
- c) No significant effects on blood pressure, heart rate, or the ECG were observed with therapeutic doses in studies monitoring these parameters (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Burke, 2001; Burke, 2000).

**3.3.1.A.7 Prolonged QT interval**

- a) Electrocardiogram QT prolongation has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous and clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.1.A.8 Sudden cardiac death**

a) In a large cohort study including 481,744 persons and 1487 case cardiac death occurring in a community setting, the use of selective reuptake inhibitors was not associated with an increased risk of sudden death (rate ratio, 0.95; 95% CI, 0.42 to 2.15). In contrast, users of tr antidepressants in doses of 100 mg or higher (amitriptyline or its eq a 41% increased rate of sudden cardiac death (rate ratio, 1.41; 95% 1.95) (Ray et al, 2004).

#### 3.3.1.A.9 Torsades de pointes

a) Torsades de pointes has been reported in postmarketing sponta clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

### 3.3.2 Dermatologic Effects

#### 3.3.2.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### [Diaphoresis](#)

##### [Erythroderma](#)

##### [Rash](#)

#### 3.3.2.A.1 Diaphoresis

a) Incidence: 4% to 5% (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution.  
b) Increased sweating was observed in 4% to 5% of patients during treatment compared with 1% to 2% in matched placebo groups (Pr Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009; Montgomery et al, 2001a).

#### 3.3.2.A.2 Erythroderma

a) A 49-year-old female reported a case of photo-induced erythrodi escitalopram therapy. The patient was initiated on escitalopram 10 reactive depression. She was exposed to UV rays for 15 minutes in tanning bed about 4 hours following her first dose. Thirty-six hours developed a skin rash which covered her face and body. Escitalop discontinued 5 days later. Examination revealed diffuse erythema, sparing only medallion, and string. Skin biopsy results revealed sing necrosis of keratinocytes with mild infiltrate of lymphocytes in the dermis. Immunological evaluation was unremarkable. Photo-induce erythroderma was diagnosed and a regimen of betamethasone dipr 0.05% was initiated. The rash resolved within 3 weeks but with cont pigmentation (Ram-Wolf et al, 2008).

#### 3.3.2.A.3 Rash

a) Incidence: at least 1% (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solutio  
b) Rash has been reported in at least 1% of patients treated with e: (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, solution, 2009; Montgomery et al

### 3.3.3 Endocrine/Metabolic Effects

#### 3.3.3.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### [Diabetes mellitus](#)

##### [Hyponatremia](#)

##### [Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion](#)

##### [Weight increased](#)

#### 3.3.3.A.1 Diabetes mellitus

a) Diabetes mellitus has been reported in postmarketing spontanec

clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

### 3.3.3.A.2 Hyponatremia

**a)** Individual case reports have described development of hyponatremia following initiation of escitalopram therapy (Grover et al, 2007; Nirmalani et al Nahshoni et al, 2004). The incidence of hyponatremia associated with SSRI therapy ranges between 0.5% to 25%. Risk factors for the development of hyponatremia include older age, female gender, low body weight, high SSRI, and concomitant use of diuretics, antipsychotics, narcotics, and hypoglycemic agents. Routine monitoring of electrolyte levels especially in the elderly during the first 2 to 4 weeks of therapy may be warranted (Grover 2007).

**b)** A case report described development of hyponatremia following therapy in a 67-year-old female. The patient, who had a history of type 2 diabetes mellitus, and late-onset bipolar affective disorder, had presented with acute-onset, severe depression without psychotic symptoms of 4 months duration. Escitalopram was initiated at 10 mg/day and after 3 weeks was escalated to 15 mg/day. The patient had normal electrolyte levels prior to initiation of escitalopram, and concomitant drug therapy included sodium valproate, hydrochlorothiazide, gliclazide, aspirin, losartan, and metoprolol. With the escalation of escitalopram dose, the patient became delirious, and had serum sodium levels of 127 mEq/L and increased urine sodium concentration 160 mmol/L. Following discontinuation of escitalopram and thiazides, and provision of supportive therapy, the patient's level of consciousness gradually improved (Grover et al, 2007).

**c)** Hyponatremia occurred in a 65-year-old male patient subsequent to initiation of escitalopram. The patient, who had a history of generalized anxiety disorder and hypertension was initiated on escitalopram 10 mg/day after he presented with anxiety symptoms. Concurrent medications included amlodipine and metoprolol. Within 10 days of initiating escitalopram, the patient experienced generalized tonic-clonic seizures and was found to have a serum sodium of 126 mEq/L. Following discontinuation of escitalopram and provision of supportive care, the patient gradually improved over the next 2 weeks (Grover et al, 2007).

**d)** A 50-year-old black male experienced the syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone (SIADH) within 4 weeks of initiating escitalopram for depression. Upon admission to the hospital, he was on no other medications. Physical exam was normal, and all diagnostic tests for acute illness were negative. Serum sodium was within the normal range at 138 mmol/L. Escitalopram 10 mg at bedtime and olanzapine 10 mg at bedtime were begun on hospital admission. The doses were increased over the next 3 weeks. The patient was taking escitalopram by day 13. Due to lack of efficacy, olanzapine was discontinued on day 23, and risperidone 2 mg/day was initiated. Over the next week the patient's depression improved, but by day 28, he complained of weight gain, dizziness, and appeared diaphoretic. The results of a complete metabolic panel were unremarkable except for serum sodium of 121 mmol/L, serum potassium 3.5 mmol/L, and serum osmolality of 254 mOsm/kg (normal 275-300 mOsm/kg). Urine osmolality was 617 mOsm/kg (normal 50-1,200 mOsm/kg) and urine sodium was 115 mmol/L. Following a diagnosis of SIADH, the patient was placed on fluid restriction. Escitalopram 20 mg/day and risperidone 2 mg/day were continued. By day 32 the patient's sodium rose to 130 mmol/L, but it had again decreased to 124 mmol/L. The escitalopram was then discontinued and the patient improved by day 39. Sodium returned to normal at 135 mmol/L on day 41. Depression was successfully treated with mirtazapine 30 mg/day, risperidone 2 mg/day and the patient was discharged on day 46 (Nirmalani et al, 2006).

**e)** The syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone (SIADH) and hyponatremia was reported in a 62-year-old female patient 3 weeks after initiation of escitalopram 10 mg/day for depression. She was admitted to hospital following a syncopal fall resulting in head trauma. Upon admission her serum sodium level was 110 mmol/L, serum osmolality was 261 mOsm/kg, serum potassium was 53 mmol/L, and urine osmolality was 286 mmol/kg. The patient was identified for possible causes of SIADH was the use of escitalopram, which was discontinued. The patient was treated with intravenous normal saline and her sodium levels slowly normalized. At discharge her serum sodium was 135 mmol/L; one week later it was stabilized at 135 mmol/L and serum osmolality returned to normal levels. The patient's depression was successfully treated with mirtazapine 30 mg/day without recurrence of hyponatremia.

(Nahshoni et al, 2004).

#### **3.3.3.A.3 Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretic**

**a)** A 50-year-old black male experienced the syndrome of inappropri antidiuretic hormone (SIADH) within 4 weeks of initiating escitalopraz depression. Upon admission to the hospital, he was on no other me physical exam was normal, and all diagnostic tests for acute illness Serum sodium was within the normal range at 138 mmol/L. Escitalo at bedtime and olanzapine 10 mg at bedtime were begun on hospita the doses increased over the next 3 weeks. The patient was taking escitalopram by day 13. Due to lack of efficacy, olanzapine was dis day 23, and risperidone 2 mg/day was initiated. Over the next week patient's depression improved, but by day 28, he complained of wez dizziness, and appeared diaphoretic. The results of a complete mec were unremarkable except for serum sodium of 121 mmol/L, serum mmol/L, and serum osmolality of 254 mOsm/kg (normal 275-300 mt Urine osmolality was 617 mOsm/kg (normal 50-1,200 mOsm/kg) an sodium was 115 mmol/L. Following a diagnosis of SIADH, the patie on fluid restriction. Escitalopram 20 mg/day and risperidone 2 mg/d continued. By day 32 the patient's sodium rose to 130 mmol/L, but t had again decreased to 124 mmol/L. The escitalopram was then dis and the patient improved by day 39. Sodium returned to normal at 1 day 41. Depression was successfully treated with mirtazapine 30 m risperidone 2 mg/day and the patient was discharged on day 46 (Ni 2006).

**b)** The syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone (SIADH) an hyponatremia was reported in a 62-year-old female patient 3 weeks initiation of escitalopram 10 mg/day for depression. She was admitt hospital following a syncopal fall resulting in head trauma. Upon adr serum sodium level was 110 mmol/L, serum osmolality was 261 mn sodium was 53 mmol/L, and urine osmolality was 286 mmol/kg. The identified for possible causes of SIADH was the use of escitalopram was discontinued. The patient was treated with intravenous normal her sodium levels slowly normalized. At discharge her serum sodiur mmol/L; one week later it was stabilized at 135 mmol/L and serum osmolality returned to normal levels. The patient's depression was s treated with mirtazapine 30 mg/day without recurrence of hyponatre (Nahshoni et al, 2004).

#### **3.3.3.A.4 Weight increased**

**a)** Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

**b)** Increased weight has been reported in at least 1% of patients re escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

### **3.3.4 Gastrointestinal Effects**

#### **3.3.4.A Escitalopram Oxalate**

[Abdominal pain](#)

[Constipation](#)

[Diarrhea](#)

[Gastroenteritis](#)

[Gastrointestinal hemorrhage](#)

[Heartburn](#)

[Indigestion](#)

[Nausea](#)

[Pancreatitis](#)

[Rectal hemorrhage](#)

[Vomiting](#)

[Xerostomia](#)

**3.3.4.A.1 Abdominal pain**

- a) Incidence: 1% to 2% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Abdominal pain has been reported in 1% to 2% of patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Gorman, 2001; Burke, 2001) (Lepola 2001).

**3.3.4.A.2 Constipation**

- a) Incidence: 3% to 6% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Constipation has been reported in 3% to 6% of patients receiving (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.4.A.3 Diarrhea**

- a) Incidence: 6% to 14% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Diarrhea has been reported in 6% to 14% of patients receiving (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.4.A.4 Gastroenteritis**

- a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Gastroenteritis has been reported in at least 1% patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Gorman, 2001; Burke, 2001) (Lepola 2001).

**3.3.4.A.5 Gastrointestinal hemorrhage**

See Drug Consult reference: [CONCOMITANT USE OF SSRIs AND INCREASED RISK OF GASTROINTESTINAL BLEEDING](#)

**3.3.4.A.6 Heartburn**

- a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Heartburn has been reported in at least 1% patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Gorman, 2001; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al 2001).

**3.3.4.A.7 Indigestion**

- a) Incidence: 2% to 6% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Indigestion has been reported in 2% to 6% of patients receiving (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.4.A.8 Nausea**

- a) Incidence: 15% to 18% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Nausea has been reported in 15% to 18% of patients receiving escitalopram (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.4.A.9 Pancreatitis**

- a) Pancreatitis has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous adverse events trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.4.A.10 Rectal hemorrhage**

a) Rectal hemorrhage has been reported in postmarketing spontan clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.4.A.11 Vomiting**

a) Incidence: 3% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Vomiting has been reported in 3% of patients receiving escitalopram therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Gorman, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.4.A.12 Xerostomia**

a) Incidence: 6% to 9% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Dry mouth has been reported in 6% to 9% of patients receiving escitalopram (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Burke, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001) (Lepola et al, 2001).

**3.3.5 Hematologic Effects****3.3.5.A Escitalopram Oxalate**[Anemia](#)[Contusion](#)[Epistaxis](#)[Hematoma](#)**3.3.5.A.1 Anemia**

a) Incidence: 1% or less (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Anemia has been reported in less than 1% of patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.5.A.2 Contusion**

a) Incidence: 1% or less (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Bruising has been reported in less than 1% of patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.5.A.3 Epistaxis**

a) Incidence: 1% or less (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Nosebleed has been reported in 1% or less of patients receiving escitalopram therapy, and has been associated with SSRI and serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) therapy in general (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.5.A.4 Hematoma**

a) Incidence: 1% or less (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Hematoma has been reported in 1% or less of patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.6 Hepatic Effects****3.3.6.A Escitalopram Oxalate**[Fulminant hepatitis](#)[Hepatic necrosis](#)[Liver failure](#)

**3.3.6.A.1 Fulminant hepatitis**

a) Fulminant hepatitis has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.6.A.2 Hepatic necrosis**

a) Hepatic necrosis has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.6.A.3 Liver failure**

a) Hepatic failure has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.7 Immunologic Effects****3.3.7.A Escitalopram Oxalate****3.3.7.A.1 Anaphylaxis**

a) Oculogyric crisis with mixed anaphylactic features developed in a female after ingestion of 20 milligrams (mg) of escitalopram in addition to her 10 mg daily dose. The patient experienced a dystonic upward deviation of the eye along with diaphoresis, dyspnea, palpitations, and swelling of the tongue. She self-administered a 0.3-mg dose of intramuscular epinephrine autoinjector and symptoms temporarily resolved, but recurred after 1 hour. Resolution of all symptoms was achieved with administration of lorazepam. The patient had previously reported an episode of anaphylaxis while being treated with sertraline 50 mg daily. It is unclear if the dystonic symptoms of anaphylaxis are related (Patel & Simon, 2006).

**3.3.8 Musculoskeletal Effects****3.3.8.A Escitalopram Oxalate****Arthralgia****Fracture of bone****Fracture of bone, Nonvertebral****Myalgia****Rhabdomyolysis****3.3.8.A.1 Arthralgia**

a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)

b) Arthralgia has been reported in at least 1% of patients following treatment (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.8.A.2 Fracture of bone**

a) In a population-based, randomly selected, prospective cohort study for potential covariates, an increased risk of fragility fracture was reported at 5-year follow-up in patients 50 years of age and older who used daily SSRI (n=137; mean age of 65.1 years), including escitalopram (escitalopram in this study), compared with those who did not use an SSRI (n=487; mean age of 65.7 years). Daily SSRI use was associated with a significant 2.1-fold increased risk of fragility fracture (95% confidence interval (CI), 1.3 to 3.3). Daily SSRI use was associated with a 1.5-fold increased risk of fracture (95% CI, 1.1 to 2.1). Daily SSRI users who were recurrent (ie, treated at baseline and at 5-year follow-up) had a significant 2.1-fold increased risk of fragility fracture (95% CI, 1.1 to 4). Fractures were reported at the following sites: forearm (40%), ankle and foot (21%), hip (13%), rib (13%), femur (9%), and toe (4%). None were reported at the skull, toes, or fingers (Richards et al, 2007). Increased risk of fragility fracture has been reported in a prospective study of SSRIs, including escitalopram (Richards et al, 2007). Escitalopram was included in this study.

**3.3.8.A.3 Fracture of bone, Nonvertebral**

a) In a prospective, population-based, cohort study (n=7983) with a follow-up of 8.4 years, there was an increased risk of nonvertebral fracture in participants older than 55 years of age (mean age of 77.5 years) who were currently using an SSRI (citalopram, escitalopram, fluoxetine, fluvoxamine, or sertraline) compared to those who were not exposed to antidepressants. Current SSRI use was associated with an increased risk of nonvertebral fracture (adjusted hazard ratio (HR), 2.35; 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.32 to 4.18) compared with no antidepressant use. Current SSRI use was also associated with an increased risk of nonvertebral fracture (adjusted HR, 2.07; 95% CI, 1.23 to 3.5) compared with past antidepressant use. In addition, duration of SSRI use showed a 9% increase in fracture risk per month on an SSRI (95% CI, 3% to 16%; p for trend=0.004). Fracture sites (most frequent), wrist, humerus, and pelvis were reported (Ziere et al).

**3.3.8.A.4 Myalgia**

a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)  
b) Myalgia has been reported in at least 1% of patients following escitalopram treatment (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.8.A.5 Rhabdomyolysis**

a) Rhabdomyolysis has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous reports (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

**3.3.9 Neurologic Effects****3.3.9.A Escitalopram Oxalate**

[Agitation](#)

[Dizziness](#)

[Feeling nervous](#)

[Grand mal seizure](#)

[Headache](#)

[Insomnia](#)

[Lightheadedness](#)

[Neuroleptic malignant syndrome](#)

[Restless legs syndrome](#)

[Serotonin syndrome](#)

[Somnolence](#)

[Tremor](#)

**3.3.9.A.1 Agitation**

a) Incidence: 1% or less (Lydiard, 2001a)  
b) Agitation has occurred in less than 1% of patients treated with escitalopram or placebo (Lydiard, 2001a).

**3.3.9.A.2 Dizziness**

a) Incidence: 4% to 7% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)  
b) Dizziness has been reported in 4% to 7% of patients receiving escitalopram.

(10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Inf (R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001b; Montgomery Burke, 2001; Gorman, 2001).

#### **3.3.9.A.3 Feeling nervous**

- a) Incidence: 1% or less (Lydiard, 2001a)
- b) Nervousness has occurred in less than 1% of patients treated with escitalopram or placebo (Lydiard, 2001a).

#### **3.3.9.A.4 Grand mal seizure**

- a) Grand mal seizures have been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

#### **3.3.9.A.5 Headache**

- a) Incidence: 24% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Headache has been reported in 24% of patients receiving escitalopram (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001b; Montgomery et al, 2001c; Burke, 2001; Gorman, 2001).

#### **3.3.9.A.6 Insomnia**

- a) Incidence: 7% to 14% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Insomnia has been reported in 7% to 14% of patients receiving escitalopram (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001b; Montgomery Burke, 2001; Gorman, 2001).

#### **3.3.9.A.7 Lightheadedness**

- a) Incidence: 1% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Lightheadedness has been reported in at least 1% of patients receiving escitalopram therapy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

#### **3.3.9.A.8 Neuroleptic malignant syndrome**

- a) Neuroleptic malignant syndrome has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous and clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

#### **3.3.9.A.9 Restless legs syndrome**

- a) In a prospective, naturalistic study of patients (median age, 46 years; range 18 to 87 years) treated with antidepressants, 24 of 271 (9%) subjects experienced new-onset restless leg syndrome (RLS) or worsening of RLS as a side effect related to treatment. Antidepressants included paroxetine, citalopram, sertraline, escitalopram, venlafaxine, duloxetine, reboxetine, and mirtazapine. Mirtazapine led to a marked decline in the number of subjects compared with reboxetine which had none. The other antidepressants showed RLS symptoms (newly occurred or deteriorated) at the rate of 10%. Subjects stated symptoms occurred early in treatment (median range 1 to 23 days) (Rottach et al, 2008).

#### **3.3.9.A.10 Serotonin syndrome**

- a) Serotonin syndrome has been reported in postmarketing spontaneous clinical trials (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

#### **3.3.9.A.11 Somnolence**

- a) Incidence: 4% to 13% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)
- b) Somnolence has been reported in 4% to 13% of patients receiving escitalopram (10 to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Burke, 2001; Gorman, 2001).

#### **3.3.9.A.12 Tremor**

- a) Incidence: 1% or less (Lydiard, 2001a)
- b) Tremors have occurred in less than 1% of patients treated with escitalopram or placebo (Lydiard, 2001a).

