

AUSTRALIAN PI – LEXAM (escitalopram (as oxalate))

1 NAME OF THE MEDICINE

Escitalopram (as oxalate).

2 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE COMPOSITION

Escitalopram is the active enantiomer (S-enantiomer) of citalopram. Escitalopram oxalate is a fine white to yellow, crystalline material. It is sparingly soluble in water, slightly soluble in acetone, soluble in ethanol and freely soluble in methanol. No polymorphic forms have been detected.

Lexam tablets come in two strengths and contain either 10 mg or 20 mg of escitalopram (as oxalate).

For full list of excipients, see section 6.1 LIST OF EXCIPIENTS

3 PHARMACEUTICAL FORM

Lexam 10 White, oval convex shaped, coated tablet with 'E' bisect '1' on one side and plain on the other side.

Lexam 20 White, oval convex shaped, coated tablet with 'E' bisect '2' on one side and plain on the other side.

4 CLINICAL PARTICULARS

4.1 THERAPEUTIC INDICATIONS

Treatment of major depression.

4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION

Adults. Escitalopram is administered as a single oral dose and may be taken with or without food.

Major depression. The recommended dose is 10 mg once daily. Depending on individual patient response, the dose may be increased to a maximum of 20 mg daily.

Usually two to four weeks are necessary for antidepressant response, although the onset of therapeutic effect may be seen earlier. The treatment of a single episode of depression requires treatment over the acute and the medium term. After the symptoms resolve during acute treatment, a period of consolidation of the response is required. Therefore, treatment of a depressive episode should be continued for a minimum of six months.

Elderly patients (≥ 65 years of age). A longer half-life and a decreased clearance have been demonstrated in the elderly. 10 mg is the recommended maximum maintenance dose in the elderly (see 5.2 PHARMACOKINETIC PROPERTIES and 4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE).

Children and adolescents (< 18 years of age). Safety and efficacy have not been established in this population. Escitalopram should not be used in children and adolescents under 18 years of age (see 4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE).

Renal insufficiency. Dosage adjustment is not necessary in patients with mild or moderate renal impairment. No information is available on the treatment of patients with severely reduced renal function (creatinine clearance < 20 mL/minute) (see 4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE).

Hepatic insufficiency. An initial dose of 5 mg daily for the first two weeks of treatment is recommended. Depending on individual patient response, the dose may be increased to 10 mg daily (see 4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE).

Poor metabolisers of CYP2C19. For patients who are known to be poor metabolisers with respect to CYP2C19, an initial dose of 5 mg daily during the first two weeks of treatment is recommended. Depending on individual patient response, the dose may be increased to 10 mg daily (see 5.2 PHARMACOKINETIC PROPERTIES and 4.5 INTERACTIONS WITH OTHER MEDICINES AND OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTIONS).

Discontinuation. Significant numbers of discontinuation symptoms may occur with abrupt discontinuation of escitalopram. To minimise discontinuation reactions, tapered discontinuation over a period of one to two weeks is recommended. If unacceptable discontinuation symptoms occur following a decrease in the dose or upon discontinuation of treatment, resuming the previously prescribed dose may be considered. Subsequently, the dose may be decreased but at a more gradual rate.

4.3 CONTRAINDICATIONS

Hypersensitivity to citalopram, escitalopram and any excipients in Lexam (see 2. QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE COMPOSITION).

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors.

Escitalopram should not be used in combination with monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOI) or the reversible MAOI (RIMA), moclobemide, or within 14 days of discontinuing treatment with a MAOI, and at least one day after discontinuing treatment with the reversible MAOI (RIMA), moclobemide. Similarly, at least 14 days should be allowed after stopping escitalopram before starting a MAOI or RIMA. Cases of serious reactions, such as potentially life-threatening serotonin syndrome (characterised by neuromuscular excitation, altered mental status and autonomic dysfunction) have been reported in patients receiving SSRI in combination with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor (MAOI) or the reversible MAOI (RIMA), moclobemide, and in patients who have recently discontinued an SSRI and have been started on a MAOI (see 4.5 INTERACTION WITH OTHER MEDICINES AND OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTIONS).

Pimozide. Concomitant use in patients taking pimozide is contraindicated (see 4.5 INTERACTION WITH OTHER MEDICINES AND OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTIONS).

4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE

Clinical worsening and suicide risk.

The risk of suicide attempt is inherent in depression and may persist until significant remission occurs. This risk must be considered in all depressed patients.

Patients with depression may experience worsening of their depressive symptoms and/or the emergence of suicidal ideation and behaviours (suicidality) whether or not they are taking antidepressant medications, and this risk may persist until significant remission occurs. As improvement may not occur during the first few weeks or more of treatment, patients should be closely monitored for clinical worsening and suicidality, especially at the beginning of a course of treatment or at the time of dose changes, either increases or decreases. Consideration should be given to changing the therapeutic regimen, including possibly discontinuing the medication, in patients whose depression is persistently worse or whose emergent suicidality is severe, abrupt in onset or was not part of the patient's presenting symptoms.