### **3.3.10 Ophthalmic Effects**

#### **3.3.10.A Escitalopram Oxalate**

[Angle-closure glaucoma](#)[Oculogyric crisis](#)**3.3.10.A.1 Angle-closure glaucoma**

a) A case of acute bilateral angle closure glaucoma with choroidal effusions occurred in a 41-year-old woman following escitalopram use. The woman had a history of depression and seasonal allergies, was placed on escitalopram 10 mg/day. Four weeks later, she presented with blurry vision in both eyes that had lasted several hours. Ophthalmic examinations revealed elevated intraocular pressures of 47 and 45 millimeters of mercury in both eyes and a best corrected visual acuity of 20/40 in both eyes, with a myopic shift of approximately 3 diopters from her current spectacle prescription. In addition, bilaterally shallow anterior chambers and closed angles for 360 degrees in both eyes were noted. Initial treatments, which consisted of topical timolol, dorzolamide, brimonidine, acetazolamide, and glycerin, followed by a laser peripheral iridotomy in the right eye, were not successful. The patient's corneas became edematous and visual acuity declined from 20/40 to 20/400 in both eyes, over the next 3 hours. Additional testing confirmed the presence of choroidal effusions with retinal detachments and diffuse choroidal thickening in each eye. Subsequent treatment was initiated with oral prednisone (1 mg/kg), topical prednisolone and cycloplegic drops, and escitalopram was discontinued. Over the next 2 weeks, the patient's clinical symptoms resolved as evidenced by 20/20 visual acuity, normal intraocular pressures, and deepening of anterior chamber angles. The authors postulated that escitalopram induced bilateral uveal effusions which resulted in angle closure in the patient (Zelevsky et al, 2006).

**3.3.10.A.2 Oculogyric crisis**

a) Oculogyric crisis with mixed anaphylactic features developed in a 35-year-old female after ingestion of 20 milligrams (mg) of escitalopram in addition to her 20 mg daily dose. The patient experienced a dystonic upward deviation of the right eye along with diaphoresis, dyspnea, palpitations, and swelling of the tongue. She self-administered a 0.3-mg dose of intramuscular epinephrine and symptoms temporarily resolved, but recurred after 2 hours. Resolution of all symptoms was achieved with administration of lorazepam and hydroxyzine. The patient had previously reported an episode of anxiety disorder while being treated with sertraline 50 mg daily. It is unclear if the dystonic symptoms of anaphylaxis are related (Patel & Simon, 2006).

**3.3.12 Psychiatric Effects****3.3.12.A Escitalopram Oxalate**[Depression, exacerbation](#)[Depression, worsening](#)[Psychotic disorder, acute](#)[Suicidal thoughts](#)[Suicide](#)**3.3.12.A.1 Depression, exacerbation**

a) Adult and pediatric patients who experience symptoms of anxiety, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility (aggressiveness), impulsivity, akathisia (psychomotor restlessness), hypomania, or mania may be at risk for worsening of their depression. This same concern applies to treating other psychiatric and nonpsychiatric disorders. If these symptoms are severe, therapy should be reevaluated and it may be necessary to discontinue escitalopram when symptoms are severe, sudden in onset, or were not present at the patient's initial symptoms (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Or.

2009; Anon, 2004; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008).

#### **3.3.12.A.2 Depression, worsening**

- a) Incidence: rare
- b) Clinical worsening of depression has been reported in patients receiving escitalopram therapy, particularly during the initial few months of treatment and during dose adjustments. It may persist until significant remission is achieved. In patients treated with antidepressants for any indication, signs of clinical worsening (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### **3.3.12.A.3 Psychotic disorder, acute**

- a) Acute psychosis has been reported during postmarketing use of escitalopram (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

#### **3.3.12.A.4 Suicidal thoughts**

- a) Incidence: rare
- b) Adult and pediatric patients being treated with antidepressants for major depressive disorder who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility (aggressiveness), impulsivity, hyperactivity (psychomotor restlessness), hypomania, or mania may be at risk of suicidal ideation and behavior (suicidality). This same concern applies to treatment with other psychiatric and nonpsychiatric disorders. If these symptoms are observed, therapy should be reevaluated and it may be necessary to change medications when symptoms are severe, sudden in onset, or were not present in the patient's initial symptoms. Patients and their caregivers should be provided with the Medication Guide that is available for this drug. Closely monitor patients, especially during the initial few months of therapy or at times of dose changes (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009; Anon, 2004).

c) A causal role for antidepressants in inducing suicidality has been demonstrated in pediatric patients. Anyone considering the use of antidepressants in pediatric patients must balance this risk with the clinical need. In pooled data from short-term, placebo-controlled trials of nine antidepressants (citalopram, fluoxetine, fluvoxamine, paroxetine, sertraline, bupropion, mirtazapine, nefazodone, and venlafaxine extended-release) including over 4400 patients with major depressive disorder (MDD), obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD), or other psychiatric disorders, a greater risk of suicidal behavior was observed during the first few months of therapy was demonstrated in receiving antidepressants as compared with placebo (4% vs 2%). The risk of suicidality was most consistently observed in the trials that included MDD, but there were signs of risk emerging from trials in other psychiatric indications, such as obsessive compulsive disorder and social anxiety disorder (Anon, 2004).

1) In a pooled analysis of placebo-controlled trials in adults with other psychiatric disorders including 295 short-term trials (median duration 2 months) of 11 antidepressant drugs in greater than 77,000 patients, the risk of suicidality varied among the drugs studied. However, for almost all drugs studied, there was a tendency toward increasing suicidality in younger patients. The risk difference (drug versus placebo in the number of suicides per 1000 patients treated) was 14 additional cases in patients younger than 18 years of age, 5 additional cases in patients 18 to 24 years of age, 1 case in patients 25 to 64 years, and 6 fewer cases in patients 65 years and older. No suicides occurred in the pediatric trials. Suicides did occur in the adult trials; however, the number of suicides was insufficient to establish causality. The risk of suicidality during longer-term use (ie, beyond 24 weeks) in pediatric patients is not known. However, evidence from placebo-controlled, maintenance trials in adults with depression does not substantiate a delay in the recurrence of depression with antidepressants (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009; Anon, 2004).

#### **3.3.12.A.5 Suicide**

- a) Incidence: rare
- b) Suicide has been reported in adult patients receiving escitalopram in clinical trials; however, the number of suicides was insufficient to establish causality (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

### 3.3.13 Renal Effects

#### 3.3.13.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### 3.3.13.A.1 Urogenital finding

a) EJACULATION DISTURBANCES (primary ejaculatory delay) ha reported in 9% to 14% of patients during escitalopram treatment in i studies compared with 2% to less than 1% in matched placebo grou DECREASED LIBIDO (7%) and ANORGASMIA (6%) have also bee following treatment with escitalopram (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2004 Gorman, 2001; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001a).

### 3.3.15 Respiratory Effects

#### 3.3.15.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### 3.3.15.A.1 Respiratory finding

a) BRONCHITIS, SINUS CONGESTION, COUGH, NASAL CONGI SINUS HEADACHE have occurred in at least 1% of patients treatec escitalopram (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2004).

### 3.3.16 Other

#### 3.3.16.A Escitalopram Oxalate

##### [Drug withdrawal](#)

##### [Fatigue](#)

##### [Serotonin syndrome](#)

##### 3.3.16.A.1 Drug withdrawal

See Drug Consult reference: [WITHDRAWAL SYNDROME OF SELECTIVE SEROTONIN REUPTAKE INHIBITORS](#)

##### 3.3.16.A.2 Fatigue

a) Incidence: 2% to 8% (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R), 2008)  
b) Fatigue has been reported in 2% to 8% of patients receiving esc to 20 mg) therapy, at a greater incidence than placebo (Prod Info LE 2008; Wade et al, 2001; Montgomery et al, 2001b; Montgomery et al Burke, 2001; Gorman, 2001).

##### 3.3.16.A.3 Serotonin syndrome

a) Serotonin syndrome, including life-threatening cases, or neurole syndrome (NMS)-like reactions have been reported with the use of alone. Signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome include mental s (eg, agitation, hallucination, coma), autonomic instability (eg, tachyc blood pressure, hyperthermia), neuromuscular aberrations (eg, hyp incoordination) and/or gastrointestinal symptoms (eg, nausea, vomit Severe serotonin syndrome can resemble NMS with symptoms incl hyperthermia, muscle rigidity, autonomic instability with possible rap of vital signs, and mental status changes. Serotonin syndrome occu commonly with the concomitant use of serotonergic drugs, including drugs that impair metabolism of serotonin, including MAOIs, or with or other dopamine antagonists (Prod Info Lexapro(R) oral tablets, s

### 3.4 Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy/Breastfeeding

#### A) Teratogenicity/Effects in Pregnancy

1) U.S. Food and Drug Administration's Pregnancy Category: Category C (P LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007) (All Trimesters)

a) Either studies in animals have revealed adverse effects on the fetus ( embryocidal or other) and there are no controlled studies in women or st women and animals are not available. Drugs should be given only if the benefit justifies the potential risk to the fetus.

- 2) Australian Drug Evaluation Committee's (ADEC) Category: C (Australian Department of Health and Ageing Therapeutic Goods Administration, 2006)
    - a) Drugs which, owing to their pharmacological effects, have caused or suspected of causing harmful effects on the human fetus or neonate with malformations. These effects may be reversible. Accompanying texts should be consulted for further details.
  - See Drug Consult reference: [PREGNANCY RISK CATEGORIES](#)
  - 3) Crosses Placenta: Yes
  - 4) Clinical Management
    - a) There are no data on the use of escitalopram, the S(+)-enantiomer of citalopram, during human pregnancy at this time. However, complications have been reported in neonates exposed to other SSRIs or serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) in the third trimester. Nonteratogenic effects (pulmonary hypertension in newborn (PPHN) and clinical findings consistent with serotonin syndrome) increased special or intensive unit care of the infant were demonstrated with maternal use of SSRIs during the third trimester of pregnancy (Chamber One study revealed that women who discontinued antidepressant medication during pregnancy had a greater likelihood of relapse compared with those who continued antidepressant therapy throughout the pregnancy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007). Animal studies of escitalopram and citalopram during pregnancy have shown adverse effects only with doses much higher than those used in humans. When deciding whether to treat a pregnant woman with escitalopram during the third trimester, evaluate the potential risk to the fetus and the benefit to the mother. Consider tapering the escitalopram dose during the third trimester of pregnancy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).
  - 5) Literature Reports
    - a) Neonates exposed to escitalopram and other SSRIs or serotonin-norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (SNRIs) late in the third trimester have developed complications some arising immediately upon delivery, including respiratory distress, vomiting, tremor, and irritability, that were consistent with either direct SSRI or selective SNRI toxicity or a possible drug discontinuation syndrome. In some clinical findings were consistent with serotonin syndrome (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).
    - b) In a case control study of women who delivered infants with pulmonary hypertension of the newborn (PPHN; n=377) and women who delivered infants (n=836), the risk for developing PPHN was approximately six-fold higher in infants exposed to SSRIs after week 20 of gestation compared with infants not exposed to SSRIs during gestation. This study demonstrates a potential for PPHN, associated with considerable neonatal morbidity and mortality, in infants exposed to SSRIs later in the pregnancy. Because this is the first study of PPHN with SSRI use during pregnancy and there are not enough cases to individual SSRIs, it can not be determined if all SSRIs posed similar risk. In the general population, PPHN occurs in 1 to 2 per 1000 live births (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007; Chambers et al, 2006).
    - c) In a prospective longitudinal study of 201 women with a history of major depression and no signs of depression at the beginning of pregnancy, there was a greater likelihood of relapse of major depression in those who discontinued antidepressant drugs during pregnancy compared with those who continued antidepressant drugs throughout the pregnancy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).
    - d) Fetal structural abnormalities, reduced fetal body weight, growth retardation, and death were reported in the offspring of rats and rabbits treated with either escitalopram or racemic citalopram during pregnancy at doses considered to be higher than the maximum recommended human dose. Mild maternal toxicity was reported in rat studies of escitalopram use during pregnancy (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).
- B) Breastfeeding**
- 1) Thomson Lactation Rating: Infant risk has been demonstrated.
    - a) Evidence and/or expert consensus has demonstrated harmful infant effects if used during breastfeeding. An alternative to this drug should be prescribed if breastfeeding should be advised to discontinue breastfeeding.
  - 2) Clinical Management
    - a) Escitalopram is the S(+)-enantiomer of citalopram. Citalopram is secreted into human breast milk and has been associated with some adverse effects in infants. Although there is no specific data on escitalopram, effects can be expected to be similar to that seen with citalopram. Bottle feeding is suggested during escitalopram therapy, and for at least 5 days after therapy discontinuation.

1998). The American Academy of Pediatrics considers antidepressants that warrant concern in the nursing infant, particularly if used for long periods (2001). A decision should be made whether to discontinue nursing or discontinue drug, taking into consideration the potential risks of escitalopram exposure and the benefits of treatment for the mother (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2007). If the use of escitalopram in a nursing mother is necessary, monitoring the infant for unusual sleepiness, changes in appetite, and weight gain. The long-term effects of exposure to SSRIs via breast milk on the cognitive development of the infant have not been determined.

### 3) Literature Reports

**a)** In a study describing 8 lactating women treated with an escitalopram daily dose of 10 mg (range, 10 to 20 mg) that began 55 days before the infant, the plasma concentrations of escitalopram and its active metabolite, demethylescitalopram, were undetectable (n=4), low (n=1), or not measurable. The total relative infant dose for escitalopram and its metabolite was a mean (95% confidence interval (CI), 4.2% to 6.2%) of the maternal weight-adjusted dose and the absolute doses were 7.6 mcg/kg/day (95% CI, 5.2 to 10) and 3.1 mcg/kg/day (95% CI, 2.4 to 3.6) for escitalopram and demethylescitalopram, respectively. The mean milk/plasma ratio was 2.2 for both escitalopram (95% confidence interval, 1.9 to 2.4) and demethylescitalopram (95% CI, 1.9 to 2.5). The authors suggest that escitalopram is safe for use in nursing mothers; however, individual cases have been reported based on a risk/benefit analysis (Rampono et al, 2006).

**b)** Although specific data are not available for escitalopram, racemic citalopram appears in breast milk. There have been two case reports of excessive weight loss, and decreased feeding in nursing infants whose mothers were taking citalopram. One infant reportedly recovered completely upon maternal citalopram discontinuation; follow-up information was not available for the other infant (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007; Anon, 1998).

## 3.5 Drug Interactions

### [Drug-Drug Combinations](#)

### [Drug-Food Combinations](#)

#### 3.5.1 Drug-Drug Combinations

[Abciximab](#)

[Aceclofenac](#)

[Acemetacin](#)

[Acenocoumarol](#)

[Alclofenac](#)

[Almotriptan](#)

[Anagrelide](#)

[Ancrod](#)

[Anisindione](#)

[Antithrombin III Human](#)

[Ardeparin](#)

[Aspirin](#)

[Benoxaprofen](#)

[Bivalirudin](#)

[Bromfenac](#)

[Bufexamac](#)

[Cannabis](#)

[Carprofen](#)

[Celecoxib](#)

[Certoparin](#)

[Cilostazol](#)

[Cimetidine](#)

[Clonixin](#)

[Clopidogrel](#)

[Clorgyline](#)

[Cyclobenzaprine](#)

[Dalteparin](#)

[Danaparoid](#)

[Defibrotide](#)

[Dehydroepiandrosterone](#)

[Dermatan Sulfate](#)

[Desipramine](#)

[Desirudin](#)

[Desvenlafaxine](#)

[Dexketoprofen](#)

[Diclofenac](#)

[Dicumarol](#)

[Diflunisal](#)

[Dipyridamole](#)

[Dipyrrone](#)

[Droxicam](#)

[Duloxetine](#)

[Eletriptan](#)

[Enoxaparin](#)

[Epoprostenol](#)

[Eptifibatide](#)

[Etodolac](#)

[Etofenamate](#)

[Etoricoxib](#)

[Felbinac](#)

[Fenbufen](#)

[Fenoprofen](#)

[Fentiazac](#)

[Floctafenine](#)

[Flufenamic Acid](#)

[Flurbiprofen](#)

[Fondaparinux](#)

[Frovatriptan](#)

[Furazolidone](#)

[Ginkgo](#)

[Heparin](#)

[Hydrocodone](#)

[Hydroxytryptophan](#)

[Ibuprofen](#)

[Iloprost](#)

[Indomethacin](#)

[Indoprofen](#)

[Isocarboxazid](#)

[Isoxicam](#)

[Ketoconazole](#)

[Ketoprofen](#)

[Ketorolac](#)

[Lamifiban](#)

[Lamotrigine](#)

[Lazabemide](#)

[Lexipafant](#)

[Linezolid](#)

[Lithium](#)

[Lornoxicam](#)

[Meclofenamate](#)

[Mefenamic Acid](#)

[Meloxicam](#)

[Methylphenidate](#)

[Metoprolol](#)

[Milnacipran](#)

[Moclobemide](#)

[Morniflumate](#)

[Nabumetone](#)

[Nadroparin](#)

[Naproxen](#)

[Naratriptan](#)

[Niflumic Acid](#)

[Nimesulide](#)

[Oxaprozin](#)

[Oxycodone](#)

[Parecoxib](#)

[Parnaparin](#)

[Pentosan Polysulfate Sodium](#)

[Phenelzine](#)

[Phenindione](#)

[Phenprocoumon](#)

[Phenylbutazone](#)

[Pirazolac](#)

[Piroxicam](#)

[Pirprofen](#)

[Propyphenazone](#)

[Proquazone](#)

[Rasagiline](#)

[Reviparin](#)

[Rizatriptan](#)

[Rofecoxib](#)

[Selegiline](#)

[Sibrafiban](#)

[Sibutramine](#)

[St John's Wort](#)

[Sulfinpyrazone](#)

[Sulindac](#)

[Sulodexide](#)

[Sumatriptan](#)

[Suprofen](#)

[Tapentadol](#)

[Tapentadol](#)

[Tenidap](#)

[Tenoxicam](#)

[Tiaprofenic Acid](#)

[Ticlopidine](#)

[Tinzaparin](#)

[Tirofiban](#)

[Tolmetin](#)

[Tramadol](#)

[Tranlycypromine](#)

[Valdecoxib](#)

[Warfarin](#)

[Xemilofiban](#)

[Zolmitriptan](#)

[Zomepirac](#)

#### **3.5.1.A Abciximab**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info FLOXAPRO(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral capsules, solution, 2005)
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

#### **3.5.1.B Aceclofenac**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral capsules, solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications who were not taking NSAIDs or aspirin.

those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.C Acemetacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.D Acenocoumarol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in

receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were associated with abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects without coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding was lower (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.E Alclofenac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The rate of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 20.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.F Almotriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Concomitant use of almotriptan and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRI's) has been reported to cause weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination (Prod Info Axert(TM), 2001). Concurrent use of a triptan and

may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptomatic serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of cardiac heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as almotriptan, with an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of fluoxetine and almotriptan is well tolerated. Fluoxetine has only a modest effect on almotriptan maximum plasma concentration (C<sub>max</sub>). Other almotriptan pharmacokinetics are not significantly affected. A randomized, open-label, two-way crossover study involving 12 healthy volunteers has been conducted. Subjects received each of the following treatments with a minimum 3-week washout between periods: (1) two 20 mg fluoxetine capsules on day 1 to 8 and one dose almotriptan 12.5 mg on day 8 with no treatment on day 9; (2) one dose of almotriptan 12.5 mg on day 8 with no treatment on day 9. Peak almotriptan concentrations were 18% higher following concomitant administration of fluoxetine than after almotriptan administration alone. This difference was statistically significant (p = 0.023). Mean almotriptan AUC under the concentration-time curve (AUC) and oral clearance were not statistically different between treatment groups. Mean half-life was not significantly different between the treatment groups. During fluoxetine coadministration, the mean half-life of almotriptan was shorter, suggesting that the absorption rate of almotriptan may be increased by fluoxetine. The author concludes that based on the results of this study and the lack of effect of fluoxetine on almotriptan pharmacokinetics, almotriptan and fluoxetine can be safely used concomitantly in migraine management (Fleishaker et al, 2001).