Patients (and caregivers of patients) should be alerted about the need to monitor for any worsening of their condition and/or the emergence of suicidal ideation/behaviour or thoughts of harming themselves and to seek medical advice immediately if these symptoms are present.

Patients with comorbid depression associated with other psychiatric disorders being treated with antidepressants should be similarly observed for clinical worsening and suicidality.

Patients with a history of suicide related events, or those exhibiting a significant degree of suicidal ideation prior to commencement of treatment, are at greater risk of suicidal thoughts or suicide attempts, and should receive careful monitoring during treatment.

Pooled analyses of 24 short-term (4 to 16 week), placebo controlled trials of nine antidepressant medicines (SSRIs and others) in 4,400 children and adolescents with major depressive disorder (16 trials), obsessive compulsive disorder (4 trials), or other psychiatric disorders (four trials) have revealed a greater risk of adverse events representing suicidal behaviour or thinking (suicidality) during the first few months of treatment in those receiving antidepressants. The average risk of such events in patients treated with an antidepressant was 4%, compared with 2% of patients given placebo. There was considerable variation in risk among the antidepressants, but there was a tendency towards an increase for almost all antidepressants studied. The risk of suicidality was most consistently observed in the major depressive disorder trials, but there were signals of risk arising from trials in other psychiatric indications (obsessive compulsive disorder and social anxiety disorder) as well. No suicides occurred in these trials. It is unknown whether the suicidality risk in children and adolescent patients extends to use beyond several months. The nine antidepressant medicines in the pooled analyses included five SSRIs (citalopram, fluoxetine, fluvoxamine, paroxetine, sertraline) and four non-SSRIs (bupropion, mirtazapine, nefazodone, venlafaxine).

Pooled analyses of short-term studies of antidepressant medications have also shown an increased risk of suicidal thinking and behaviour, known as suicidality, in young adults aged 18 to 24 years during initial treatment (generally the first one to two months). Short-term studies did not show an increase in the risk of suicidality with antidepressants compared to placebo in adults beyond the age of 24 years and there was a reduction with antidepressants compared to placebo in adults aged 65 years and older.

Symptoms of anxiety, agitation, panic attacks, insomnia, irritability, hostility (aggressiveness), impulsivity, akathisia (psychomotor restlessness), hypomania and mania have been reported in adults, adolescents and children being treated with antidepressants for major depressive disorder as well as for other indications, both psychiatric and nonpsychiatric. Although a causal link between the emergence of such symptoms and either worsening of depression and/or emergence of suicidal impulses has not been established, there is concern that such symptoms may be precursors of emerging suicidality.

Families and caregivers of children and adolescents being treated with antidepressants for major depressive disorder or for any other condition (psychiatric or nonpsychiatric) should be informed about the need to monitor these patients for the emergence of agitation, irritability, unusual changes in behaviour and other symptoms described above, as well as the emergence of suicidality, and to report such symptoms to health care providers immediately. It is particularly important that monitoring be undertaken during the initial few months of antidepressant treatment or at times of dose increase or decrease.

Prescriptions for Lexam should be written for the smallest quantity of tablets consistent with good patient management, in order to reduce the risk of overdose.

Akathisia/psychomotor restlessness.

The use of SSRIs/SNRIs has been associated with the development of akathisia, characterised by a subjectively unpleasant or distressing restlessness and need to move often accompanied by an inability to sit or stand still. This is most likely to occur within the first few weeks of treatment. In patients who develop these symptoms, increasing the dose may be detrimental.

Haemorrhage.

Bleeding abnormalities of the skin and mucous membranes have been reported with the use of SSRIs (including purpura, ecchymoses, haematoma, epistaxis, vaginal bleeding and gastrointestinal bleeding). Escitalopram should therefore be used with caution in patients concomitantly treated with oral anticoagulants, medicines known to affect platelet function (e.g. atypical antipsychotics and phenothiazines, most tricyclic antidepressants, acetylsalicylic acid and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory medicinal products (NSAIDs), ticlopidine and dipyridamole) as well as in patients with a past history of abnormal bleeding or those with predisposing conditions. Pharmacological gastroprotection should be considered for high risk patients.

Hyponatraemia.

Probably due to inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion (SIADH), hyponatraemia has been reported as a rare adverse reaction with the use of SSRIs. Especially elderly patients seem to be a risk group.

Seizures.

The drug should be discontinued in any patient who develops seizures. SSRIs should be avoided in patients with unstable epilepsy and patients with controlled epilepsy should be carefully monitored. SSRIs should be discontinued if there is an increase in seizure frequency (see Preclinical safety, below).

Diabetes.

In patients with diabetes, treatment with an SSRI may alter glycaemic control, possibly due to improvement of depressive symptoms. Insulin and/or oral hypoglycaemic dosage may need to be adjusted.

Mania.

A major depressive episode may be the initial presentation of bipolar disorder. It is generally believed that treating such an episode with an antidepressant alone can increase the likelihood or precipitation of a mixed/manic episode in patients with risk of bipolar disorder. Prior to initiating treatment with an antidepressant, patients should be adequately screened to determine if they are at risk for bipolar disorder; such screening should include detailed psychiatric history, including family history of suicide, bipolar disorder and depression.