### 3.5.1.G Anagrelide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.H Ancrod

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of SSRIs and anticoagulants.

with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral table 2008).

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are c concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinu LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) ir receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therz weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean ag years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with ranc patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxeti citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nin experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in t plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during : treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectivel ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI ir patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administr: sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associatet change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and antico other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin usei (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective s reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitali nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitali records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects a coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days ( 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalizati nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% cor interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleedir OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.1 Anisindione

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered antico (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministra with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral table 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are c concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinu LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) ir

receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age 65 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient history and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a result of abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects not on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding was not significantly different (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) (Schalek et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.J Antithrombin III Human

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalek et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalek et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age 65 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T

the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulant other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.K Ardeparin

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are administered concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

**a)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy in the weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 2.17 (95% CI: 1.37 to 3.37, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in this study included sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulant other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

2008).

#### 3.5.1.L Aspirin

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

#### 3.5.1.M Benoxaprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, suspension, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX(R) oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.N Bivalirudin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of bivalirudin with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v

warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nin experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 1 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.O Bromfenac

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2005; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol, 2003).

oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.P Bufexamac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concu monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and th potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospi upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as 1 been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.Q Cannabis

- 1) Interaction Effect: manic symptoms
- 2) Summary: One case of mania following use of marijuana with fluoxetine has been reported (Stoll et al, 1991a). Although an interaction is proposed, authors also state the manic symptoms could have resulted from the fluoxetine alone. Caution is advised for patients using marijuana and taking other serotonin reuptake inhibitors.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution patients taking selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors to avoid concomitant use of marijuana.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) A 21-year-old female presented with mania, agitation, and grand delusions following use of marijuana with fluoxetine therapy. She had been taking fluoxetine 20 mg daily for 4 weeks and reported smoking 2 "joints" of marijuana per hour period. Over the next 24 hours, she developed increased energy, hypersexuality, pressured speech, and grandiose delusions. Lorazepam and perphenazine were given for agitation and excitement which gradually resolved over 4 days. She remained hospitalized for 36 days. Fluoxetine 20 mg was reintroduced one week prior to discharge. One week after discharge, she discontinued fluoxetine due to insomnia and feeling of restlessness. These symptoms resolved rapidly upon discontinuation of fluoxetine. Although the rapid switch to mania after smoking marijuana with fluoxetine, the manic symptoms were associated with the concomitant use of fluoxetine and marijuana, though mania could have developed from either fluoxetine or marijuana (Stoll et al, 1991).

### 3.5.1.R Carprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi

SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.S Celecoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.T Certoparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy

hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).

3) Severity: major  
 4) Onset: unspecified  
 5) Substantiation: probable  
 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increase in clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 100 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patients, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a first abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.U Cilostazol

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding  
 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.V Cimetidine

1) Interaction Effect: increased bioavailability of escitalopram

2) Summary: In a clinical study, citalopram maximum plasma concentration under the concentration-time curve increased by 39% and 43%, respectively.

subjects treated for 21 days with racemic citalopram 40 mg/day concurrent 8-day regimen of cimetidine 400 mg/day (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral T Solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients for signs of escitalopram toxic serotonin syndrome. Doses of escitalopram may need to be reduced.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

#### 3.5.1.W Clonixin

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding  
2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

#### 8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as SSRIs) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.X Clopidogrel

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding  
2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

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

#### 3.5.1.Y Clorgyline

1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity and/or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported

Lexapro(TM), 2002b). Concomitant use is contraindicated.

- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and clorgyline contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

### 3.5.1.Z Cyclobenzaprine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Clinical symptoms of serotonin syndrome have been reported with concurrent use of cyclobenzaprine with escitalopram. (Day & Jeanmonod, 2008). Caution is advised if cyclobenzaprine and escitalopram are coadministered to patients for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: A case of serotonin syndrome was reported with concomitant use of cyclobenzaprine and escitalopram, and therefore, coadministration is discouraged (Day & Jeanmonod, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effects
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) A 27-year-old female admitted to the hospital for possible overdose experienced serotonin syndrome following coadministration of cyclobenzaprine and escitalopram. The patient stated she had taken "5 or 6" 10 mg cyclobenzaprine tablets and 2 rum beverages the previous evening. She is currently being treated with escitalopram 10 mg daily for mild depression. She was also taking Lortab(R) and cyclobenzaprine as needed for lower back pain. She was initially responsive, but quickly became stuporous, marked by eye opening to pain, nonsensical speech, and localization to painful stimuli. Her temperature was 101.7, pulse of 140, blood pressure of 159/76, respirations of 24, and oxygen saturation of 94% on 6 L. Physical exam showed skin flushing, diaphoresis, tremors, rigidity in lower extremities, horizontal nystagmus and hyperreflexia of the patella. Laboratory results showed a respiratory acidosis (pH 7.29), creatinine kinase fraction of 3862 units/L, serum ethanol of 44 mg/dL, and positive tricyclic and opiate screens. An ECG showed tachycardia without ST segment morphology or interval changes. A diagnosis of serotonin syndrome was made and the patient was treated accordingly. Over the next 12 hours, the patient's temperature, tachycardia, tremors, and creatinine kinase fraction decreased and her mental status improved and she was oriented. After a psychiatric evaluation she was discharged with direction to discontinue cyclobenzaprine while continuing escitalopram (Day & Jeanmonod, 2008).

### 3.5.1.AA Dalteparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of dalteparin with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of bleeding when dalteparin was given concurrently with SSRIs.

of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy for 4 weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 65 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were hospitalized for abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects not on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 0-4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients not on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamps et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.AB Danaparoid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamps et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamps et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy for 4 weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 65 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

change in warfarin dose or INR ( $p=0.48$  and  $p=0.31$  respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and antico other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin user (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.AC Defibrotide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO (F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO (R) oral tablets, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO (R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

**a)** According to a retrospective cohort study ( $n=234$ ), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI ( $n=117$ ) were matched with 117 patients who received warfarin only ( $n=117$ ). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 117 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, ( $p=0.009$ ) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration was sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR ( $p=0.48$  and  $p=0.31$  respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulation other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin user (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding

OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.AD Dehydroepiandrosterone

- 1) Interaction Effect: development of manic symptoms
- 2) Summary: A case has been reported in which concomitant dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) and sertraline use was suggested to precipitate a manic episode in a patient with a history of bipolar disorder (Dean, 2000) also noted to cause mania in a patient with no previous personal or family history of bipolar disorder (Markowitz et al, 1999). Elevated DHEA levels have been reported in patients with mental disorders; DHEA suppression has led to improvement of psychotic symptoms (Howard, 1992). DHEA possesses proserotonergic activity and may predispose patients to manic episodes (Majewska, 1995). DHEA is an androgenic steroid, which in high doses may precipitate mania (Markovitz et al, 1999). Patients taking medication for bipolar disorder or patients with a personal and/or family history of bipolar disorder should not take DHEA until further studies are available to characterize this drug-herb interaction. Concomitant use of DHEA and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) should be avoided due to the potential for additive precipitation of mania.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Avoid concomitant use of dehydroepiandrosterone and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors. If patients present with mania (i.e. agitation, anger, irritability, aggressive behavior), determine if the patient is taking DHEA and discontinue DHEA.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: serotonergic activity of dehydroepiandrosterone may increase increased androgen levels
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) A 31-year-old male was admitted following threats to commit suicide to his family members. He had self-initiated sertraline 100 milligrams (mg) daily for the previous 2 to 3 weeks for depression. Sertraline had been prescribed prior when he was diagnosed with bipolar disorder, which he discontinued several weeks. He had also taken dehydroepiandrosterone (DHEA) 300 mg daily for the previous 2 months apparently for weight training. Following discontinuation of DHEA for a short time, he became more irritable, was not sleeping well, and began threatening a female friend and family members. He also drank alcohol occasionally and reportedly had difficulty controlling his anger when sertraline was stopped and the patient was treated with valproic acid. The dose of sertraline was titrated to 500 mg twice daily. The combination of DHEA, sertraline, and alcohol was suggested responsible for the developing of the manic episode (Dean, 2000).

### 3.5.1.AE Dermatan Sulfate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the combination of warfarin with escitalopram (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy.

weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with ran patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nin experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in t plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during : treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respective ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI ir patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administr: sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associatet change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and antico other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin user (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective se reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitali nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitali records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects e coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days ( 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalizati nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% cor interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleedir OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.AF Desipramine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increase in the bioavailability and plasma concentr desipramine
- 2) Summary: Desipramine plasma concentration and area under the co time curve increased by 40% and 100%, respectively, when a single dos desipramine 50 milligrams (mg) was administered concurrently with a 21 of escitalopram 20 mg/day (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral Tablet, Oral Sc
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Caution is indicated in the coadministration of and escitalopram due to the risk for increased desipramine plasma conc
- 7) Probable Mechanism: escitalopram inhibition of cytochrome P450-2E desipramine metabolism

### 3.5.1.AG Desirudin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered antico (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministra with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral table 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are c concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinu LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) ir

receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 10 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were associated with abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects not on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding was not significantly different (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) (Schaleka et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.AH Desvenlafaxine

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent use of desvenlafaxine and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) may result in serotonin syndrome, which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, incoordination, fast heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Product Information PRISTIQ(TM) oral extended-release tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of desvenlafaxine and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. If these agents are given together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination), especially during treatment initiation and dose increases (Product Information PRISTIQ(TM) oral extended-release tablets, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

### 3.5.1.AI Dexketoprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Product Information PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Product Information CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and the

potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.AJ Diclofenac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.AK Dicumarol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

**8) Literature Reports**

**a)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy in the weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 68 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with warfarin-only patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 100 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 2.17 (95% CI; 1.37 to 3.37, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in this study included sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a first-time abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects (mean age 68 years, median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days)). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka et al, 2008).

**3.5.1.AL Diflunisal**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. These events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

**a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalization for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations in those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The rate of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 20.2), 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of this study demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.AM Dipyridamole**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.AN Dipyrrone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, suspension, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1). Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.AO Droxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, suspension, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1). Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.2), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.AP Duloxetine**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Duloxetine is a selective serotonin and norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor. The concomitant use of duloxetine with escitalopram, a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor, is not recommended due to the potential for serotonin syndrome (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The concomitant use of duloxetine and escitalopram is not recommended due to the potential for development of serotonin syndrome (Prod Info CYMBALTA(R) delayed-release oral capsules, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effects

### **3.5.1.AQ Eletriptan**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concomitant use of sumatriptan, a 5-hydroxytryptamine (5HT-1) agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Prod Info Relpax(R) Nasal Spray, 2003). Because eletriptan is a 5HT<sub>1B/1D</sub> agonist, a similar interaction between SSRIs and eletriptan may occur (Prod Info Relpax(R) Nasal Spray, 2003). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome, which can be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hyperreflexia, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart rate, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used concomitantly, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as eletriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used concomitantly, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

### **3.5.1.AR Enoxaparin**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major

- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are c concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinu LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) ir receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI ther: weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean ag: years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with ranc patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxeti citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nin experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in t plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during : treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respective ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI ir patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administr: sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associat: change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and antico other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).
  - b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin user (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective s: reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitali: nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitali: records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a: abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects a: coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days ( 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalizati: nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% cor: interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleedir OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### 3.5.1.AS Epoprostenol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased ris Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hemator and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, susp Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solutio
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are g concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info F tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayec capsules, solution, 2008)
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.AT Eptifibatide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased ris Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hemator and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, susp Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solutio
- 3) Severity: major

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

#### 3.5.1.AU Etodolac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of etodolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOF oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.AV Etofenamate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as )  
been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI  
oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.AW Etoricoxib**

**1)** Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

**2)** Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or: solution, 2005).

**3)** Severity: moderate

**4)** Onset: unspecified

**5)** Substantiation: probable

**6)** Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concu monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

**7)** Probable Mechanism: unknown

**8)** Literature Reports

**a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and th potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospi upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as )  
been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI  
oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.AX Felbinac**

**1)** Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

**2)** Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or: solution, 2005).

**3)** Severity: moderate

**4)** Onset: unspecified

**5)** Substantiation: probable

**6)** Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concu monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

**7)** Probable Mechanism: unknown

**8)** Literature Reports

**a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and th potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospi upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as )  
been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI  
oral tablets, 2007).

oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.AY Fenbufen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID with low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.2), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.AZ Fenoprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalized patients with upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalized patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID with low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.2), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.BA Fentiazac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.BB Floctafenine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.BC Flufenamic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.BD Flurbiprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.BE Fondaparinux

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy

hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).

3) Severity: major  
4) Onset: unspecified  
5) Substantiation: probable  
6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are administered concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 100 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration was sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patients, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a first abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.BF Frovatriptan

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome  
2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following concomitant use of sumatriptan, a 5-hydroxytryptamine (5HT-1) agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Proc R Soc Med, 2003). Because frovatriptan is a 5HT 1B/1D agonist, an interaction between SSRIs and frovatriptan may occur (Prod Info Frovatriptan, 2006). Concurrent use of frovatriptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome, which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include rigidity, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittingly with either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Monitor patients for symptoms of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination. Monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2006).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as frovatriptan, and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome.

that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

### 3.5.1.BG Furazolidone

- 1) Interaction Effect: weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination
- 2) Summary: Although not its primary mechanism of action, furazolidone has monoamine oxidase inhibitor activity. Cases of serious sometimes fatal serotonin syndrome have been reported in patients receiving selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) combination with monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs). Hyperthermia, myoclonus, autonomic instability with possible rapid fluctuations of vital signs, and mental status changes that include extreme agitation progressing to delirium and coma have been reported. Furazolidone should not be used in combination with an SSRI, or within a minimum of 14 days of discontinuing therapy with a MAOI (Furoxone(R), 1999).
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: If concurrent therapy with furazolidone and a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) is deemed to be necessary, closely monitor the patient for signs of serotonergic excess (mental status changes, diaphoresis, weakness, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

### 3.5.1.BH Ginkgo

- 1) Interaction Effect: increased risk of serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: The addition of Ginkgo biloba and/or St. John's Wort to the buspirone and fluoxetine may have precipitated a hypomanic episode in this patient (Spinella & Eaton, 2002a). It is unclear if Ginkgo or St. John's Wort, the buspirone, or other patient factors, contributed to the effect. Theoretically, Ginkgo biloba may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome when taken with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). Caution is advised, especially when ginkgo is taken in combination with SSRIs. Ginkgo may inhibit monoamine oxidase (MAO) activity (Sloley et al, 2000; White et al, 1996), and has demonstrated serotonergic effects in animals (Ramassamy et al, 1992) which might increase the risk of serotonin syndrome when ginkgo is combined with SSRIs. The potential MAO inhibitory activity is questionable. A human study did not show MAO inhibition in the brain (Fowler et al, 2000). Ginkgo biloba extract inhibited MAO-A in the rat brain in vitro (Sloley et al, 2000; White et al, 1996) and MAO-B in platelets in vitro (White et al, 1996). No significant MAO inhibition was found following oral consumption (Porsolt et al, 2000).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome if ginkgo is combined with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) A 42-year-old female experienced symptoms consistent with a hypomanic episode following concomitant use of fluoxetine, buspirone, Ginkgo biloba, and St. John's Wort. The symptoms resolved following discontinuation of Ginkgo and St. John's Wort. The patient was being treated for depression following a mild traumatic brain injury with fluoxetine 20 milligrams (mg) daily and buspirone 15 mg twice daily. Several weeks prior to presentation, buspirone was increased to 20 mg twice daily for persistent anxiety. The patient began taking Ginkgo biloba, melatonin, and St. John's Wort during this time. Melatonin was considered unlikely to have contributed to her symptoms. Ginkgo and St. John's Wort were considered possible contributors since they may potentiate antidepressants, and considering the temporal relationship between the use of the herbs and onset of symptoms and discontinuation of

resolution of symptoms. However, the brain injury was considered a contributor (Spinella & Eaton, 2002).

### 3.5.1.BI Heparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchyematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in addition to increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy for 4 weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 68 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patients, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).
  - b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were hospitalized for abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.BJ Hydrocodone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Coadministration of escitalopram and hydrocodone has resulted in the development of visual hallucinations in a 90-year-old woman. While no clinical symptoms suggestive of serotonin syndrome were reported for this patient, symptoms such as visual hallucinations are usually reported less common with serotonin syndrome (approximately 10% of cases). Clinical symptoms of serotonin syndrome have been reported with concurrent use of escitalopram with hydrocodone (Gnanadesigan et al, 2005). Caution is advised if escitalopram and hydrocodone are coadministered. Monitor patients for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome.

(tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Concomitant administration of escitalopram and hydrocodone may increase the risk of developing serotonin syndrome. If they are coadministered, monitor patients for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

8) Literature Reports

a) Visual hallucinations developed in an 90-year-old woman following administration of hydrocodone and escitalopram. The woman was treated with hydrocodone and citalopram 10 mg/day. Citalopram was changed to escitalopram 10 mg once daily and a few weeks later, the patient began experiencing visual hallucinations. Improvement in pain symptoms led to hydrocodone to be subsequently discontinued. One month later, the hallucinations had resolved. Prior to escitalopram therapy, the patient had been treated with paroxetine and later, citalopram along with the same hydrocodone dose. However, this had not resulted in any hallucinations or any serotonin syndrome-related symptoms (Gnanadesigan et al, 2005).

### 3.5.1.BK Hydroxytryptophan

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

2) Summary: Hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) may potentiate the serotonergic effects of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) (Meltzer et al, 1997a). Since SSRIs increase serotonin levels, when combined with an SSRI, the serotonin level may increase sufficiently to produce serotonin syndrome. Caution is advised with concomitant use of 5-HTP and SSRIs.

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: No cases have been reported of serotonin syndrome resulting from this combination. Caution is advised if hydroxytryptophan and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) are used concomitantly. Monitor the patient for early signs of serotonin syndrome such as anxiety, confusion, and disorientation.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

8) Literature Reports

a) Hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) (200 milligrams (mg) orally) as a supplement increased plasma cortisol and prolactin levels in both medicated and unmedicated patients with major depression or obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD). These responses were greater if the patient was also taking fluoxetine (n = 16) (p less than 0.0001). Mean fluoxetine dose for depressed patients was 60 mg/day, and for OCD patients it was 60 mg/day. Cortisol or prolactin levels in patients taking 5-HTP with tricyclic antidepressants (n = 14) or with no medication (n = 83) were not significantly different from each other. Measurement of serotonergic effects of antidepressants can be evaluated by measuring hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis or prolactin response. Clinical manifestations of serotonin syndrome were reported in patients taking 5-HTP concomitantly with fluoxetine (Meltzer et al, 1997).