SSRIs should be used with caution in patients with a history of mania/hypomania. SSRIs should be discontinued in any patient entering a manic phase.

Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT).

There is limited published clinical experience of concurrent administration of SSRIs and ECT, therefore caution is advisable.

Discontinuation.

Discontinuation symptoms when stopping treatment are common, particularly if discontinuation is abrupt.

The risk of discontinuation symptoms may be dependent on several factors including the duration and dose of therapy and the rate of dose reduction. Dizziness, sensory disturbances (including paraesthesia and electric shock sensations), sleep disturbances (including insomnia and intense dreams), agitation or anxiety, nausea and/or vomiting, tremor, confusion, sweating, headache, diarrhoea, palpitations, emotional instability, irritability and visual disturbances are the most commonly reported reactions. Generally, these symptoms are mild to moderate, however, in some patients they may be severe in intensity.

They usually occur within the first few days of discontinuing treatment, but there have been very rare reports of such symptoms in patients who have inadvertently missed a dose.

Generally, these symptoms are self-limiting and usually resolve within 2 weeks, though in some individuals they may be prolonged (2 to 3 months or more). It is therefore advised that escitalopram should be gradually tapered when discontinuing treatment over a period of several weeks or months, according to the patient's needs (see 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

Cardiac disease.

Escitalopram has not been evaluated or used to any appreciable extent in patients with a recent history of myocardial infarction or unstable heart disease. Like other SSRIs, escitalopram causes a

small decrease in heart rate. Consequently, caution should be observed when escitalopram is initiated in patients with pre-existing slow heart rate.

Preclinical safety.

High doses of escitalopram, which resulted in plasma C_{max} for escitalopram and metabolites at least eightfold greater than anticipated clinically, have been associated with convulsions, ECG abnormalities and cardiovascular changes in experimental animals. Of the cardiovascular changes, cardiotoxicity (including congestive heart failure) was observed in comparative toxicological studies in rats following oral escitalopram or citalopram administration for 4 to 13 weeks and appears to correlate with peak plasma concentrations although its exact mechanism is not clear. Clinical experience with citalopram, and the clinical trial experience with escitalopram, do not indicate that these findings have a clinical correlate.

Use in hepatic impairment

In subjects with hepatic impairment, clearance of escitalopram was decreased and plasma concentrations were increased. The dose of escitalopram in hepatically impaired patients should therefore be reduced (see 5.2 PHARMACOKINETIC PROPERTIES and 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

Use in renal impairment

Escitalopram is extensively metabolised and excretion of unchanged drug in the urine is a minor route of elimination. At present no information is available for the treatment of patients with severely reduced renal function (creatinine clearance < 20 mL/minute) and escitalopram should be used with caution in such patients (see 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

Use in the elderly (≥ 65 years).

Escitalopram AUC and half-life were increased in subjects greater than or equal to 65 years of age compared to younger subjects in a single dose and a multiple dose pharmacokinetic study. The dose of escitalopram in elderly patients should therefore be reduced (see 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

Paediatric use (children and adolescents < 18 years).

The efficacy and safety of escitalopram has not been established in children and adolescents less than 18 years of age. Consequently, escitalopram should not be used in children and adolescents less than 18 years of age.

Effects on laboratory tests

Refer to 4.8 ADVERSE EFFECTS (UNDESIRABLE EFFECTS) – Laboratory Changes, and 5.1 PHARMACODYNAMIC PROPERTIES.

4.5 INTERACTIONS WITH OTHER MEDICINES AND OTHER FORMS OF INTERACTIONS

MAOIs. Co-administration with MAO inhibitors may cause serotonin syndrome (see 4.3 CONTRAINDICATIONS).

Serotonin Syndrome: Development of serotonin syndrome may occur in association with treatment with SSRIs and SNRIs, particularly when given in combination with MAOIs or other serotonergic agents. Symptoms and signs of serotonin syndrome include rapid onset of neuromuscular excitation (hyperreflexia, incoordination, myoclonus, tremor), altered mental status (confusion, agitation, hypomania) and autonomic dysfunction (diaphoresis, diarrhoea, fever, shivering and rapidly fluctuating vital signs). Treatment with escitalopram should be discontinued if such events occur and supportive symptomatic treatment initiated.

Pimozide. Co-administration of a single dose of pimozide 2 mg to subjects treated with racemic citalopram 40 mg/day for eleven days caused an increase in AUC and C_{max} of pimozide, although not consistently throughout the study. The co-administration of pimozide and citalopram resulted in a mean increase in the QTc interval of approximately 10 milliseconds. Due to the interaction with citalopram noted at a low dose of pimozide, concomitant administration of escitalopram and pimozide is contraindicated (see 4.3 CONTRAINDICATIONS).

Serotonergic drugs. Co-administration with serotonergic drugs (e.g. tramadol, sumatriptan) may lead to an enhancement of serotonergic effects. Similarly, *Hypericum perforatum* (St. John's wort) should be avoided, as adverse interactions have been reported with a range of drugs including antidepressants.

Lithium and tryptophan. There have been reports of enhanced effects when SSRIs have been given with lithium or tryptophan and therefore concomitant use of SSRIs with these drugs should be undertaken with caution.

Medicines affecting the central nervous system. Given the primary CNS effects of escitalopram, caution should be used when it is taken in combination with other centrally acting drugs.

Medicines lowering the seizure threshold. SSRIs can lower the seizure threshold. Caution is advised when concomitantly using other medicinal products capable of lowering the seizure threshold (e.g. antidepressants (tricyclics, SSRIs), neuroleptics (phenothiazines, thioxanthenes, butyrophenones), mefloquine, bupropion and tramadol).

Hepatic enzymes. Escitalopram has a low potential for clinically significant drug interactions. *In vitro* studies have shown that the biotransformation of escitalopram to its demethylated metabolites depends on three parallel pathways (cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2C19, 3A4 and 2D6). Escitalopram is a very weak inhibitor of isoenzymes CYP1A2, 2C9, 2C19, 2E1 and 3A4, and a weak inhibitor of 2D6.

Effects of other drugs on escitalopram *in vivo*. The pharmacokinetics of escitalopram was not changed by co-administration with ritonavir (CYP3A4 inhibitor). Furthermore, co-administration with ketoconazole (potent CYP3A4 inhibitor) did not change the pharmacokinetics of racemic citalopram.

Co-administration of escitalopram with omeprazole (a CYP2C19 inhibitor) resulted in a moderate (approximately 50%) increase in plasma concentrations of escitalopram and a small but statistically significant increase (31%) in the terminal half-life of escitalopram (see also 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION, Poor metabolisers of CYP2C19).

Co-administration of escitalopram with cimetidine (moderately potent general enzyme inhibitor) resulted in a moderate (approximately 70%) increase in the plasma concentrations of escitalopram.

Thus, caution should be exercised at the upper end of the dose range of escitalopram when used concomitantly with CYP2C19 inhibitors (e.g. omeprazole, esomeprazole, fluoxetine, fluvoxamine, lansoprazole and ticlopidine) or cimetidine. A reduction in the dose of escitalopram may be necessary based on clinical judgment (see also 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION, Poor metabolisers of CYP2C19).

Effects of escitalopram on other drugs in vivo. Escitalopram is an inhibitor of the enzyme CYP2D6. Caution is recommended when escitalopram is co-administered with medicinal products that are mainly metabolised by this enzyme, and that have a narrow therapeutic index, e.g. flecainide, propafenone and metoprolol (when used in cardiac failure), or some CNS acting medicinal products that are mainly metabolised by CYP2D6, e.g. antidepressants such as desipramine, clomipramine and nortriptyline or antipsychotics like risperidone, thioridazine and haloperidol. Dosage adjustment may be warranted.

Co-administration with desipramine (a CYP2D6 substrate) resulted in a twofold increase in plasma levels of desipramine. Therefore, caution is advised when escitalopram and desipramine are co-administered. A similar increase in plasma levels of desipramine, after administration of imipramine, was seen when given together with racemic citalopram.

Co-administration with metoprolol (a CYP2D6 substrate) resulted in a twofold increase in the plasma levels of metoprolol. However, the combination had no clinically significant effects on blood pressure and heart rate.

The pharmacokinetics of ritonavir (CYP3A4 inhibitor) was not changed by co-administration with escitalopram.

Furthermore, pharmacokinetic interaction studies with racemic citalopram have demonstrated no clinically important interactions with carbamazepine (CYP3A4 substrate), triazolam (CYP3A4 substrate), theophylline (CYP1A2 substrate), warfarin (CYP3A4 and CYP2C9 substrate), levomepromazine (CYP2D6 inhibitor), lithium and digoxin.

Medicines that interfere with haemostasis (nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), aspirin, warfarin). Serotonin release by platelets plays an important role in haemostasis. There is an association between use of psychotropic drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of abnormal bleeding. Concurrent use of an NSAID, aspirin or warfarin potentiates this risk. Thus, patients should be cautioned about using such medicines concurrently with escitalopram.

Alcohol. The combination of SSRIs and alcohol is not advisable.

4.6 FERTILITY, PREGNANCY AND LACTATION

Effects on fertility

No fertility studies were performed with escitalopram. However, other nonclinical studies suggest that the effects of escitalopram can be directly predicted from those of the citalopram racemate.

In rats, female fertility was unaffected by oral treatment with citalopram doses which achieved plasma drug concentrations slightly in excess of those expected in humans, but effects on male rat fertility have not been tested with adequate oral doses.

Animal data have shown that some SSRIs induce reduction of fertility index and pregnancy index, reduction in number implantation and abnormal sperm. No animal data related to this aspect are available for escitalopram.

Animal data have shown that some SSRIs may affect sperm quality.

Use in pregnancy (Category C)

Limited clinical data are available regarding exposure to escitalopram during pregnancy.

Neonates should be observed if maternal use of escitalopram continues into the later stages of pregnancy, particularly in the third trimester. Abrupt discontinuation should be avoided during pregnancy. If escitalopram is used until shortly before birth, discontinuation effects in the newborn are possible.