### 3.5.1.BL Ibuprofen

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. These events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and oral solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor the patient for signs of increased bleeding.

- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hosp upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOF oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.BM Iloprost

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

### 3.5.1.BN Indomethacin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, suspension, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hosp upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOF oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.BO Indoprofen**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2) (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.BP Isocarboxazid**

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002a). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and isocarboxazid is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

**3.5.1.BQ Isoxicam**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2) (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.BR Ketoconazole**

- 1) Interaction Effect: decreased ketoconazole bioavailability
- 2) Summary: Concomitant administration of escitalopram 40 milligrams and ketoconazole 200 mg induced reductions in ketoconazole maximum plasma concentrations and area under the concentration-time curve by 21% and 25% respectively; escitalopram pharmacokinetics were unaffected by coadministration (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral Tablet, Oral Solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: If concurrent therapy is required, a dosage adjustment may be required for ketoconazole in order to achieve and maintain a consistent effect.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### **3.5.1.BS Ketoprofen**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospital upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospital those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.BT Ketorolac**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as SSRIs) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.BU Lamifiban

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

### 3.5.1.BV Lamotrigine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of myoclonus
- 2) Summary: Myoclonus occurred in 2 patients receiving escitalopram and lamotrigine concomitantly, where symptoms resolved following withdrawal of escitalopram in 1 patient. There was no evidence of a metabolic enzyme interaction with lamotrigine, and the interaction was believed to be due to an additive effect of lamotrigine and escitalopram on the 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptors, or by an inhibition of voltage-gated calcium channels by both agents (Rosenhagen et al, 2006). Exercise caution when using both drugs concurrently and monitor for signs and symptoms of myoclonus including involuntary twitching and jerking.
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Use caution if escitalopram and lamotrigine are given concurrently as this resulted in myoclonus in 2 patients. In one patient, myoclonus resolved after escitalopram was withdrawn (Rosenhagen et al, 2006). Monitor for signs and symptoms of myoclonus including involuntary twitching and jerking.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive inhibition of voltage-gated calcium channels; additive or synergistic effects on the 5-HT<sub>1A</sub> receptor
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) Myoclonus occurred in 2 patients following concomitant treatment with escitalopram and lamotrigine. The first patient, a 22-year-old woman taking escitalopram 30 mg/day for depression, developed daytime and nighttime myoclonus.

myoclonus after 8 weeks of receiving lamotrigine (titrated to 100 mg treatment of bipolar type II disorder. Serum levels of both drugs, me the onset of myoclonus, were within the expected drug reference ra escitalopram levels remained stable compared to a baseline level d starting lamotrigine therapy. Neither drug was discontinued and the continued to have myoclonus while on escitalopram and lamotrigine Further analysis revealed that the patient was a normal metabolizer CYP2C19, and CYP2D6 enzymes. The second patient, a 28-year-o taking lamotrigine 300 mg/day for a seizure disorder, developed day nighttime myoclonus after 2 weeks of receiving escitalopram (titrate mg/day) for generalized anxiety disorder. For 6 months, the patient the same frequency of myoclonus while on both therapies; however myoclonus resolved 2 weeks after escitalopram was withdrawn. Lar serum levels, measured at the onset and after the myoclonus resolv change. Although escitalopram is metabolized by hepatic enzymes CYP2C19, and CYP2D6, there was no evidence of a metabolic enz interaction with lamotrigine. It was postulated that the myoclonus m: caused by an additive or synergistic effect of lamotrigine and escital 5-HT1A receptors, or by an additive inhibition of voltage-gated calci by both agents (Rosenhagen et al, 2006).

#### **3.5.1.BW Lazabemide**

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with esc a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or sero syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such a restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaph shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported Lexapro(TM), 2002d). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and lazabemic contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibit initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoam

#### **3.5.1.BX Lexipafant**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased ris Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hemator and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, susp Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solutio
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are g concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info F tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayec capsules, solution, 2008)
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

#### **3.5.1.BY Linezolid**

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Linezolid is a reversible, nonselective inhibitor of monoam Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrom hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and trem even fatal, reactions have been reported. There have been spontaneous serotonin syndrome associated with concomitant use of linezolid and se agents (Prod Info ZYVOX(R) IV injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2

Info Lexapro(R), 2002). If escitalopram and linezolid are used concomitantly closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome. Serotonin syndrome can be threatening. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agent and provide supportive care and other therapy as necessary (Boyer & Shannon, 2000)

3) Severity: contraindicated

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Unless carefully monitored for serotonin syndrome, escitalopram should not be administered to patients taking escitalopram (Prod Info ZY injection, oral tablets, oral suspension, 2008) If escitalopram and linezolid are administered concomitantly, monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome such as neuromuscular abnormalities (including hyper-reflexia, tremor, muscle rigidity, peripheral hypertonicity, and shivering), autonomic hyperactivity (including tachycardia, mydriasis, diaphoresis, and diarrhea), and mental status changes (including agitation and delirium). Serotonin syndrome can be life-threatening. If serotonin syndrome develops, discontinue the offending agents and provide supportive care and other therapy as necessary (Boyer & Shannon, 2000)

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

### 3.5.1.BZ Lithium

1) Interaction Effect: possible increased lithium concentrations and/or an increased risk of SSRI-related serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Concomitant use of lithium and various SSRIs has been associated with enhanced side effects of either or both drugs, and with or without elevated plasma levels. The combination has resulted in neurotoxicity and increased lithium levels. One case report (Salama & Shafey, 1989a). Signs and symptoms of lithium and serotonin syndrome have also been reported in patients who demonstrated therapeutic serum lithium levels while on concurrent fluoxetine and lithium (1993a; Noveske et al, 1989a). Two studies have failed to identify a pharmacokinetic interaction between lithium and citalopram (Gram et al, 1993a; Baumann et al, 1996a). Combined administration of citalopram (40 mg daily for 10 days) and lithium (30 mmol/day for 5 days) had no significant effect on the pharmacokinetics of citalopram or lithium. However, plasma lithium levels should be monitored and appropriate adjustment to the lithium dose in accordance with standard clinical practice. Lithium may enhance the serotonergic effects of citalopram, and caution should be exercised when citalopram and lithium are coadministered (Prod Info Celexa(R), 2004). Concurrent use of fluvoxamine and lithium has been associated with reports of increased lithium levels and neurotoxicity, serotonin syndrome, somnolence, and mania (Salama & Shafey, 1989a; Ohman & Spigset, 1991; & Marwick, 1990; Burrai et al, 1991a). No pharmacokinetic interference was observed during a multiple-dose study of coadministered lithium and paroxetine (F 30 CR(TM), 2003). If these two agents are to be given concomitantly, the manufacturer suggests that caution be used until more clinical experience is available. Interactions leading to lithium toxicity have been reported when lithium was coadministered with fluoxetine and fluvoxamine (both in the same pharmacological class as paroxetine, eg, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors) (Ohman et al, 1993a; Salama & Shafey, 1989a).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: established

6) Clinical Management: Monitor patients on concurrent lithium and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor therapy for increased plasma concentrations. In addition, monitor patients for signs and symptoms associated with serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) Concomitant administration of oral lithium carbonate and oral fluoxetine resulted in increased lithium serum levels with lithium toxicity in a 42-year-old woman with a bipolar affective disorder (Salama & Shafey, 1989). Fluoxetine 60 mg daily was added to a regimen of lithium 1200 mg daily following complaints of weakness, tiredness, decreased concentration, and decreased sleep. Lithium serum levels increased to 1.7 mEq/L from a range of 1.15 mEq/L prior to fluoxetine. Fluoxetine was discontinued and the lithium dose decreased; this resulted in a decrease in the lithium serum level from 1.7 mEq/L to 1.2 mEq/L. The neurologic symptoms subsided within several hours. The lithium serum level decreased to 0.9 mEq/L. The contribution of fluoxetine to the increase in lithium serum level is unclear.

lithium toxicity in this patient was obscured by the fact that the lithium reduced at the time of fluoxetine withdrawal.

**b)** A 53-year old woman who had been taking fluoxetine 20 mg daily and lorazepam 0.5 mg four times daily for a major depressive disorder had 1 mg per day added to her regimen in order to augment her response. Within 48 hours, the patient became confused, ataxic, and developed tremor in her right arm. Vital signs showed a rectal temperature of 101.1°F and laboratory values were normal except for an elevated leukocyte count and slightly elevated bilirubin level. After discontinuation of lithium and fluoxetine, the patient's symptoms resolved over the next four days. At no point did the lithium levels reach a toxic level, suggesting that the patient's symptoms were due to a toxic reaction between fluoxetine and lithium (Noveske et al, 1989).

**c)** Serotonin syndrome was precipitated when lithium 300 mg twice daily was added to a three-month regimen of fluoxetine 40 mg per day. Five days after the patient's lithium level was measured at 0.65 mEq/L and the dose was increased to 300 mg three times daily. Two days after this dosage change, the patient experienced akathisia, myoclonus, hyperreflexia, shivering, tremor, and incoordination. After discontinuation of lithium and initiation of cyproheptadine therapy, the patient's symptoms began to improve. The patient was on a regimen of fluoxetine 40 mg per day without further symptoms of serotonin syndrome (Muly et al, 1993).

**d)** Eight healthy male volunteers completed three phases of an intake to determine the effects of coadministered lithium and citalopram. All were extensive metabolizers of sparteine, indicating normal cytochrome P-450 2D6 enzyme activity. Although lithium is not influenced by drug oxidation, citalopram metabolites are excreted by the kidney, as is lithium. Each subject received citalopram 40 mg alone as a single daily dose for 10 days, lithium 180 mg (1980 mg) alone daily for five days, and lithium coadministered with citalopram on days 3-7. At least two weeks separated each treatment phase. Results showed that the concurrent administration of citalopram did not significantly alter the pharmacokinetics of lithium (Gram et al, 1993).

**e)** Twenty-four patients experiencing depression (DSM III criteria) were randomized under double-blind conditions to receive citalopram (40 mg daily) and lithium carbonate (800 mg daily) or placebo. All of the subjects failed to respond to four weeks of citalopram monotherapy. Lithium carbonate was coadministered on days 29 to 42. No evidence of a pharmacokinetic interaction between lithium and citalopram was noted, and cotherapy was well tolerated (Baumann et al, 1996).

**f)** Serotonin syndrome was described in a 53-year-old patient who was on lithium 1400 mg daily (serum level 0.71 mmol/L) and was given fluvoxamine 50 mg daily. Over a 10-day period the fluvoxamine dose was increased to 100 mg daily; tremor and difficulty with fine hand movements developed. After the fluvoxamine was discontinued, the tremor, impaired motor function, coordination, marked bilateral hyperreflexia, biceps and knee jerks, and clonus in both ankles were seen. After 10 days of continued therapy, during which time no further deterioration occurred, nortriptyline 100 mg daily replaced fluvoxamine, and the neuromuscular symptoms abated over a 2-week period. After four weeks the patient's neurological exam was normal (Ohman & Spigset, 1993).

**g)** Three cases of mania were reported in patients who were treated with fluvoxamine and lithium. The mania appeared 10 days, four weeks, and five weeks, respectively, after cotherapy was begun. Fluvoxamine was discontinued and lithium was continued. In two of the three patients, the mania resolved, and successful treatment of depression occurred with lithium alone. The third patient improved, but depression reappeared within a month of fluvoxamine discontinuation (Ohman et al, 1991).

**h)** In an open-labeled, placebo-controlled study, lithium 600 mg was administered to 16 subjects orally twice daily on days one through nine. In addition, oral sertraline 100 mg was given twice, ten hours and two hours prior to lithium dosing on day nine. The steady-state lithium level was only decreased by 1.4% (0.01 mEq/L) when sertraline was coadministered. Seven subjects experienced side effects, mainly tremor, when receiving lithium and sertraline, whereas no subjects who ingested only lithium experienced side effects (Wilner et al, 1991).

### 3.5.1.CA Lornoxicam

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.CB Meclofenamate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.CC Mefenamic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed

events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of these studies demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as SSRIs) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol (R) oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CD Meloxicam

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. These events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

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

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of these studies demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as SSRIs) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol (R) oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CE Methylphenidate

1) Interaction Effect: increased selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor plasma concentrations

2) Summary: Human pharmacologic studies have demonstrated that methylphenidate may inhibit the metabolism of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). Downward dose adjustments of the SSRI may be necessary when it is used concurrently with methylphenidate. Additionally, when initiating or discontinuing methylphenidate, the SSRI dose may need to be adjusted as needed (P

METADATE CD(R) extended-release oral capsules, 2007).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Use caution when prescribing methylphenidate who take an selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI). Concomitant methylphenidate and an SSRI may cause elevated SSRI plasma concentration. Consider a decrease in the dose of SSRI when these agents are coadministered. Additionally, consider adjusting the SSRI dose if necessary when initiating discontinuing methylphenidate therapy (Prod Info METADATE CD(R) extended-release oral capsules, 2007).

7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor metabolism by methylphenidate

### 3.5.1.CF Metoprolol

1) Interaction Effect: increased metoprolol plasma concentrations and decreased metoprolol cardioselectivity

2) Summary: Administration of a single dose of metoprolol 100 milligram following administration of escitalopram 20 mg daily for 21 days produced a 50% and 82% increase in metoprolol maximum plasma concentrations and area under the concentration-time curve, respectively. No clinically significant changes in blood pressure or heart rate were observed; however, increased metoprolol plasma concentrations have been associated with decreased cardioselectivity (Prod Info LEXAFTAB, Oral Solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Patients stabilized on metoprolol who are administered escitalopram should be observed for signs of increased beta blockade such as bradycardia, hypotension or heart failure. At higher metoprolol concentrations, cardioselectivity may be diminished; monitor appropriate measures of diastolic blood pressure when escitalopram and metoprolol are used concomitantly.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.CG Milnacipran

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

2) Summary: Concurrent use of milnacipran and an SSRI or a serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) may result in hypertension, coronary vasoconstriction or serotonin syndrome, which may be life-threatening. Serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of consciousness, rapid heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea (Prod Info SAVELLA tablets, 2009).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of milnacipran and an SSRI or norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SNRI) may result in hypertension and arterial vasoconstriction through the additive serotonergic effects. If these are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination), especially during treatment initiation and dose increases (Prod Info SAVELLA(R) oral tablets, 2009).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

### 3.5.1.CH Moclobemide

1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported with Lexapro(TM), 2002e). Concomitant use is contraindicated.

3) Severity: contraindicated

4) Onset: rapid

- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and moclobemid is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

#### 3.5.1.CI Morniflumate

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of these studies demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.CJ Nabumetone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of these studies demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as ) been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI oral tablets, 2007).

### **3.5.1.CK Nadroparin**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoz (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministra with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral table 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are c concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients v warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinu LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports

**a)** According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) ir receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therz weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean ag years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with ranc patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxeti citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nin experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in t plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during : treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectivel ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was CI; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009) compared with warfarin only. The SSRI ir patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administr: sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associatet change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patier and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and antico other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin user (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective se reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitali nongastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitali records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects z coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days ( 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalizati nongastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% cor interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleedir OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka 2008).

### **3.5.1.CL Naproxen**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or: solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate

- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1). The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CM Naratriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: Rare incidences of weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination have been reported with the concurrent use of a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) and a 5-hydroxytryptamine-1 (5HT-1) agonist (Prod Info Amerge, 2006). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome, which can be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hyperreflexia, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart rate, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used concurrently, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as naratriptan, with an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If these agents are used concurrently, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, and incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

### 3.5.1.CN Niflumic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and oral solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1). The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2) (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CO Nimesulide

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2) (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CP Oxaprozin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants.

of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CQ Oxycodone

**1)** Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome (tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)

**2)** Summary: Coadministration of oxycodone and escitalopram resulted in development of serotonin syndrome in an 88-year-old woman (Gnanadesigan 2005). Caution is advised if escitalopram and oxycodone are coadministered to patients for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome (tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).

**3)** Severity: major

**4)** Onset: delayed

**5)** Substantiation: probable

**6)** Clinical Management: Concomitant administration of escitalopram and oxycodone may increase the risk of developing serotonin syndrome. If these agents are coadministered, monitor patients for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (tachycardia, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes).

**7)** Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

**8)** Literature Reports

**a)** Symptoms of serotonin syndrome developed in an 88-year-old woman following concurrent administration of oxycodone and escitalopram. She was taking escitalopram 10 mg/day and extended-release oxycodone twice daily. Approximately 5 weeks prior to the current presentation, extended-release oxycodone had been doubled. She presented to the emergency room with acutely elevated blood pressure (200/90 millimeters of mercury) and frequent myoclonic jerks in the lower extremities. Both escitalopram and oxycodone were stopped and the patient was treated with intravenous benzodiazepines which led to resolution of the myoclonic jerks and a return to baseline blood pressure in less than a day. Subsequent re-initiation of extended-release oxycodone (20 mg twice daily), but not escitalopram, did not result in further blood pressure elevation (Gnanadesigan et al, 2005).

### 3.5.1.CR Parecoxib

**1)** Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

**2)** Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

**3)** Severity: moderate

**4)** Onset: unspecified

**5)** Substantiation: probable

**6)** Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

**7)** Probable Mechanism: unknown

**8)** Literature Reports

**a)** SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of

demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk of bleeding further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.CS Parnaparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Patients receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with control patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The adjusted odds ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in this study included sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).
  - b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a new diagnosis of gastrointestinal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects without gastrointestinal bleeding. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 0 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.CT Pentosan Polysulfate Sodium

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(F solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulant effects (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, 2008).

3) Severity: major  
 4) Onset: unspecified  
 5) Substantiation: probable  
 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are administered concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 100 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration was sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patients, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin users (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a result of abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.CU Phenezine

1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Lexapro(TM), 2002f). Concomitant use is contraindicated.

3) Severity: contraindicated

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and phenelzine is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.

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

### 3.5.1.CV Phenindione

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main

hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the combination of SSRIs with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in combination with escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increase in clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy in the weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 70 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 107.5 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total number of bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in this study included sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were hospitalized for abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects not on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients not on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.CW Phenprocoumon

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the combination of SSRIs with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in combination with escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued with LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Patients with a mean age of 65 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with 117 warfarin-only patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 140.9 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient characteristics, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a new abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schaleka et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.CX Phenylbutazone

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, and solution, 2005; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral tablets, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concomitantly, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.CY Pirazolac**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID with low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.CZ Piroxicam**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID with low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

**3.5.1.DA Pirprofen**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.DB Propyphenazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.DC Proquazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed

events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as SSRIs) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.DD Rasagiline

1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)

2) Summary: Concomitant use of rasagiline and escitalopram should be avoided. Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with SSRIs and non-selective MAOIs has been reported to cause serious, sometimes fatal reactions. Symptoms included hyperthermia, rigidity, myoclonus, autonomic instability, vital sign fluctuations, and mental status changes progressing to extreme delirium, and coma. Data from clinical studies, where rasagiline-treated patients (n=141) were concomitantly exposed to SSRIs, are insufficient to rule out an interaction. At least 14 days should elapse after discontinuing rasagiline before initiating escitalopram therapy (Prod Info AZILECT(R) oral tablets, 2006). At least 14 days should also elapse after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with rasagiline (Prod Info CELEXA(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and rasagiline should be avoided. Wait at least 14 days after discontinuing rasagiline before initiating escitalopram therapy (Prod Info AZILECT(R) oral tablets, 2006). Wait at least 14 days after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with rasagiline (Prod Info CELEXA(R) oral tablets, solution, 2007).