Neonates exposed to escitalopram, other SSRIs (selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors) or SNRIs (serotonin noradrenaline reuptake inhibitors) late in the third trimester have developed complications requiring prolonged hospitalisation, respiratory support and tube feeding. Such complications can arise immediately upon delivery. Reported clinical findings have included respiratory distress, cyanosis, apnoea, seizures, temperature instability, feeding difficulty, vomiting, hypoglycaemia, hypotonia, hypertonia, hyperreflexia, tremor, jitteriness, irritability, lethargy, constant crying, somnolence and difficulty sleeping. These features are consistent with either a direct toxic effect of SSRIs and SNRIs or, possibly, a drug discontinuation syndrome. In the majority of cases the complications begin immediately or soon (< 24 hours) after delivery.

Epidemiological studies have shown that the use of SSRIs (including escitalopram) in pregnancy, particularly use in late pregnancy, was associated with an increased risk of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn (PPHN). The risk of PPHN among infants born to women who used SSRIs late in pregnancy was estimated to be 4 to 5 times higher than the rate of 1 to 2 per 1000 pregnancies observed in the general population.

Oral treatment of rats with escitalopram during organogenesis at maternotoxic doses led to increased post-implantation loss and reduced foetal weight at systemic exposure levels (based on AUC) approximately eleven-fold that anticipated clinically, with no effects seen at sixfold. No teratogenicity was evident in this study at relative systemic exposure levels of approximately 15 (based on AUC).

There were no perinatal or postnatal effects of escitalopram following oral dosing of pregnant rats (conception through to weaning) at systemic exposure levels (based on AUC) approximately twice that anticipated clinically. However, the number of stillbirths was increased and the size, weight and postnatal survival of offspring were decreased at a relative systemic exposure level approximately 5.

Because animal reproduction studies are not always predictive of human response, this drug should be used during pregnancy only if clearly needed and only after careful consideration of the risk/benefit.

Use in lactation.

It is expected that escitalopram, like citalopram, will be excreted into human breast milk. Studies in breastfeeding mothers have shown that the mean combined dose of citalopram and demethylcitalopram transmitted to infants via breast milk (expressed as a percentage of the weight adjusted maternal dose) is 4.4 to 5.1% (below the notional 10% level of concern).

Plasma concentrations of these drugs in infants were very low or absent and there were no adverse effects. Whilst the citalopram data support the safety of use of escitalopram in breastfeeding women, the decision to breastfeed should always be made as an individual risk versus benefit analysis.

4.7 EFFECTS ON ABILITY TO DRIVE AND USE MACHINES

Escitalopram does not impair intellectual function and psychomotor performance. However, as with other psychoactive drugs, patients should be cautioned about their ability to drive a car and operate machinery.

4.8 ADVERSE EFFECTS (UNDESIRABLE EFFECTS)

Adverse reactions observed with escitalopram are in general mild and transient. They are most frequent during the first one or two weeks of treatment and usually decrease in intensity and frequency with continued treatment and generally do not lead to a cessation of therapy. Data from short-term placebo controlled studies are presented below. The safety data from the long-term studies showed a similar profile.

Treatment emergent adverse events. Treatment emergent adverse events with an incidence of $\geq 1\%$ in placebo controlled trials are shown in **Table 1**. Adverse reactions with an incidence with escitalopram statistically significantly different from placebo ($p < 0.05$) are indicated.

Table 1. Treatment emergent adverse events with an incidence of $\geq 1\%$ in placebo controlled trials

System organ class and preferred term	Placebo n (%)	Escitalopram n (%)
Patients treated	1795	2632
Patients with treatment emergent adverse event	1135 (63.2)	1891 (71.8)
Gastrointestinal system disorders		
Nausea	151 (8.4)	481 (18.3)*
Diarrhoea	91 (5.1)	207 (7.9)*
Dry mouth	74 (4.1)	152 (5.8)*
Constipation	42 (2.3)	71 (2.7)
Abdominal pain	47 (2.6)	68 (2.6)
Vomiting	29 (1.6)	54 (2.1)
Dyspepsia	30 (1.7)	33 (1.3)
Flatulence	15 (0.8)	31 (1.2)
Central and peripheral nervous system disorders		
Headache	305 (17.0)	506 (19.2)
Dizziness	64 (3.6)	147 (5.6)*

Paraesthesia	13 (0.7)	35 (1.3)
Migraine	17 (0.9)	23 (0.8)
Tremor	15 (0.8)	33 (1.3)
Psychiatric disorders		
Insomnia	82 (4.6)	245 (9.3)*
Somnolence	62 (3.5)	217 (8.2)*
Anorexia	12 (0.7)	56 (2.1)*
Libido decreased	21 (1.2)	102 (3.9)*
Anxiety	44 (2.5)	77 (2.9)
Appetite decreased	8 (0.5)	35 (1.3)*
Agitation	6 (0.3)	33 (1.3)*
Nervousness	13 (0.7)	25 (1.0)
Abnormal dreaming	18 (1.0)	41 (1.6)
Impotence**	4 (0.6)	22 (2.2)*
Respiratory system disorders		
Upper respiratory tract infection	91 (5.1)	96 (3.6)
Coughing	18 (1.1)	24 (0.9)
Rhinitis	81 (4.8)	146 (5.5)
Sinusitis	24 (1.3)	46 (1.7)
Pharyngitis	44 (2.5)	57 (2.2)
Yawning	3 (0.2)	58 (2.2)*
Bronchitis	31 (1.7)	26 (0.9)
Body as a whole, general disorders		
Influenza-like symptoms	65 (3.6)	87 (3.3)
Fatigue	62 (3.5)	230 (8.7)*
Back pain	61 (3.4)	74 (2.8)
Skin and appendages disorders		
Sweating increased	27 (1.5)	145 (5.5)*
Musculoskeletal system disorders		
Arthralgia	22 (1.2)	27 (1.0)
Reproductive disorders, female		
Anorgasmia**	3 (0.3)	47 (2.9)
Metabolic and nutritional disorders		
Weight increase	20 (1.1)	45 (1.7)
Reproductive disorders, male		
Ejaculation disorder**	3 (0.5)	48 (4.7)*
Ejaculation failure**	1 (0.2)	27 (2.7)*
Cardiovascular disorders		
Hypertension	24 (1.3)*	13 (0.5)
Heart rate and rhythm disorders		
Palpitation	15 (0.8)	30 (1.1)
Secondary terms		
Inflicted injury (unintended injury)	22 (1.2)	23 (0.8)

* Statistically significant difference escitalopram versus placebo ($p < 0.05$)

** Gender specific

Adverse events in relation to dose. The potential dose dependency of common adverse events (defined as an incidence rate of greater than or equal to 5% in either the escitalopram 10 or 20 mg groups) was examined on the basis of the combined incidence of adverse events in two fixed dose

trials. The overall incidence rates of adverse events in escitalopram 10 mg treated patients (66%) was similar to that of the placebo treated patients (61%), while the incidence rate in escitalopram 20 mg/day treated patients was greater (86%). Common adverse events that occurred in the escitalopram 20 mg/day group with an incidence approximately twice that of the escitalopram 10 mg/day group and approximately twice that of the placebo group are shown in **Table 2**.

Table 2 Incidence of common adverse events* in patients receiving placebo, escitalopram 10 mg/day or 20 mg/day

Adverse event	Placebo (n = 311)	Escitalopram 10 mg/day (n = 310)	Escitalopram 20 mg/day (n = 125)
Insomnia	4%	7%	14%
Diarrhoea	5%	6%	14%
Dry mouth	3%	4%	9%
Somnolence	1%	4%	9%
Dizziness	2%	4%	7%
Sweating increased	< 1%	3%	8%
Constipation	1%	3%	6%
Fatigue	2%	2%	6%
Indigestion	1%	2%	6%

* Adverse events with an incidence rate of at least 5% in either escitalopram group and with an incidence rate in the escitalopram 20 mg/day group that was approximately twice that of the escitalopram 10 mg/day group and the placebo group.

Vital sign changes. Escitalopram and placebo groups were compared with respect to mean change from baseline in vital signs (pulse, systolic blood pressure and diastolic blood pressure), and to the incidence of patients meeting criteria for potentially clinically significant changes from baseline in these variables. These analyses did not reveal any clinically important changes in vital signs associated with escitalopram treatment.

ECG changes. Cases of QT prolongation have been reported during the post-marketing period with both citalopram and escitalopram. Citalopram can cause dose-dependent QT interval prolongation. In an ECG study, the observed change from baseline QTc (Friderica correction) was 7.5 msec at the 20 mg/day dose and 16.7 msec at the 60 mg/day dose of citalopram. The effect of escitalopram on the QT interval was similarly studied at doses of 10 mg/day and 30 mg/day. The change from baseline QTc (Friderica correction) was 4.3 msec at the 10 mg/day dose and 10.7 msec with the above recommended dose of 30 mg/day. The QTc interval prolongation observed with 60 mg citalopram exceeded that observed with 30 mg escitalopram. It is probable that the R-enantiomer and its metabolites in racemic citalopram contributes to these effects.

Weight changes. Patients treated with escitalopram in controlled trials did not differ from placebo treated patients with regard to clinically important change in bodyweight.

Laboratory changes. In clinical studies, there were no signals of clinically important changes in either various serum chemistry, haematology and urinalysis parameters associated with escitalopram treatment compared to placebo or in the incidence of patients meeting the criteria for potentially clinically significant changes from baseline in these variables.

For abnormal laboratory changes registered as either uncommon events or serious adverse events from ongoing trials and observed during (but not necessarily caused by) treatment with escitalopram, please see **Other events observed during the premarketing evaluation of escitalopram**, below.

Other events observed during the premarketing evaluation of escitalopram. Following is a list of WHO terms that reflect adverse events occurring at an incidence of < 1% and serious adverse events from ongoing trials. All reported events are included except those already listed in the table or elsewhere in the 4.8 ADVERSE EFFECTS section, and those occurring in only one patient. It is important to emphasise that, although the events reported occurred during treatment with escitalopram, they were not necessarily caused by it.