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

### 3.5.1.DE Reviparin

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving

warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with random patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 14 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was OR; 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospital records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a diagnosis of abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects without coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 0-4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekjaer et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.DF Rizatriptan

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome

2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, incoordination following concomitant use of sumatriptan, a 5-hydroxytryptamine (5HT-1) agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Proc. 10 (R), 1998). Because rizatriptan is a 5HT 1B/1D receptor agonist, a similar interaction between SSRIs and rizatriptan may occur (Prod Info Maxalt(R), 1998a). The concomitant use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Monitor for symptoms of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination. Monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2006).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: delayed

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as rizatriptan, with an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Monitor for symptoms of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination. Monitor them closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

8) Literature Reports

a) Twelve healthy volunteers received paroxetine 20 mg daily for two

a single dose of rizatriptan 10 mg. Plasma concentrations of rizatriptan are altered by the administration of paroxetine (Prod Info Maxalt(R), 1998).

#### **3.5.1.DG Rofecoxib**

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.5). The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORadol(R) oral tablets, 2007).

#### **3.5.1.DH Selegiline**

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002c). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and selegiline is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

#### **3.5.1.DI Sibrafiban**

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

capsules, solution, 2008)

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.DJ Sibutramine

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

2) Summary: Sibutramine inhibits the reuptake of norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin. In addition, the two major metabolites of sibutramine, M1 and M2, also inhibit the reuptake of these neurotransmitters. A hyperserotonergic state, which may result in serotonin syndrome, may result if sibutramine is given concurrently with a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor. Coadministration of sibutramine and selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors is not recommended (Prod Info Meridia(R), 1997).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Sibutramine should not be administered with selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors, because of the risk of serotonin syndrome.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

8) Literature Reports

a) Serotonin syndrome is a condition of serotonergic hyperstimulation. It manifests as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. If the syndrome is not recognized and correctly treated, death can result (Sternbach, 1991).

### 3.5.1.DK St John's Wort

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

2) Summary: Case reports describe the onset of serotonin syndrome-like mania, and hypomania following the addition of St. John's Wort to sertraline, fluoxetine, and paroxetine therapy (Spinella & Eaton, 2002c; Barbanel & Waksman et al, 2000a; Lantz et al, 1999a). A patient exhibited a syndrome resembling sedative/hypnotic intoxication after adding St. John's Wort to therapy (Gordon, 1998a). St. John's Wort is thought to inhibit serotonin reuptake. It may have mild monoamine oxidase inhibitory activity (Singer et al, 1999; Walper, 1994), which when added to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors may increase the risk of serotonin syndrome.

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: rapid

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: Patients should be advised to wait two weeks after stopping St. John's Wort before restarting selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor therapy. If a patient plans to replace selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor therapy with St. John's Wort, the half-life of the specific SSRI should be taken into consideration. Waiting at least 5 half-lives for the SSRI to be metabolized out of the body is recommended.

7) Probable Mechanism: additive serotonergic effect

8) Literature Reports

a) Five cases have been reported of serotonin syndrome in the elderly combining prescription antidepressants and St. John's Wort. Case 1: dizziness, nausea, vomiting and a headache 4 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 milligrams (mg) three times daily combined with sertraline 50 mg twice daily. Symptoms resolved 2 to 3 days after stopping all medications. Case 2: nausea, epigastric pain and anxiety 3 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg twice daily combined with sertraline 75 mg daily. His symptoms resolved one week after discontinuing both medications, and he resumed sertraline therapy. The third case developed nausea, vomiting, anxiety, and hyperreflexia 2 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg twice daily combined with sertraline 50 mg daily. His symptoms improved in 4 to 5 days after stopping both medications and taking cyproheptadine 4 mg three times daily. Case 4: nausea, anxiety, restlessness, and irritability 2 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg three times daily combined with sertraline 50 mg daily. Cyproheptadine twice daily was administered for seven days, and his symptoms improved one week after stopping the medication. Cases 1 through 4 resumed the sertraline after symptoms subsided and had no further problems. Case 5: developed nausea, vomiting and restlessness 3 days after starting St. John's Wort 300 mg three times daily combined with nefazodone 100 mg twice daily.

She continued to take St. John's Wort but discontinued the nefazodone 1 week her symptoms improved. She refused to resume therapy with nefazodone, but continued therapy with St. John's Wort and mild to moderate symptoms of depression and anxiety returned (Lantz et al, 1999).

**b)** A 50-year-old female taking St. John's Wort 600 mg daily experienced symptoms of sedative intoxication when she ingested a single dose of 20 mg. She was incoherent, groggy, slow-moving, and complained of weakness. Prior to starting St. John's Wort, she had been receiving 600 mg daily for eight months without adverse effects. After a night of sleep she returned to her baseline mental status (Gordon, 1998).

**c)** A 61-year-old female experienced restlessness and involuntary tremors in her extremities after beginning paroxetine 20 milligrams (mg) two days after discontinuing St. John's Wort 600 mg daily. The patient reported agitated akathisia 8 hours after taking the first dose of paroxetine. She presented with diaphoresis and involuntary movement of all extremities with hyperreflexia and rigidity. Blood pressure, heart rate, and temperature were normal. At hospital admission, blood pressure increased to 200/116 mmHg and heart rate to 145 beats per minute. Creatine kinase increased from 212 units/liter initially to 1024 U/L. The patient was managed with supportive care including lorazepam and discharged after two days (Waksman et al, 2000).

**d)** A 28-year-old male developed a manic syndrome following concurrent use of St. John's Wort and sertraline. The patient was also on testosterone replacement therapy following bilateral orchidectomy 2 years earlier, but testosterone levels were subtherapeutic. The patient was prescribed sertraline 50 milligrams daily for depression following a 2 week trial of St. John's Wort per patient preference (not specified). Before sertraline was started, the patient was instructed to discontinue St. John's Wort, but continued it despite this advice. The patient experienced improved mood so did not see his physician, believing he did not need further treatment. Over 2 months, the patient had become elated and irritable, and overspent, buying a car he could not afford, and was subsequently arrested for stealing fuel for the car. On arrest, he was referred to psychiatric services due to irritability and disinhibition. He was observed to be combative, distractible, have flight of ideas, and grandiose delusions, leading to a diagnosis of a manic episode. The authors state the possibility of the manic state being due to sertraline therapy alone, and that St. John's Wort may have increased the risk as a result of monoamine oxidase inhibition. Since the patient's serotonin level was subnormal, the possibility of its contribution to the manic episode is considered low. However, the patient had elevated gonadotropin releasing hormone (luteinizing hormone and follicle-stimulating hormone) which may have predisposed the patient to mania (Barbanel et al, 2000).

**e)** A 42-year-old female experienced symptoms consistent with a manic episode following concomitant use of fluoxetine, buspirone, and St. John's Wort. The symptoms resolved following discontinuation of Ginkgo and St. John's Wort. The patient was being treated for depression following a mild traumatic brain injury with fluoxetine 20 milligrams (mg) daily and buspirone 15 mg twice daily. Several weeks prior to presentation buspirone was increased to 20 mg twice daily for persistent anxiety. The patient began taking Ginkgo biloba, melatonin, and St. John's Wort during this period. Melatonin was considered unlikely to have contributed to her symptoms. Ginkgo and St. John's Wort were considered possible contributors to her symptoms and potentiate antidepressants, and considering the temporal relationship between the use of the herbs and onset of symptoms and discontinuation of the herbs, resolution of symptoms. However, the brain injury was considered a contributor (Spinella & Eaton, 2002b).

### 3.5.1.DL Sulfinpyrazone

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given together, the risk of bleeding is increased.

concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info F tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed capsules, solution, 2008)

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.DM Sulindac

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding events. Bleeding events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

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

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.DN Sulodexide

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008)

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info F tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed capsules, solution, 2008)

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.DO Sumatriptan

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome

2) Summary: There have been rare postmarketing reports describing postural weakness, hyperreflexia, and incoordination following the use of a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor and sumatriptan (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003). Concurrent use of a triptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome may include restlessness, hallucinations, hyperreflexia, incoordination, fast heart beat, rapid changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive reflexes, nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risk of serotonin syndrome with patients who are prescribed this combination and monitor for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration)

- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as sumatriptan, and a SSRI, such as escitalopram, may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Be aware that triptans may be commonly used intermittently. The triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. If they are used together, discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor the patient closely for symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation

#### 3.5.1.DP Suprofen

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of these studies demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.DQ Tapentadol

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

#### 3.5.1.DR Tapentadol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increase in central nervous system and respiratory depression

depression

2) Summary: The concomitant use of tapentadol with central nervous system depressants including sedatives (eg, alprazolam, midazolam, or zolpidem) may result in additive CNS and respiratory depressant effects, including hypotensive sedation and/or coma. When administering tapentadol and a sedative to a patient, the dosage of one or both agents may be reduced (Prod Info NUCYNTA(TM) release oral tablets, 2009).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: theoretical

6) Clinical Management: Consider monitoring the patient for cardiorespiratory depression when tapentadol and sedatives are used in combination. A reduction in the dose of one or both drugs may be necessary (Prod Info NUCYNTA(TM) release oral tablets, 2009).

7) Probable Mechanism: additive effects

### 3.5.1.DS Tenidap

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

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

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1). Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).

b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as benzodiazepines) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.DT Tenoxicam

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).

3) Severity: moderate

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

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

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users

antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected ( $\zeta$  confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use ( Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).

**b)** Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as ) been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.DU Tiaprofenic Acid

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) or; solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concu monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and th potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hosp upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hosp those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected ( $\zeta$  confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSA dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings of demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use ( Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as ) been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOI oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.DV Ticlopidine

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased ris Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hemator and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, susp Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solutio
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are g concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info F tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayec capsules, solution, 2008)
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.DW Tinzaparin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combi SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of

(Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchy hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration with warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablet 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients on warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, in increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

8) Literature Reports

a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increase in clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Weeks following SSRI therapy termination. Patients with a mean age of 72 years receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with 117 warfarin-only patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Nineteen patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 117.9 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The adjusted odds ratio for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in this study included sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). The study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient compliance, and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulants other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

b) A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a result of abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects on coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding in patients on SSRIs (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekamp et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.DX Tirofiban

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for maintaining hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and antiplatelet agents has been associated with an increased risk of bleeding. Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematomas, and life-threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

3) Severity: major

4) Onset: unspecified

5) Substantiation: probable

6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an antiplatelet agent are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, 2008; Prod Info PROZAC(R) oral capsules, delayed-release capsules, solution, 2008).

7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

### 3.5.1.DY Tolmetin

1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 15.2) (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of antidepressants. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMATE oral tablets, 2007).

#### 3.5.1.DZ Tramadol

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of seizures and serotonin syndrome (hypertension, hyperthermia, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Seizures and serotonin syndrome have been reported in patients receiving tramadol. The risk of seizures and serotonin syndrome may be enhanced if tramadol therapy are combined (Prod Info Ultram(R), ; Dalton et al, 2003).
- 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 escitalopram therapy. If possible, avoid the combination, especially in patients with underlying conditions that might predispose them to seizures. Observe the patient closely for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: increased concentration of serotonin in the brain and periphery

#### 3.5.1.EA Tranylcypromine

- 1) Interaction Effect: CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome (hypertension, myoclonus, mental status changes)
- 2) Summary: Concurrent administration or overlapping therapy with escitalopram and a monoamine oxidase (MAO) inhibitor may result in CNS toxicity or serotonin syndrome, a hyperserotonergic state characterized by symptoms such as restlessness, myoclonus, changes in mental status, hyperreflexia, diaphoresis, shivering, and tremor. Serious, even fatal, reactions have been reported (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2002). Concomitant use is contraindicated.
- 3) Severity: contraindicated
- 4) Onset: rapid
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: Concurrent use of escitalopram and tranylcypromine is contraindicated. Wait at least two weeks after discontinuing a MAO inhibitor before initiating escitalopram therapy. In addition, wait at least five weeks after discontinuing escitalopram before initiating therapy with a MAO inhibitor.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: inhibition of serotonin metabolism by monoamine oxidase

#### 3.5.1.EB Valdecoxib

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding

- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 18.1), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TOPIRAMAX oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.1.EC Warfarin

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and anticoagulants has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events (Wallerstedt et al, 2009; Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral solution, 2008). Bleeding events reported have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and life-threatening hemorrhages. Altered anticoagulation (including increased bleeding) have been reported with the coadministration of warfarin (Schalekamp et al, 2008; Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When escitalopram and an anticoagulant are given concurrently, monitor patients for signs of increased bleeding. Patients receiving warfarin should be monitored closely for altered anticoagulant effects, including increased bleeding, when escitalopram therapy is initiated or discontinued (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) oral tablets, solution, 2008).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) According to a retrospective cohort study (n=234), there was an increased risk of clinically relevant bleeding (hospital admission due to bleeding) in patients receiving warfarin for atrial fibrillation during concomitant SSRI therapy. Patients receiving warfarin plus SSRI (n=117) were matched with patients who received warfarin only (n=117). SSRI included fluoxetine, citalopram, paroxetine, sertraline, fluvoxamine, or escitalopram. Ninety patients experienced 11 bleeding episodes during 213.9 treatment years in the warfarin plus SSRI group, and 10 patients experienced 14 bleedings during 140 treatment years in the warfarin-only group. The corresponding total bleedings were 51.4 and 23.9 per 1000 treatment years, respectively. The relative risk for first bleedings during treatment with warfarin plus SSRI was 1.37 to 8.91, p=0.009 compared with warfarin only. The SSRI in patients experiencing bleeding at the time of concomitant administration of sertraline or citalopram. The addition of an SSRI was not associated with a change in warfarin dose or INR (p=0.48 and p=0.31 respectively). T

the study may be limited by earlier bleeding events, unknown patient and exclusion of clopidogrel, dipyridamol, corticosteroids and anticoagulation other than warfarin in the model (Wallerstedt et al, 2009).

**b)** A population-based, case-controlled study of new coumarin use (acenocoumarol and phenprocoumon) with concomitant selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) resulted in an increased risk of hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding. Using national pharmacy and hospitalization records, Netherlands researchers identified 1848 cases that were a) abnormal bleeding and compared them with 5818 control subjects a) coumarins. Median duration of treatment in patients was 220 days (range 1 to 4690 days). Patients on SSRIs showed greater risk for hospitalization for gastrointestinal bleeding (adjusted odds ratio (OR) 1.7, 95% confidence interval (CI), 1.1 to 2.5), however, the rate of gastrointestinal bleeding (OR 0.8, 95% CI, 0.4 to 1.5) was not significantly different (Schalekjaer et al, 2008).

### 3.5.1.ED Xemilofiban

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

### 3.5.1.EE Zolmitriptan

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of serotonin syndrome
- 2) Summary: There have been case reports of weakness, hyperreflexia, incoordination following concomitant use of sumatriptan, a 5-hydroxytryptamine (5HT-1) agonist, and a serotonin specific reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) (Proc Info ZOMIG(TM), 1997). Because zolmitriptan is a 5HT-1 agonist, a similar interaction between SSRIs and zolmitriptan may occur (Proc Info ZOMIG(TM), 1997). Concurrent use of zolmitriptan and an SSRI may result in serotonin syndrome which may be life-threatening. Symptoms of serotonin syndrome include restlessness, hallucinations, loss of coordination, fast heart rate, changes in blood pressure, increased body temperature, overreactive response to nausea, vomiting, and diarrhea. Clinicians should be aware that triptans are commonly used intermittently and that either the triptan or the SSRI may be prescribed by a different physician. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome (US Food and Drug Administration, 2006).
- 3) Severity: major
- 4) Onset: delayed
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: Coadministration of a triptan, such as zolmitriptan and an SSRI may result in a life-threatening condition called serotonin syndrome. Discuss the risks of serotonin syndrome with the patient and monitor them closely for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome (restlessness, hyperthermia, hyperreflexia, incoordination).
- 7) Probable Mechanism: additive pharmacologic effects resulting in excessive serotonergic stimulation
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) The pharmacokinetics of a single 10 mg dose of zolmitriptan were not significantly affected by four weeks of fluoxetine 20 mg daily pretreatment in healthy volunteers. The effects of zolmitriptan on blood pressure were also not changed by fluoxetine therapy (Prod Info ZOMIG(R), 2002).

### 3.5.1.EF Zomepirac

- 1) Interaction Effect: an increased risk of bleeding
- 2) Summary: The release of serotonin by platelets is important for main hemostasis. Case-control and cohort studies have shown that the combination of SSRIs and NSAIDs has been associated with an increased risk of bleed events have included epistaxis, ecchymosis, hematoma, petechiae, and threatening hemorrhages (Prod Info PAXIL(R) oral tablets, suspension, ; Info Lexapro(TM), 2003a; Dalton et al, 2003a; Prod Info CELEXA (R) oral solution, 2005).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: probable
- 6) Clinical Management: When an SSRI and an NSAID are given concurrently, monitor patient for signs of increased bleeding.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown
- 8) Literature Reports
  - a) SSRIs increase the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding and this risk is potentiated by concurrent use of NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin. Hospitalizations for upper gastrointestinal bleeding were searched among 26,005 users of antidepressant medications and compared with the number of hospitalizations for those patients who did not receive prescriptions for antidepressants. The risk of upper GI bleeding episodes was 3.6 times more than expected (95% confidence interval, 2.7 to 4.7). Combined use of an SSRI and NSAID or low-dose aspirin increased the risk to 12.2 (95% confidence interval, 7.1 to 19.1) and 5.2 (95% confidence interval, 3.2 to 8), respectively. The findings demonstrate an increased risk of upper GI bleeding during the use of SSRIs. Combined use of SSRIs and NSAIDs or low-dose aspirin increased the risk further (Dalton et al, 2003).
  - b) Coadministration of ketorolac with psychoactive drugs (such as tricyclic antidepressants) has been associated with hallucinations in some patients (Prod Info TORGEZIC oral tablets, 2007).