Events are further categorised by body system and are listed below. Uncommon adverse events are those occurring in less than 1/100 patients but at least 1/1000 patients.

Application site disorders. Uncommon. Otitis externa, cellulitis.

Body as a whole. Uncommon. Allergy, aggravated allergy, allergic reactions, asthenia, carpal tunnel syndrome, chest pain, chest tightness, fever, hernia, leg pain, limb pain, neck pain, oedema, oedema of extremities, peripheral oedema, rigors, malaise, syncope, scar.

Cardiovascular disorders, general. Uncommon. Hypertension aggravated, hypotension, hypertension, abnormal ECG.

Central and peripheral nervous system disorders. Uncommon. Ataxia, dysaesthesia, dysequilibrium, dysgeusia, dystonia, hyperkinesia, hyperreflexia, hypertonia, hypoaesthesia, leg cramps, light-headedness, muscle contractions, nerve root lesion, neuralgia, neuropathy, paralysis, sedation, tetany, tics, twitching, vertigo.

Gastrointestinal system disorders. Uncommon. Abdominal cramp, abdominal discomfort, belching, bloating, change in bowel habit, colitis, colitis ulcerative, enteritis, epigastric discomfort, gastritis, gastroesophageal reflux, haemorrhoids, heartburn, increased stool frequency, irritable bowel syndrome, melaena, periodontal destruction, rectal haemorrhage, tooth disorder, toothache, ulcerative stomatitis.

Hearing and vestibular disorders. Uncommon. Deafness, earache, ear disorder, otosalginitis, tinnitus.

Heart rate and rhythm disorders. Uncommon. Bradycardia, tachycardia.

Liver and biliary system disorders. Uncommon. Bilirubinaemia, hepatic enzymes increased.

Metabolic and nutritional disorders. Uncommon. Abnormal glucose tolerance, diabetes mellitus, gout, hypercholesterolaemia, hyperglycaemia, hyperlipaemia, thirst, weight decrease, xerophthalmia.

Musculoskeletal system disorders. Uncommon. Arthritis, arthropathy, arthrosis, bursitis, costochondritis, fascitis plantar, fibromyalgia, ischial neuralgia, jaw stiffness, muscle cramp, muscle spasms, muscle stiffness, muscle tightness, muscle weakness, myalgia, myopathy, osteoporosis, pain in neck or shoulder, tendinitis, tenosynovitis.

Myocardial, endocardial, pericardial and valve disorders. Uncommon. Myocardial infarction, myocardial ischaemia, myocarditis, angina pectoris.

Neoplasm. Uncommon. Female breast neoplasm, ovarian cyst, uterine fibroid.

Platelet, bleeding and clotting disorders. Uncommon. Abnormal bleeding, predominantly of the skin and mucous membranes, including purpura, epistaxis, haematomas, vaginal bleeding and gastrointestinal bleeding.

Poison specific terms. Uncommon. Sting.

Psychiatric disorders. Uncommon. Aggressive reaction, amnesia, apathy, bruxism, carbohydrate craving, concentration impairment, confusion, depersonalisation, depression, depression aggravated, emotional lability, excitability, feeling unreal, forgetfulness, hallucination, hypomania, increased appetite, irritability, jitteriness, lethargy, loss of libido, obsessive-compulsive disorder, panic reaction, paroniria, restlessness aggravated, sleep disorder, snoring, suicide attempt, abnormal thinking.

Red blood cell disorders. Uncommon. Anaemia hypochromic, anaemia.

Reproductive disorders in female. Uncommon. Amenorrhoea, atrophic vaginitis, breast pain, genital infection, intermenstrual bleeding, menopausal symptoms, menorrhagia, menstrual cramps, menstrual disorder, premenstrual tension, postmenopausal bleeding, sexual function abnormality, unintended pregnancy, dysmenorrhoea, vaginal haemorrhage, vaginal candidiasis, vaginitis.

Reproductive disorders in male. Uncommon. Ejaculation delayed, prostatic disorder.

Resistance mechanism disorders. Uncommon. Moniliasis genital, abscess, infection, herpes simplex, herpes zoster, infection bacterial, infection parasitic, infection (tuberculosis), moniliasis.

Respiratory system disorders. Uncommon. Asthma, dyspnoea, laryngitis, nasal congestion, nasopharyngitis, pneumonia, respiratory tract infection, shortness of breath, sinus headache, sinus congestion, sleep apnoea, tracheitis, throat tightness.

Skin and appendages disorders. Uncommon. Acne, alopecia, dermatitis, dermatitis fungal, dermatitis lichenoid, dry skin, eczema, erythematous rash, furunculosis, onychomycosis, pruritus, psoriasis aggravated, rash, rash pustular, skin disorder, urticaria, verruca.

Secondary terms. Uncommon. Accidental injury, bite, burn, fall, fractured neck of femur, alcohol problem, traumatic haematoma, cyst, food poisoning, lumbar disc lesion, surgical intervention.

Special senses, other disorders. Uncommon. Dry eyes, eye irritation, taste alteration, taste perversion, visual disturbance, ear infection not otherwise specified (NOS), vision blurred.