### 3.5.2 Drug-Food Combinations

#### 3.5.2.A Ethanol

- 1) Interaction Effect: potentiation of the cognitive and motor effects of alcohol
- 2) Summary: According to the manufacturer, escitalopram did not potentiate the cognitive and motor effects of alcohol. The concomitant use, however, is not recommended (Prod Info Lexapro(TM), 2003b).
- 3) Severity: moderate
- 4) Onset: unspecified
- 5) Substantiation: theoretical
- 6) Clinical Management: The use of alcohol by patients taking escitalopram is not recommended.
- 7) Probable Mechanism: unknown

## 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) Escitalopram Oxalate
  - 1) Therapeutic

- a) Physical Findings
  - 1) Symptoms of depression or anxiety/depression (improvement)
  - 2) Maintenance therapy should be periodically reevaluated during I to determine the clinical need (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution 2009).
- 2) Toxic
  - a) Laboratory Parameters
    - 1) Serum sodium levels should be monitored (levels lower than 110 mEq/L have been reported) as medically warranted. There is an increased risk of hyponatremia (as a result of the syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic secretion) in patients receiving concomitant diuretics, patients who are volume depleted, and the elderly. If hyponatremia is confirmed, escitalopram should be discontinued and medical management may be necessary.
  - b) Physical Findings
    - 1) Abnormal bleeding should be monitored for ecchymoses, hematoma, epistaxis and petechiae especially in patients receiving concomitant NSAIDs, warfarin or other anticoagulants.
    - 2) Hyponatremia (as a result of SIADH) should be monitored including symptoms of headache, difficulty concentrating, memory impairment, confusion and unsteadiness. More severe symptoms include hallucination, seizure, coma, and respiratory arrest including fatalities. There is an increased risk of hyponatremia in patients receiving concomitant diuretics, patients who are volume depleted, and the elderly. If hyponatremia is confirmed, escitalopram should be discontinued and medical management may be necessary.
    - 3) If intolerable withdrawal symptoms occur following a decrease in therapy is being discontinued, it may be necessary to resume the prescribed dose and taper the dose at a more gradual rate (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).
    - 4) Mania/hypomania may be activated in patients with undiagnosed bipolar disorder. Monitoring is recommended especially in patients with a history of mania. Escitalopram is not indicated for use in bipolar disorder.
    - 5) Monitor patients receiving antidepressants for worsening of depression, suicidality, or unusual changes in behavior, especially at the initiation of therapy or when the dose increases or decreases (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral tablets, 2009). Such monitoring should include at least weekly contact with patients or their family members or caregivers during the first 4 weeks of treatment, then visits every other week for the next 4 weeks, and then as clinically indicated beyond 12 weeks. Families should be advised of the need for close observation (i.e., daily observation) of patients and communication with the prescriber (Anon, 2004)
    - 6) Patients who experience symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic disorder, insomnia, irritability, hostility, aggressiveness, impulsivity, akathisia, or mania may be at an increased risk for worsening depression or suicide. If these symptoms are observed, therapy should be reevaluated and if necessary to discontinue medications when symptoms are severe, especially if they were not part of the patient's initial symptoms (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009; Anon, 2004)
    - 7) Seizures should be monitored, especially in patients with a history of seizures.
    - 8) Serotonin syndrome or neuroleptic malignant syndrome-like reaction should be monitored including mental status changes, autonomic instability (labile blood pressure, hyperthermia), neuromuscular aberrations (muscle rigidity, hyperreflexia, incoordination) and/or gastrointestinal symptoms. The increased risk of this reaction with concomitant use of serotonergic drugs (including triptans), drugs which impair metabolism of serotonin, or dopamine antagonists, all of which are not recommended during therapy. Treatment should be discontinued if serotonin syndrome or neuroleptic malignant syndrome-like reactions occur (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral tablets, 2009).

#### 4.2 Patient Instructions

##### A) Escitalopram (By mouth) Escitalopram

Treats severe depression and generalized anxiety disorder (GAD). This medication is a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI).

**When This Medicine Should Not Be Used:**

You should not use this medicine if you have had an allergic reaction to escitalopram (Celexa®), or if you are using pimozide (Orap®). You should not use this medicine if you have used an MAO inhibitor (such as Eldepryl®, Marplan®, Nardil®, or Parnate®) within the past 14 days. Do not use an MAO inhibitor for at least 14 days after you stop using escitalopram.

**How to Use This Medicine:****Liquid, Tablet**

Your doctor will tell you how much of this medicine to use and how often to use more medicine or use it more often than your doctor tells you to.

You may take this medicine with or without food.

Measure the oral liquid medicine with a marked measuring spoon, oral syringe, or medicine cup.

This medicine should come with a Medication Guide. Read and follow the 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. Your doctor may 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 remember. If it is almost time for your next dose, wait until then to use the medicine and skip the missed dose. Do not use extra medicine to make up for a missed dose.

**How to Store and Dispose of This Medicine:**

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

Ask your pharmacist, doctor, or health caregiver about the best way to dispose of leftover medicine after you have finished your treatment. You will also need to dispose of old medicine after the expiration date has passed.

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

**Drugs and Foods to Avoid:**

Ask your doctor or pharmacist before using any other medicine, including over-the-counter medicines, vitamins, and herbal products.

Do not use citalopram (Celexa®) while you are using escitalopram. These medicines are closely related and using both could be dangerous.

Make sure your doctor knows if you are using linezolid (Zyvox®), lithium, St. John's Wort, pain or migraine medicines (such as aspirin, tramadol, or zolmitriptan, rizatriptan, Ultram®, Imitrex®, Zomig®, or Maxalt®), pain or fever medicines called NSAIDs (such as diclofenac, ibuprofen, naproxen, Advil®, Feldene®, Daypro®, Motrin®, Orudis®, Relafen®, or Voltaren®), or a blood thinner such as warfarin (Coumadin®). Tell your doctor if you are also using cimetidine (Tagamet®), carbamazepine (Tegretol®), ketoconazole (Nizoral®), metoprolol (Lopressor®), or other medicines for depression (such as amitriptyline, imipramine, Norpramin®, or Tofranil®).

Tell your doctor if you are using any medicines that make you sleepy. These include sleeping pills, cold and allergy medicine, 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 or breastfeeding, or if you have bleeding problems, kidney disease, liver disease, heart disease, hyponatremia (low sodium in the blood), or a history of seizure disorder (such as epilepsy). Tell your doctor if you have a history of neuroleptic malignant syndrome (NMS) or serotonin syndrome.

For some children, teenagers, and young adults, this medicine can increase the risk of suicide. Tell your doctor or your child's doctor right away if you or your child feel more depressed and have thoughts about hurting yourselves. Report any thoughts or behaviors that trouble you or your child, especially if they are getting worse quickly. Make sure the doctor knows if you or your child have trouble sleeping, get upset easily, have a big increase in energy, or start to act differently. Tell the doctor if you or your child have sudden or strong feelings, such as being nervous, angry, restless, violent, or scared. Let the doctor know if you, your child, or anyone in your family has bipolar disorder (manic-depressive) or has tried suicide.

You may need to take this medicine for up to 4 weeks before you feel better.

using this medicine for the full treatment time. If you feel that the medicine is not working well, do not take more than your prescribed dose. Call your doctor for instructions.

This medicine may make you dizzy or drowsy. Avoid driving, using machinery, or doing anything else that could be dangerous if you are not alert.

Do not stop using this medicine suddenly without asking your doctor. You should slowly decrease your dose before stopping it completely.

Your doctor will need to check your progress at regular visits while you are taking 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 of your mouth or throat, chest tightness, trouble breathing.

Blistering, peeling, or red skin rash.

Change in how much or how often you urinate, or painful urination.

Chest pain or shortness of breath.

Confusion, weakness, or muscle twitching.

Fast, pounding, or uneven heartbeat.

Fever, chills, cough, sore throat, and body aches.

Painful, prolonged erection of the penis.

Swelling in your hands, ankles, or feet.

Unusual behavior or thoughts of hurting yourself or others.

Unusual bleeding or bruising.

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

Dry mouth.

Headache, dizziness, or drowsiness.

Nausea, diarrhea, constipation, or upset stomach.

Problems with sex.

Runny or stuffy nose.

Sweating.

Tiredness.

Trouble with sleeping.

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

### 4.3 Place In Therapy

#### A) Depression

1) Escitalopram is indicated for the acute and maintenance treatment of major depressive disorder in adults and adolescents age 12 years and older (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

2) The selective serotonin (5-HT) reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) are considered a first-line choice for mild or moderate depression by many specialists. More severe depression unresponsive to the SSRIs, is usually treated by tricyclic antidepressants, or bupropion or venlafaxine. There is no consistent evidence that one is superior to another.

3) In several studies, escitalopram has been reported effective in major depressive disorder. A pooled analysis of placebo-controlled trials escitalopram demonstrated a statistically significant improvement in depressive symptoms compared to placebo at one week compared to 4 weeks for citalopram. The actual improvement in depressive symptoms was significantly greater for escitalopram compared to placebo at weeks one and two was an approximately 10% decrease (out of a possible 60) as measured on the Montgomery Asberg Depression Rating Scale (Gorman et al, 2002). The clinical significance of this change is not clear. There was no statistically significant difference between escitalopram 10 mg and placebo in regards to discontinuation rates due to adverse effects or in the rate of treatment-emergent adverse events. Both escitalopram 20 mg per day and citalopram 20 mg per day did show statistically significant higher rates for discontinuation due to adverse effects and in treatment-emergent adverse events (Burke et al, 2002). A controlled trial compared equivalent doses of escitalopram 10 mg per day and citalopram 20 mg per day to determine if escitalopram offers clinical advantages over citalopram in the treatment of major depressive disorder. There was no statistically significant difference between escitalopram 10 mg and citalopram 20 mg in regards to discontinuation rates due to adverse effects or in the rate of treatment-emergent adverse events.

#### B) Generalized Anxiety Disorder

1) Escitalopram is indicated in the acute treatment of generalized anxiety disorder in adults (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

2) For the acute treatment of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD), SSRIs such as paroxetine, sertraline, and escitalopram, as well as venlafaxine, benzodiazepines, and beta-blockers are used.

alprazolam and diazepam, and the tricyclic antidepressant (TCA) imipramine. The SSRIs and venlafaxine are preferred to benzodiazepines and TCAs due to tolerability. Studies have shown that long-term treatment with SSRIs or venlafaxine increases response rates and prevents relapse (Baldwin & Nair, 2005).

**3)** Escitalopram has been shown to be effective for the acute and chronic treatment of GAD, as well as in the prevention of relapse (Goodman et al, 2005; Davidson & Allgulander et al, 2006). In three 8-week randomized controlled trials, patients receiving escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) daily showed statistically significant improvement compared to placebo as early as 1 week, as measured by change from baseline Hamilton Rating for Anxiety (HAM-A) scores (Goodman et al, 2005). Patients completing the 8-week trial were invited to participate in a 24-week, open-label extension in which all patients received escitalopram. Initially, patients who received escitalopram in the lead-in trials showed greater improvements than patients who received placebo, but by week 4 of the extension, patients were at the same level of improvement regardless of previous treatment. 76% of patients were considered responders and 49% achieved remission (Goodman et al, 2005). In a relapse prevention study lasting 24 to 76 weeks, patients on placebo were more likely to relapse than patients who were treated with escitalopram (Allgulander et al, 2006). A comparison study found escitalopram to be as effective as paroxetine in the treatment of GAD; however, escitalopram was better tolerated (Goodman et al, 2005).

#### 4.4 Mechanism of Action / Pharmacology

##### A) MECHANISM OF ACTION

**1)** Antidepressant effects are secondary to inhibition of reuptake of serotonin by serotonergic neurons via binding to the serotonin transporter, resulting in increased synaptic availability of 5-HT (Owens et al, 2001; Owens & Knight, 2000).

##### B) PHARMACOLOGY

**1)** The antidepressant escitalopram is a selective serotonin (5-HT) reuptake inhibitor. It is available for clinical use as a racemic mixture (S(+)-citalopram and R(-)-citalopram in a 1:1 ratio) (Montgomery et al, 2001; Sanchez & Hogg, 2000). Escitalopram is the S(+)-enantiomer of citalopram, and appears responsible for most or all antidepressant activity of the racemic compound (Sanchez & Hogg, 2000; Sanchez & Brennum, 2000; Montgomery et al, 2001; Mitchell & Hogg, 2001). In vitro, escitalopram was about twice as potent as racemic citalopram and 130 times as potent as R(-)-citalopram as an inhibitor of serotonin reuptake (Sanchez & Brennum, 2000; Sanchez & Hogg, 2000; Owens et al, 2001; Bergqvist et al, 2001) and exhibited minimal-to-no effect on norepinephrine reuptake (Sanchez & Brennum, 2000).

**2)** Subcutaneous escitalopram was reported effective in an animal model of depression, and at least twice as potent as subcutaneous citalopram (Sanchez & Hogg, 2001). The onset of antidepressant activity with escitalopram was faster than that of racemic citalopram (Montgomery et al, 2001) or tricyclic antidepressants (Sanchez, 2001) in rat models of depression.

**3)** Escitalopram has demonstrated anxiolytic activity in animal models of generalized anxiety disorder, whereas the R(-)-enantiomer was essentially inactive (Sanchez, 2001). These data suggest that the clinical anxiolytic actions observed with racemic citalopram are due to escitalopram.

#### 4.5 Therapeutic Uses

##### 4.5.A Escitalopram Oxalate

[Cerebrovascular accident - Depression; Prophylaxis](#)

[Generalized anxiety disorder](#)

[Major depressive disorder](#)

[Mixed anxiety and depressive disorder](#)

[Obsessive-compulsive disorder](#)

[Panic disorder](#)

[Trichotillomania](#)

**4.5.A.1 Cerebrovascular accident - Depression; Prophylaxis****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](#)

**b) Summary:**

In a 12-month, multicenter, randomized, double-blind study (n=176) prophylaxis with oral escitalopram 5 or 10 milligrams/day was not superior to placebo or problem-solving therapy in reducing the frequency of depression onset in adults with recent ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke (Robinson et al, 2008)

**c) Adult:**

**1) Prophylaxis with oral escitalopram was more effective than placebo in lowering incidence of depression in nondepressed patients with recent ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke.** In a 12-month, multicenter, randomized, double-blind study (n=176); however, no benefit was seen in patients exposed to nonblinded problem-solving therapy compared to placebo. Patients older than 90 years of age (mean age, 62 years) who had experienced ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke within 3 months were included, provided they did not meet the DSM-IV diagnostic criteria for major or minor depression and had a Hamilton-17 Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) score of greater than 7 (mean score range at baseline, 7 to 7.22). Patients were randomized to double-blinded therapy with either escitalopram 5 milligrams (mg)/day or placebo (n=58), or nonblinded problem-solving therapy (n=59) for 12 months. In the problem-solving therapy arm, patients selected a problem and through 7 steps to form a course of action; therapy involved 6 treatments over the first 12 weeks and 6 reinforcement sessions over the remaining 6 months. Assessments were conducted at 3 month intervals using the Clinical Interview for DSM-IV, and patients meeting major or minor depression diagnostic criteria and with a HDRS score of greater than 12 were defined as depression (primary outcome measure). At 12 months, there were 11 major and 2 minor cases of depression (total, 22.4%) in the placebo arm compared to 2 major and 1 minor cases (total, 8.5%) in the escitalopram arm. Excluding 13.5% of the study patients who dropped out for various reasons (and receiving treatment and after adjusting for prior history of mood disorder in each arm), patients in the placebo group were significantly more likely to develop depression compared to patients in the escitalopram group (adjusted HR, 4.5; 95% confidence interval (CI), 2.4 to 8.2; p less than 0.001). The number needed to treat (NNT) of 7.2 acute stroke patients. In the problem-solving therapy group, there were 5 major and 2 minor cases of depression (total, 11.7%) compared to 2 major and 1 minor cases of depression (total, 5.0%) in the escitalopram group (adjusted HR (vs placebo), 2.2; 95% CI, 1.4 to 3.5; p less than 0.001). The NNT of 9.1 acute stroke patients. Notably, an intention-to-treat analysis including post-randomization dropouts (n=27), with the assumption that those who developed depression, revealed statistical significance compared to the escitalopram group (34.5% vs 23.1%, respectively; adjusted HR 1.2 to 3.9; p=0.007) but not for the problem-solving therapy group (33.0% vs 23.1%, respectively; adjusted HR, 1.1; 95% CI, 0.8 to 1.5; p=0.51). Secondary efficacy variables, activities of daily living (measured using the Functional Independence Measure) as well as social functioning (measured using the Social Functioning Exam scores) improved across all 3 groups, with no significant time to treatment interaction. Additionally, there were no differences in frequency of adverse events, including all-cause hospitalizations and gastrointestinal effects, between the groups (Robinson et al, 2008)

**4.5.A.2 Generalized anxiety disorder****FDA Labeled Indication****a) Overview**

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

See Drug Consult reference: [RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE](#)

**b) Summary:**

Indicated in the acute treatment of generalized anxiety disorder (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009). Treatment with escitalopram in older adults (60 years or older) generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) was associated with improved clinical response rates in anxiety symptoms and self-reported r compared to placebo, in a 12 week, randomized, double-blind, controlled, phase 2 study (n=179); however, statistical significance observed only in the modified intent-to-treat analysis (Lenze et

c) Adult:

1) A pooled analysis of three short-term double-blind, placebo-controlled flexible-dose studies showed that escitalopram is more effective than treating generalized anxiety disorder (GAD). Patients (mean age, 39 years) with a diagnosis of GAD and a Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (HAM-A) total score of at least 18 and at least a score of 2 on the HAM-A anxiety items were included. Those with diagnoses of major depressive disorder, schizophrenia, psychosis, bipolar disorder, developmental or cognitive disorders, and substance abuse within the past 6 months were excluded. Following a 4-week placebo lead-in period, patients were randomized to receive either escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) daily (n=429) or placebo (n=427). The escitalopram dose could be increased to 20 mg daily after 4 weeks if the patient was judged to be insufficient by the investigator. The primary endpoint was change in HAM-A total score from baseline to week 8. The mean change in HAM-A total score was a 10.1-point decrease (+/-0.3) for escitalopram and a 7.6-point decrease (+/-0.3) for placebo (p less than 0.001). At week 8, response, defined as a decrease of at least 50% in mean HAM-A score, occurred in 47.5% of escitalopram-treated patients and 28.6% of placebo-treated patients (p less than 0.001). Remission, defined as a HAM-A score of 7 or less, occurred in 26.4% of escitalopram-treated patients and 14.1% of placebo-treated patients (p less than 0.001). Clinical Global Impressions of Improvement (CGI-I), defined as a CGI-I score of 1 or 2, occurred in 52% of escitalopram-treated patients and 37% of placebo-treated patients (p less than 0.001). In these trials, the most commonly reported adverse effects were nausea (escitalopram, 18.2%; placebo, 7.5%), ejaculation disorder (escitalopram, 14.3%; placebo, 1.5%), insomnia (escitalopram, 11.9%; placebo, 5.6%), fatigue (escitalopram, 7.7%; placebo, 2.1%), decreased libido (escitalopram, 6.8%; placebo, 0.4%), and anorgasmia (escitalopram, 5.7%; placebo, 0.4%) (Goodman et al, 2005).

Patients who completed 8-week trials comparing escitalopram to placebo were invited to participate in a 24-week, open-label, flexible-dose extension study (n=526) of escitalopram. Inclusion and exclusion criteria were the same as for the previous trials, with the added requirement that the patient had participated in and completed one of the three 8-week trials within 72 hours. All patients, regardless of treatment received in the previous trials, were given escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) daily for 4 weeks. If the patient's response was unsatisfactory, the dose could be increased to 20 mg daily. The primary endpoint of the study was improvement in Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (HAM-A) scores. Baseline HAM-A scores in the placebo-treated group from the previous trials were higher than in those patients who had been treated with escitalopram in the lead-in trials. However, within 4 weeks of open-label escitalopram treatment, the improvement had equalized between the two groups and remained similar throughout the rest of the study. Of the patients who completed the extension study, 56.8% (n=521) were responders, and the mean change in HAM-A score at 24 weeks was -3.1. At 24 weeks, 76% of patients were considered responders and 49% remained responders (Davidson et al, 2005).

2) Escitalopram was effective in the prevention of relapse of generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) in a clinical trial that began with a 12-week, open-label, flexible-dose study (n=491) followed by a double-blind, randomized treatment period (n=491) between 24 and 76 weeks. Patients included were those between 18 and 65 with a primary diagnosis of GAD and a Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (HAM-A) score of 20 or greater. Those with a diagnosis of major depressive disorder, panic disorder, social anxiety disorder, bipolar disorder, eating disorders, suicidal ideations, psychoses, and substance abuse disorders were excluded. Patients were given escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) daily for the first week of the open-label period, then doses were increased to 20 mg daily for the remainder of the 12-week period. At 12 weeks, responders were rare, and 76% of patients were considered responders and 49% remained responders (Davidson et al, 2005).

double-blind period ended on the same date for all patients (24 to 7 treatment), then was followed by a 2-week taper. The primary endpoint to relapse during the double-blind period, as defined by an increase total score of 15 or greater or investigator-determined lack of efficacy. HAMA total score at the beginning of the open-label period was 27.0 (standard deviation (SD)). At the start of the double-blind period, the mean total score for the placebo group was 5 +/-3.1, and the mean HAMA score for the escitalopram group was 5.7 +/-2.9. Escitalopram was beneficial compared to placebo with regard to time to relapse (p less than 0.001; log-rank test). Escitalopram was associated with decreased relapse compared to placebo (31% versus 56%, respectively; p less than 0.001). The hazard ratio for relapse was 4.04 (95% confidence interval (CI), 2.75 to 5.94). The change in total score from the beginning of the double-blind period to the end of 24 weeks was a decrease of 0.83 in the escitalopram group and an increase of 0.39 in the placebo group (treatment difference, -1.22; 95% CI, -2.28 to -0.17). The most common side effects reported during the open-label period of treatment with escitalopram include nausea (24.2%), headache (16.7%), ejaculation dysfunction (11.6%), fatigue (11.2%), insomnia (11%), and dry mouth (10.1%). The most common side effects reported during the double-blind portion of the study were headache (escitalopram, 11.2%; placebo, 3.7%), rhinitis (escitalopram, 13.9%; placebo, 5.9%), and upper respiratory tract infections (escitalopram, 2.7%; placebo, 2.7%), and the withdrawal rate for adverse effects was similar in the two groups (escitalopram, 7%; placebo, 8.5%) (Allgulander et al 2004).

**a) Geriatric Populations**

**1) Treatment with escitalopram in older adults (60 years or older) with generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) was associated with improved clinical response rates in anxiety symptoms and role functioning compared to placebo, in a 12-week, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, phase 2 study (n=179); however, no statistical significance was observed only in the modified intent-to-treat analysis. Patients with a principal diagnosis of GAD according to Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, Fourth Edition (DSM-IV) criteria, and clinically significant anxiety symptoms (total score of 17 or greater in the Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale) were enrolled. Patients with a total anxiety score range from 0 to 56) were enrolled. Patients were excluded from the study if they had a history of lifetime psychosis, bipolar disorder, dementia, increased suicide risk, medical illness, ongoing psychotherapy, and current antidepressant or anxiolytic use (with the exception of benzodiazepine use equivalent to lorazepam 1 mg/day). Eligible patients were randomized to receive escitalopram 10 mg orally daily (mean age, 72.2 years; n=85) or matching placebo (mean age, 72.2 years; n=92) for 12 weeks. Patients who did not achieve a clinical response after 4 weeks of escitalopram 10 mg orally daily were given a 2-week taper and then received escitalopram 20 mg orally daily, as tolerated. Outcomes were defined as changes in symptoms of anxiety on the Clinical Impression Improvement Scale (CGI-I), HARS, Penn State Questionnaire (PSWQ), and role functioning. The primary endpoint was a response defined as CGI-I of 1 (very much improved) or 2 (much improved). In the modified intent-to-treat (ITT) analysis, a significantly higher proportion of participants who provided at least 1 follow-up data point (n=179) had a response in the escitalopram arm (60%; 95% CI, 47% to 71%) compared with the placebo arm (45%; 95% CI, 36% to 54%; p=0.048). However, in the ITT analysis (n=179), the response rates were not statistically different between the escitalopram and placebo arms (57%; 95% CI, 46% to 67% vs 45%; 95% CI, 35% to 55%). Overall, cumulative incidence of response was higher in the escitalopram arm versus placebo arm (mean response rate, 58% to 80% vs 51%; 95% CI, 40% to 62%, respectively). Treatment with escitalopram also significantly improved the activity limitations subscale scores compared to placebo. Fatigue (41.1%) and somnolence (41.1%) were the most common adverse effects with escitalopram and appeared to be dose-related (Lenze et al 2004).**

**4.5.A.3 Major depressive disorder**

FDA Labeled Indication

**a) Overview**

FDA Approval: Adult, yes; Pediatric, yes (age 12 years and old)  
Efficacy: Adult, Evidence favors efficacy; Pediatric, Evidence fa  
Recommendation: Adult, Class IIa; Pediatric, Class IIb  
Strength of Evidence: Adult, Category B; Pediatric, Category B

See Drug Consult reference: [RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENC](#)

**b) Summary:**

Indicated for the acute and maintenance treatment of major dep disorder in adults and adolescents age 12 years and older (Pro LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

Escitalopram has been more effective than placebo in alleviatir of major depression in adults (Burke et al, 2002b; Gorman et al Wade et al, 2002; Montgomery et al, 2001a; Anon, 2000; Wade Burke, 2000a; Gorman, 2001a).

Escitalopram was not statistically better than placebo in the tre: major depressive disorder (MDD) among pediatric patients age years (n=261) (Wagner et al, 2006); however, in a multicenter, randomized, placebo-controlled study (n=316), escitalopram wa: more effective than placebo among adolescent patients with M al, 2009).

The efficacy of escitalopram for maintenance treatment of majc disorder in adolescents age 12 to 17 years was extrapolated frc (Prod Info LEXAPRO(R) Oral solution, Oral tablets, 2009).

**c) Adult:**

**1)** Randomized studies (published and unpublished) have reported greater efficacy of escitalopram 10 or 20 milligrams (mg) daily comp placebo in the treatment of major depressive disorder, based on imj the Montgomery Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS), the Cli Impressions (CGI) scale, and the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (Burke et al, 2002b; Gorman et al, 2002b; Wade et al, 2002; Montgr 2001a; Anon, 2000; Wade et al, 2001b; Burke, 2000a; Gorman, 200 these studies appeared to involve the same patient populations, wit reinterpretation of data; others were the same population with variee treatment. The three published studies were all of short duration (8 et al, 2002b; Gorman et al, 2002b; Wade et al, 2002). Differences ir of escitalopram (10 and 20 mg) relative to placebo at endpoint in the depression were statistically significant and amounted to decreases points on the MADRS (Burke et al, 2002b; Wade et al, 2002).

**2)** In studies providing response rates (50% reduction in MADRS s compared to baseline) (Burke et al, 2002b; Gorman et al, 2002b; W 2002; Wade et al, 2001b; Gorman, 2001a), 42% to 44% of patients placebo with 56% to 61% responding to escitalopram 10 or 20 millig this difference reached statistical significance in favor of escitalopra

**3)** In direct comparisons (unpublished studies), escitalopram 10 or has not been statistically superior to citalopram 20 or 40 mg daily (C 2001a; Burke, 2001b; Montgomery et al, 2001c). However, in an an pooled data from placebo-controlled trials, escitalopram 10 or 20 mg statistically significant (p less than 0.05) decrease in Montgomery A Depression Rating Scale scores compared to citalopram 40 mg dail weeks, but not at weeks 2, 4, or 8 (Gorman et al, 2002b).

**4)** In a randomized, double-blind study involving patients with majo disorder of at least one month in duration (n=366), Montgomery Ast Depression Rating scale (MADRS), Clinical Global Impression (CGI Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAMD) scores were improve significantly greater extent with escitalopram 10 or 20 milligrams (m placebo. This difference was first noted at one week on the mood it HAMD scale and on the CGI scale. At week 2 there was also a stati significant difference noted on the MADRS and HAMD scales; impr remained statistically significant in favor of escitalopram throughout of therapy. Discontinuation of treatment due to adverse events was frequent in the 20-mg group compared to 10 mg daily or placebo gr al, 2002b).

**d) Pediatric:**

**1)** In a multicenter, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled st escitalopram was significantly more effective than placebo in the tre adolescent patients with major depressive disorder (MDD). Adolesc diagnosed with MDD as defined by the Diagnostic and Statistical M: Mental Disorders (DSM-IV) criteria and Kiddie Schedule for Affectiv

and Schizophrenia for School-Age Children - Present and Lifetime v current MDD episode of at least 12 weeks duration, a score of at le Children's Depression Rating Scale-Revised (CDRS-R) at both scre baseline visits, a Clinical Global Impressions-Severity (CGI-S) Scale least 4 at baseline, a Kaufman Brief Intelligence Test score of 80 or eligible for the study. There was a 2-week screening period and all received single-blind placebo during the second week. Following the period, eligible patients were randomized to receive escitalopram 10 milligrams/day (mg/day) for the first 3 weeks (n=158; mean age, 14. years (yr)) or placebo (n=158; mean age, 14.5 +/- 1.5 yr). After 3 or escitalopram dose could be adjusted to 20 mg/day or remain at 10 r patients developed intolerance at higher doses. Baseline characteri similar between the escitalopram arm (mean duration of depressive +/- 17.4 months; antidepressant naive, 81.3%) and the placebo arm (mean duration of depressive episode, 16.5 +/- 15.4 months; antidepressant 85.4%). The mean baseline CDRS-R scores (57.6 vs 56; p=0.034) ; scores (4.6 vs 4.4; p=0.007) indicated greater severity of depression in the escitalopram arm compared with the placebo arm, but the difference was not clinically significant. A total of 81.3% (126 of 154) of patients in the escitalopram group completed the 8 weeks of treatment compared to 84.7% (133 of 157) patients who received placebo. The mean dose of escitalopram was 10 mg/day and 68.4% patients who received escitalopram had a dose adjustment compared to 76.4% of patients in the placebo arm. Based on the intent-to-treat analysis, patients who received escitalopram experienced a greater improvement in the CDRS-R scores at week 8 (primary endpoint) compared with placebo (mean +/- standard error of mean, -22.1 +/- 1.22 v -15.1 +/- 1.27; difference, -3.356; 95% CI, -6.226 to -0.486; p=0.22). Addition change from baseline to week 8 for the CGI-S scores (secondary endpoint) was greater for the patients who received escitalopram compared with placebo (mean +/- 0.11 vs 1.4 +/- 0.12; difference, -0.37; 95% CI, -0.64 to -0.1; p=0.007). Escitalopram was associated with a higher incidence of insomnia (16.4% vs 6.4%), nausea (10.3% vs 8.3%) and influenza-like symptoms (7.1% vs 4.1%). Relative to escitalopram, placebo was associated with a higher incidence of menstrual cramps (15.2% vs 10.9%) and inflicted injury (13.4% vs 9.1%) (al, 2009).

2) In an 8-week, multicenter, double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial among children and adolescents aged 6 to 17 years with major depressive disorder (n=261; 6 to 11 years, n=104; 12 to 17 years, n=157), escitalopram was not statistically better than placebo in outcome measures. All patients were free of other psychiatric disorders, of whom 51% were female. Patients were randomly assigned to either escitalopram 10 mg (mg) once daily for the first 4 weeks, followed by flexible dosing of 10 to 20 mg (n=129) or matching placebo (n=132). The median dose of escitalopram was +/- 2.3 mg per day. Baseline Children's Depression Rating Scale-Revised (CDRS-R) scores were 54.5 for escitalopram-treated patients and 56.6 for placebo-treated patients, with higher scores indicating worsening of depression. In the intent-to-treat analysis using the last observation-carried-forward approach, the improvement from baseline at week 8 in the CDRS-R (primary outcome) was similar between the escitalopram and the placebo arms (mean change, -21.9 vs -20.2; p=0.31). Escitalopram was not statistically superior to placebo in Clinical Global Impressions-Improvement (CGI-I) (p=0.057), Clinical Global Impressions-Severity (CGI-S) (p=0.057), and Child Behavior Checklist Assessment Scale (CGAS) Compliance (p=0.065) scores. In the secondary analysis among adolescents aged 12 to 17 years (n=157) using the last observation-carried-forward approach, escitalopram demonstrated significant improvements from baseline compared with placebo in CGI-I (2.4 vs 2.8; p=0.038), CGI-S (-1.5 vs -0.5; p=0.005) and CGAS scores (15.7 vs 10; p=0.005). Compliance rates were not significantly different, at 77.9% and 86.5% for the escitalopram and the placebo arms, respectively. Headache (22.9% vs 21.8%), abdominal pain (10.7% vs 7.6%), nausea (7.6% vs 4.5%) were more frequently associated with escitalopram than placebo. Suicidal ideation and intent were reported in one escitalopram-treated patient and 2 placebo-treated patients, none of which was successful (al, 2006).

#### 4.5.A.4 Mixed anxiety and depressive 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](#)

**b) Summary:**

Effective in treating anxiety in patients with major depression in studies (Burke et al, 2002b; Lydiard, 2001c)

**c) Adult:**

**1)** Escitalopram 10 or 20 milligrams (mg) daily was reported to be superior to placebo in treating both anxiety and depression in outpatients with major depression in an 8-week, placebo-controlled, double-blind study. There were statistically significant decreases in anxiety scores relative to placebo treatment groups; 1.1 points (p=0.04) for the 10 mg escitalopram group and 1.5 points (p less than 0.01) for the 20 mg escitalopram group. These differences represented the change from baseline to endpoint (week 8) as measured by the Hamilton Rating Scale for Anxiety (Burke et al, 2002b).

**2)** In an unpublished, 8-week, placebo-controlled study, escitalopram 10 milligrams (mg) daily was reported to be superior to placebo in treating anxiety and depression in outpatients with major depression. Antianxiety effects were demonstrated by improvements in the anxiety subscale of the Depression Rating Scale (HAMD), the inner tension component of the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS), and the Hamilton Anxiety Scale (HAMA). Doses of 20 mg tended to be more effective than 10 mg. Combined data for both doses indicated antianxiety and antidepressant effects comparable to citalopram 20 or 40 mg daily; slightly faster improvement in symptoms was seen with escitalopram versus citalopram, although not statistically significant (Lydiard, 2001c).

#### 4.5.A.5 Obsessive-compulsive 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](#)

**b) Summary:**

In patients with obsessive-compulsive disorder, continued treatment with escitalopram during a 24-week, randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled phase maintained clinical response observed after 16 weeks of treatment, and yielded higher relapse prevention than placebo (Stein et al, 2007).

In a 24-week, randomized, double-blind study (n=466), treatment with escitalopram 20 milligrams (mg) per day was more effective than placebo and achieved comparable efficacy to paroxetine in treating adult patients with moderate-to-severe obsessive-compulsive disorder (Stein et al, 2007).

**c) Adult:**

**1) General Information**

**a)** Treatment with oral escitalopram was more effective than placebo in treating adult moderate-to-severe obsessive-compulsive disorder in a 24-week, randomized, double-blind study (n=466) (Stein et al, 2007). This study also employed paroxetine as an active-comparator and escitalopram efficacy was comparable to that observed with paroxetine. Common adverse effects included nausea, headache, and fatigue among the active treatment arms. In another study in adults with moderate-to-severe OCD, patients who responded to 24 weeks of open-label treatment with escitalopram 10 or 20 mg/d were randomized to 24 weeks of continued treatment with escitalopram at the same doses during the subsequent double-blind, placebo-controlled phase. Patients who responded to escitalopram maintained clinical response and had lower relapse rates (52% compared to placebo (Fineberg et al, 2007). Notably, exclusion of patients with other primary or axis I psychiatric disorders and/or significant comorbidity in both studies may limit the generalizability of these findings.

**2) Clinical Trials**

**a)** Twenty-four weeks of continued treatment with escitalopram 20 milligrams (mg) per day was more effective than placebo and achieved comparable efficacy to paroxetine in treating adult patients with moderate-to-severe obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD). Patients with moderate-to-severe OCD diagnosed according to DSM-IV criteria were included in the study.

DSM-IV (Third Revision) criteria (aged 18 to 65 years; mean, 3 were required to have a Yale-Brown Obsessive Compulsive Sc total score of 20 or higher, with an OCD duration of at least 1 yr symptoms for at least 6 months, and no other primary psychiat significant somatic comorbidity. Patients (n=468; mean +/- stan (SD) Y-BOCS total score, 26.4 +/- 3.7) were first enrolled in a 1 open-label phase, receiving oral escitalopram 10 mg/day for the and then titrated up to 20 mg/day based on tolerability and effic was fixed from weeks 12 to 16. Of the 374 patients completing phase, 320 who responded to treatment (ie, had a 25% or grea from baseline Y-BOCS total score; mean +/- SD Y-BOCS total weeks, 15 +/- 8.5) were entered into the double-blind phase an to receive either escitalopram 10 or 20 mg/day (n=163) or place for 24 weeks. Escitalopram was tapered off in patients assigne as well as in the escitalopram group at the end of the study (we of patients in the escitalopram group received the 20 mg/day d the double-blind phase, trained raters assessed patients using National Institute of Mental Health-Obsessive Compulsive Scal OCS), and Clinical Global Impressions-Severity of Illness (CGI- Improvement of Illness (CGI-I) every 2 weeks until week 8 and weeks. Relapse was defined as an increase in the Y-BOCS tot or greater, or lack of efficacy based on the investigator's judgm Meier survival analysis revealed that the primary efficacy meas relapse of OCD from the start of the double-blind phase (baseli significantly in favor of escitalopram compared to placebo (p le: log-rank test). The relapse rate was significantly higher in the p compared to the escitalopram group (52% vs 23%; p less than yielding an estimated hazard ratio of 2.74 (p less than 0.001). / significant between-group difference in Y-BOCS total score wa: week 4 of the double-blind phase, which was maintained throug While the mean +/- SD Y-BOCS total scores in the placebo gro from 11.2 +/- 5.3 at baseline to 14.8 +/- 7.5, Y-BOCS total scor escitalopram group were essentially unchanged (10.8 +/- 5.4 at 10.7 +/- 7.3 at 24 weeks), yielding an adjusted mean change (p escitalopram) of -3.67 (95% confidence interval, -4.91 to 2.42). secondary efficacy measures, the mean NIMH-OCS, CGI-S, ar scores in the escitalopram group, all of which had reduced sign baseline during the open-label phase, remained either unchang decreased compared to values at randomization. In the placeb measures were increased at week 24 compared to randomizati adjusted mean change from randomization was statistically sigi favor of escitalopram for all measures. Of the 20% (n=94/468) i who withdrew from the study during the open-label phase, 28 p withdrew due to adverse events. During the double-blind phase rates were comparable between the groups (escitalopram, 7.9% 8.9%). Adverse events occurred in 39% of escitalopram-treatec compared to 31.6% of placebo-treated patients, with the majori being mild to moderate. Despite the taper, discontinuation effec (5.7% vs 0.6%; p less than 0.001) and dizziness (15.9% vs 0.6' frequently reported in the placebo group during the first 2 week double-blind phase (p less than 0.001 for both) (Fineberg et al, **b**). Treatment with oral escitalopram 20 milligrams (mg) per day effective than placebo and achieved comparable efficacy to pai treating adult moderate to severe obsessive-compulsive disord 24-week, randomized, double-blind study (n=466). Outpatients years (mean, 38 years) with a primary diagnosis of OCD accord DSM-IV (Third Revision) criteria, with a Yale-Brown Obsessive Scale (Y-BOCS) total score of 20 or higher, an OCD duration o year and stable symptoms for at least 6 months, and no other c psychiatric disorders were included. Patients were randomized either escitalopram 10 mg/day (n=116) or 20 mg/day (n=116), f mg/day (n=119), or placebo (n=115) for 24 weeks, followed by taper period. Trained raters assessed efficacy primarily using th total score every 2 weeks until week 12 and every 4 weeks sub Secondary efficacy measures included the National Institute of Health-Obsessive Compulsive Scale (NIMH-OCS), and Clinical Impressions-Severity of Illness (CGI-S) and Improvement of Illr

Response was defined as a score of 2 or less on the CGI-I, and reduction in the Y-BOCS total score at week 12 and 24; remission score of 1 or 2 on the CGI-S, and a Y-BOCS total score of 10 or less at weeks 12 and 24. At baseline, the mean +/- standard deviation total scores were 27.7 +/- 4.2, 26.6 +/- 3.7, 26.6 +/- 3.9, and 27.0 +/- 3.9 for the placebo, escitalopram 10 mg/day, escitalopram 20 mg/day, and paroxetine 40 mg/day groups, respectively. Compared to placebo, the mean difference in Y-BOCS total score from baseline to week 12 (primary efficacy endpoint) was statistically significant for the escitalopram 20 mg/day group (mean difference, -3.21; 95% confidence interval (CI), -5.19 to -1.23;  $p < 0.01$ ) and the paroxetine group (mean difference, -2.47; 95% CI, -4.51 to -0.41;  $p < 0.05$ ). For the escitalopram 20 mg/day group, treatment difference from placebo in Y-BOCS total scores emerged at week 6 ( $p < 0.05$ ) and continued through week 24 ( $p < 0.05$ ). Analysis of the per-protocol population revealed statistically significant changes from baseline to week 12 in Y-BOCS total score for the placebo (-8.46 +/- 0.76;  $n=97$ ), escitalopram 10 mg/day (-10.08 +/- 0.78;  $p < 0.01$ ;  $n=92$ ), escitalopram 20 mg/day (-12.14 +/- 0.76;  $p < 0.001$ ;  $n=95$ ), and the paroxetine 40 mg/day groups (-11.6 +/- 0.76;  $p < 0.01$ ;  $n=90$ ). For the escitalopram 20 mg/day group, responder status and remission status from placebo emerged at week 12, respectively, based on the Y-BOCS total score criteria. For other secondary endpoints, all active treatment groups showed significant improvement versus placebo in NIMH-OCS, CGI-S, and CGI-I scores at both weeks 12 and 24. Of 131 study withdrawals, a higher proportion of patients withdrew from the placebo group (19% to 27%) compared to the escitalopram 20 mg/day (6.1% to 19%), paroxetine 40 mg/day (7.7% to 19%), and escitalopram 10 mg/day (19% to 27%) groups ( $p < 0.05$  for both). The most commonly reported adverse events in the active treatment groups were headache (17% to 22%), and fatigue (12% to 19%) (Stein et al, 2007).

#### 4.5.A.6 Panic disorder

##### a) Overview

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

See Drug Consult reference: [RECOMMENDATION AND EVIDENCE](#)

##### b) Summary:

Reduced panic attack frequency in patients with panic disorder (Stein et al, 2003)

##### c) Adult:

1) Escitalopram treatment reduced panic attack frequency in patients with panic disorder. In a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, flexible multicenter study, patients with panic disorder with or without agoraphobia received escitalopram ( $n=128$ ; mean dose, 10.8 milligrams (mg)/day) or placebo for 10 weeks. Panic attack frequency in escitalopram-treated patients was significantly reduced from baseline to endpoint as compared with patients who received placebo (1.32 vs 0.32, respectively;  $p=0.04$ ). Additionally, the percentage of patients with zero panic attacks at endpoint approached statistical significance (50% vs 38%, respectively;  $p=0.07$ ). The escitalopram group was not statistically different from placebo on either measure. However, patients in both the escitalopram and placebo groups showed significant improvements in numerous other efficacy measures including, Panic and Agoraphobia Scale total score, Clinical Impression-Improvement (CGI-I) and -Severity of Illness (CGI-S) scores, Patient Global Evaluation score, and Quality of Life Enjoyment and Satisfaction Questionnaire score ( $p < 0.05$  or equivalent). The most commonly reported adverse events included headache, nausea, insomnia, fatigue, dizziness, and somnolence (Stein et al, 2007).

#### 4.5.A.7 Trichotillomania

##### 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](#)

**b) Summary:**

Treatment with escitalopram led to significant improvement in trichotillomania in adult women (mean age, 32.5 years) in a small open-label, prospective trial (n=20) (Gadde et al, 2007)

**c) Adult:**

**1)** In a small, 12-week, open-label, prospective trial (n=20), treatment with escitalopram led to significant improvement in symptoms of trichotillomania in adult women. Enrollees (mean age, 32.5 years; 17 Caucasian) had DSM-IV-TR diagnosis of trichotillomania and were required to have a score of 4 or higher on the National Institute of Mental Health (NIMH) trichotillomania severity scale (TSS) and 4 or higher on the NIMH trichotillomania in scale (TIS). Patients with a history of mania, hypomania, schizophrenia, psychotic disorders, with a primary diagnosis of obsessive-compulsive disorder or those with recent (4 weeks prior) use of antidepressants or other medications were excluded. Study patients received escitalopram 10 mg orally once daily in the evening. Based on clinical response the dose was increased in 10-mg increments at 4-week intervals up to a maximum dose of 30 mg/day by week 8. Patients kept diaries detailing pulling behavior prior to study initiation and maintained them during study duration. Assessments were conducted every 2 weeks using the Massachusetts General Hospital (MGH) Hair Pulling scale, clinician-rated Clinical Global Impression improvement scale (CGI-I). The TSS (range, 0 to 25), assessing the frequency of hair pulling, resistance, urge, distress, and interference, was the primary efficacy measure. A clinician-rated CGI-I score of 1 (very much improved) or 2 (much improved) at least 50% reduction in TSS total score were classified as responders. At baseline, most study patients displayed hair pulling from more than one site on the scalp being the most common site (n=16). The mean  $\pm$  standard deviation duration of trichotillomania was 15.3  $\pm$  2.1 years, and an equal number of patients displayed relaxation- and stress-associated trichotillomania. The mean  $\pm$  SE escitalopram dose was 21.9  $\pm$  2.1 mg/day. Baseline intention-to-treat (ITT) analysis (including all patients with at least 1 assessment), 50% (8/16) of patients were responders. Of the 8 responders, 5 were rated as very much improved and 3 were rated as much improved on the clinician- and patient-rated CGI-I. In the ITT population, the mean total score decreased over time from 15.4  $\pm$  0.9 at baseline to 9.4 at week 12 (p less than 0.0001); scores were similar among study completers (n=12; 15.8  $\pm$  1.1 at baseline to 7.5  $\pm$  1.2 at week 12; p less than 0.0001). Among secondary outcomes, significant improvements occurred in the MGH hair pulling scale to 10.6  $\pm$  1.2; p less than 0.0015) scores for the ITT set. Results were similar among study completers. Specific predictors of response were not evaluated in this small study set. Treatment-emergent adverse events were most commonly reported included nausea (n=6), insomnia (n=4), fatigue (n=2), decreased libido (n=2), and orgasmic dysfunction (n=2). Bruising, which resolved after discontinuation, was reported in 1 patient (Gadde et al, 2007).

#### 4.6 Comparative Efficacy / Evaluation With Other Therapies

[Citalopram](#)

[Duloxetine](#)

[Paroxetine](#)

##### 4.6.A Citalopram

[Depression](#)

[Mixed anxiety and depressive disorder](#)

#### 4.6.A.1 Depression

a) Direct placebo-controlled comparisons of escitalopram 10 or 20 milligrams daily and citalopram 20 or 40 mg daily in patients with major depression revealed a trend toward the superiority of escitalopram in improving symptoms although this did not reach statistical significance (Gorman et al, 2002a; et al, 2001a; Burke et al, 2002a). In all studies, improvements from baseline escitalopram versus placebo tended to be greater than citalopram versus placebo leading the investigators to indicate greater efficacy of escitalopram; however, statistical superiority of escitalopram versus citalopram for baseline improvement was not demonstrated. Using placebo-effect versus baseline comparisons, the time to action of escitalopram was judged faster than that of citalopram; statistical comparisons between escitalopram and citalopram were not applied.

b) In pooled data from three 8-week, placebo-controlled studies comparing escitalopram 10 to 20 mg daily and escitalopram 10 to 20 mg daily in patients with major depression, improvement of Montgomery Asberg Depression Rating Scale scores was significantly greater with escitalopram versus placebo after 4 weeks, whereas borderline significance ( $p=0.068$ ) versus placebo was seen for week 8. Similar trends were reported for Clinical Global Impressions (CGI) scores. In patients completing 8 weeks of treatment, MADRS scores had improved in at least 50% in 59%, 53%, and 41% of patients receiving escitalopram, citalopram, and placebo, respectively; MADRS response rates for both escitalopram and citalopram were significantly greater compared to placebo, although the difference between escitalopram and citalopram was not statistically significant (Gorman et al, 2002a).

#### 4.6.A.2 Mixed anxiety and depressive disorder

a) In unpublished, 8-week placebo-controlled studies, escitalopram 10 mg daily was comparable in efficacy to citalopram 20 or 40 mg daily in treating both anxiety and depression in outpatients with major depression (Gorman et al, 2001). A trend toward faster improvement of anxiety symptoms was seen with escitalopram, although this was not statistically significant. Adverse effects were similar between escitalopram and citalopram.

#### 4.6.A.3 Adverse Effects

a) In one large study ( $N=491$ ) adverse effects occurred in 71%, 79%, 81%, and 88% of patients treated with placebo, escitalopram 10 mg daily, escitalopram 20 mg daily, and citalopram 40 mg daily, respectively; corresponding incidences of discontinuation due to adverse effects were 2.5%, 4.2%, 10.4%, and 8.8%. There was no significant statistical difference in the number of adverse effects between escitalopram 10 mg daily and escitalopram 20 mg daily. There was also no significant statistical difference in the number of adverse effects reported for escitalopram 20 mg daily and citalopram 40 mg daily, but both groups had statistically ( $p$  less than 0.01) higher rates of treatment-emergent adverse effects than placebo or escitalopram 10 mg daily (Gorman et al, 2002a).

### 4.6.B Duloxetine

#### 4.6.B.1 Major depressive disorder

a) In an 8-week randomized, double-blind, placebo- and active-comparator, multicenter, noninferiority trial in adult patients ( $n=684$ ) with major depressive disorder (MDD), onset of efficacy for duloxetine 60 milligrams (mg) daily was at least as early as for escitalopram 10 mg daily, and patients in both active treatment groups were more likely to meet onset criteria than placebo patients. Patients aged 18 to 79 years (range, 18 to 79 years), meeting the DSM-IV criteria for MDD and a Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) total score of 2 or greater and a Clinical Global Impression Scale-Severity (CGI-S) score of 4 or greater were included. Patients were randomized to receive either duloxetine 60 mg daily ( $n=342$ ; mean age, 41.1 years; mean baseline Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D) subscale score, 17.6), escitalopram 10 mg daily ( $n=274$ ; mean age, 41.1 years; mean baseline HAM-D score, 17.8), or placebo ( $n=137$ ; mean age, 42.5 years; mean baseline HAM-D score, 17.7) during an 8-week, acute treatment period. Efficacy (primary endpoint) was defined as achieving a 20% or greater reduction in HAM-D score by week 2 that was sustained for the remainder of the acute treatment period. In the intent-to-treat analysis, the probability of meeting efficacy criteria was similar in the duloxetine and escitalopram groups (42.6% vs 35.2%; difference, 7.4%; 95% confidence interval (CI), -1.3% to 16.2%;  $p=0.097$ ). More patients in both groups were more likely to achieve efficacy onset compared to placebo patients (21.5%; duloxetine vs placebo,  $p$  less than 0.001; escitalopram vs placebo,  $p$  less than 0.001).

placebo,  $p=0.008$ ). The noninferiority of duloxetine to escitalopram was following a per-protocol analysis. In an analysis for the main treatment data from all visits were pooled, a significantly greater proportion of duloxetine patients achieved efficacy onset vs escitalopram patients ( $p=0.026$ ), and a significantly greater proportion of patients in both active treatment groups achieved efficacy compared to placebo patients ( $p$  less than or equal to 0.018 for both). The median time to onset was significantly shorter among duloxetine-treated patients than both escitalopram- and placebo-treated patients (23 days vs 41 days vs 55 days, respectively;  $p=0.032$ ; duloxetine vs placebo,  $p$  less than 0.001), and time to onset did not differ between escitalopram and placebo patients ( $p=0.001$ ). The probability of achieving a treatment response (secondary endpoint) by week 8, defined as a 50% or greater improvement in HAMD total score, was similar among duloxetine (48.7%), escitalopram (45.3%), and placebo (36.9%) groups. The probability of remission (HAMD total score of 7 or less) also did not differ between groups (40.1% vs 33% vs 27.7%, respectively). The 191 subjects who completed the study were evenly distributed among the groups, and a similar percentage in each group discontinued due to adverse effects. Nausea was the most commonly caused discontinuation among duloxetine patients compared to escitalopram patients (2.9% vs 0.4%, respectively;  $p=0.02$ ). Both nausea and mouth occurred more often in duloxetine patients compared to escitalopram and placebo patients and at a rate greater than 10% (nausea, 23.8% vs 12% vs 10.9%; mouth, 21.6% vs 10.9% vs 10.9%;  $p$  less than 0.05 for all). Although this study focused on the acute 8-week treatment period, subjects completing this study continued with blinded treatment for an additional 6 months (Nierenberg et al, 2007). During the 6-month extension phase, the duloxetine dose ranged from 60 to 120 mg/day and the escitalopram dose ranged from 10 to 20 mg/day; placebo patients were assigned to the active treatment phase. Among the 431 patients (63%) continuing on in the extension phase there were no significant differences in antidepressant efficacy between duloxetine and escitalopram groups based on HAMD total scores. The probability of achieving a treatment response was 70% and 75% among the duloxetine and escitalopram groups, respectively ( $p=0.44$ ). The only statistically significant difference between the groups was in insomnia, where escitalopram-treated patients had a greater mean change from baseline in insomnia than duloxetine-treated patients (mean change from baseline -1.55;  $p$  less than 0.05). Although discontinuation rates over the 8-month study were higher in the duloxetine group vs escitalopram (62% vs 55%;  $p=0.02$ ), rates of discontinuation due to adverse events were similar (12.8% vs 12%, respectively; Pigott et al, 2007).

**b)** In a randomized, double-blind, fixed-dose, noninferiority trial ( $n=294$ ) comparing duloxetine to escitalopram for the long term treatment of major depressive disorder (MDD), escitalopram was superior in acute treatment. The study included outpatients aged 18 to 73 years old with MDD according to DSM-IV (Third Revision) criteria, with a Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) total score of 26 or greater, and with a Clinical Global Impressions Severity (CGI-S) score of 4 or greater were included. With the exception of patients with a current or past history of compulsive disorder, posttraumatic stress disorder, or panic disorder, past or secondary, current, comorbid anxiety disorder were included. Study patients were randomized to receive either duloxetine 60 milligrams ( $n=151$ ) or escitalopram (initial dose, 10 mg/day; increased after 2 weeks;  $n=143$ ) orally once daily for 24 weeks. At baseline, the MADRS scores were  $32.1 \pm 4.4$  and  $32.5 \pm 4.4$  in the duloxetine and escitalopram groups, respectively. At the end of the 24 weeks, the mean change from baseline in MADRS score in the intent-to-treat population (primary endpoint) for escitalopram and duloxetine were -23.4 and -21.7, respectively ( $p=0.055$ ). Based on a per-protocol analysis ( $n=287$ ), the between-group difference in MADRS scores at 24 weeks (escitalopram minus duloxetine) was 0.6; 95% confidence interval (CI), -1.06 to 2.41;  $p$  not significant), which met the noninferiority criteria (ie, upper limit of the one-sided CI did not include 2). Furthermore, superiority of escitalopram was evident (ie, upper limit of the one-sided CI did not include zero) at week 8 and week 24 based on a between-group difference of 2.54 (95% CI,  $p=0.011$ ) and 2.21 ( $p=0.027$ ), respectively, in the per-protocol population. At 24 weeks, 81.6% ( $n=115$ ) of escitalopram-treated patients were considered to be responders (ie, 50% or greater decrease from baseline MADRS total score) compared with 73% ( $n=112$ ) of duloxetine-treated patients. Among secondary endpoints, escitalopram was significantly more effective than duloxetine in CGI-I ( $p=0.039$ ) score reduction from baseline to week 8. Escitalopram was also significantly better than duloxetine in the Sheehan Disability Scale (SDS) work score reduction at week 24, and SDS total score reduction at week

less than 0.05 for all). Significantly more patients on duloxetine reported (12.6% vs 4.9%) and constipation (8.6% vs 2.8%) compared to escitalopram almost twice the withdrawal rate due to adverse events in the duloxetine vs 9%; p less than 0.05) (Wade et al, 2007).

#### 4.6.C Paroxetine

##### 4.6.C.1 Generalized anxiety disorder

a) In a randomized, double-blind, multi-center trial involving patients (mean approximately 37 years) with moderate to severe generalized anxiety disorder, treatment with either escitalopram (10 to 20 milligrams (mg) per day), or paroxetine (20 to 50 mg per day) lead to improvements over time in all efficacy measures; however, escitalopram was better tolerated. The primary efficacy endpoint was change in Hamilton Anxiety Scale (HAMA) total score from baseline to week 24 in the intent-to-treat (ITT) population. Mean baseline HAMA scores were 23.7 for escitalopram and 23.4 for paroxetine. Mean change in HAMA scores were -13.3 for escitalopram and -13.3 for paroxetine (SEM for the escitalopram-treated patients (n=61) was 0.4 SEM for the paroxetine-treated patients (n=61). Upon analysis of the data, there were no statistically significant differences between treatment groups at week 8 or week 24. At week 24, mean changes in HAMA scores were -13.3 for escitalopram and -13.3 for paroxetine (SEM for the escitalopram-treated patients (n=61) was 0.4 SEM for the paroxetine-treated patients (n=61). The proportions of patients who met the response criterion (Clinical Global Impressions of Improvement (CGI-I) of 1 or 2) at week 8 were 65% for escitalopram and 55.7% for paroxetine and at week 24 were 78.3% and 62.3%, respectively. Differences were not statistically significant. A greater proportion of patients with paroxetine withdrew from the study due to adverse events compared to escitalopram (22.6% vs. 6.6%, respectively; p=0.02). While no adverse event was reported as the reason for discontinuation of escitalopram by more than one patient, headache, insomnia, and nausea each led to discontinuation of paroxetine in 2 or more patients. Upper respiratory tract infection and diarrhea were reported more frequently with escitalopram than with paroxetine (14.8% vs. 4.8% and 21.3% vs. 8.1%, respectively). Insomnia (25.8% vs. 14.5%), constipation (14.5% vs. 1.6%), ejaculation disorder (30% vs. 14.8%), anorgasmia (26.2% vs. 5.9%) and decreased libido (22.6% vs. 4.9%) occurred more frequently in the paroxetine group compared to the escitalopram group, respectively. The incidence of treatment emergent adverse events was 88.7% for paroxetine and 88.7% for escitalopram (Bielski et al, 2005).

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