Urinary system disorders. Uncommon. Cystitis, dysuria, facial oedema, micturition frequency, micturition disorder, nocturia, polyuria, pyelonephritis, renal calculus, urinary frequency, urinary incontinence, urinary tract infection.

Vascular (extracardiac) disorders. Uncommon. Cerebrovascular disorder, flushing, hot flush (gender specific), ocular haemorrhage, peripheral ischaemia, varicose vein, vein disorder, vein distended.

Vision disorders. Uncommon. Accommodation abnormal, blepharospasm, eye infection, eye pain, mydriasis, vision abnormal, vision blurred, visual disturbance.

White cell and reticuloendothelial system disorder. Uncommon. Leucopenia.

In addition, the following adverse reactions have been reported with racemic citalopram (all of which have also been reported for other SSRIs).

Disorders of metabolism and nutrition. Hyponatraemia, inappropriate ADH secretion (both especially in elderly women).

Neurological disorders. Convulsions, grand mal and extrapyramidal disorder, serotonin syndrome (typically characterised by a rapid onset of changes in mental state, with confusion, mania, agitation, hyperactivity, shivering, fever, tremor, ocular movements, myoclonus, hyperreflexia and incoordination).

Skin disorders. Ecchymoses, angioedema.

Furthermore, a number of adverse reactions have been listed for other SSRIs. Although these are not listed as adverse reactions for escitalopram or citalopram, it cannot be excluded that these adverse reactions may occur with escitalopram. These SSRI class reactions are listed below.

Cardiovascular disorders. Postural hypotension.

Hepatobiliary disorders. Abnormal liver function tests.

Neurological disorders. Movement disorders.

Psychiatric disorders. Mania, panic attacks.

Renal and urinary disorders. Urinary retention.

Reproductive disorders. Galactorrhoea.

Other events observed during the post-marketing evaluation of escitalopram. Although no causal relationship to escitalopram treatment has been found, the following adverse events have been reported in association with escitalopram treatment in at least three patients (unless otherwise noted) and not described elsewhere in the 4.8 ADVERSE EFFECTS section: stomatitis, drug interaction NOS, feeling abnormal, hypersensitivity NOS, non-accidental overdose, injury NOS, psychotic disorder.

In addition, although no causal relationship to racemic citalopram treatment has been found, the following adverse events have been reported to be temporally associated with racemic citalopram treatment subsequent to the marketing of racemic citalopram and were not observed during the premarketing evaluation of escitalopram or citalopram: acute renal failure, akathisia, anaphylaxis, choreoathetosis, delirium, dyskinesia, epidermal necrolysis, erythema multiforme, gastrointestinal haemorrhage, haemolytic anaemia, hepatic necrosis, myoclonus, neuroleptic malignant syndrome, nystagmus, pancreatitis, priapism, prolactinaemia, prothrombin decreased, QT prolonged, rhabdomyolysis, spontaneous abortion, thrombocytopenia, thrombosis, Torsade de Pointes, ventricular arrhythmia and withdrawal syndrome.

Class effect. Epidemiological studies, mainly conducted in patients 50 years of age and older, show an increased risk of bone fractures in patients receiving SSRIs and TCAs. The mechanism leading to this risk is unknown.

Reporting suspected adverse reactions after registration of the medicinal product is important. It allows continued monitoring of the benefit-risk balance of the medicinal product. Healthcare professionals are asked to report any suspected adverse reactions at <http://www.tga.gov.au/reporting-problems>.

4.9 OVERDOSE

Toxicity

Clinical data on escitalopram overdose are limited and many cases involve concomitant overdoses of other drugs. In the majority of cases, mild or no symptoms have been reported. Doses between 400 and 800 mg of escitalopram alone have been taken without any severe symptoms. No fatalities or sequelae were reported in the few cases with a higher dose (one patient survived ingestion of either 2,400 or 4,800 mg).

Symptoms

Symptoms seen in reported overdose of escitalopram include symptoms mainly related to the central nervous system (ranging from dizziness, tremor and agitation to rare cases of serotonin syndrome, convulsion and coma), the gastrointestinal system (nausea/vomiting), the cardiovascular system (hypotension, tachycardia, arrhythmia and ECG changes (including QT prolongation)) and electrolyte/fluid balance conditions.

Treatment

There is no specific antidote. Establish and maintain an airway, ensure adequate oxygenation and respiratory function. The use of activated charcoal should be considered. Activated charcoal may reduce absorption of the medicine if given within one or two hours after ingestion. In patients who are not fully conscious or have impaired gag reflex, consideration should be given to administering activated charcoal via a nasogastric tube, once the airway is protected. Cardiac and vital signs monitoring are recommended along with general symptomatic supportive measures.

For information on the management of overdose, contact the Poisons Information Centre on 13 11 26 (Australia).

5 PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES

5.1 PHARMACODYNAMIC PROPERTIES

Mechanism of action

Biochemical and behavioural studies have shown that escitalopram is a potent inhibitor of serotonin (5HT) uptake (*in vitro* IC₅₀ 2 nanomolar).

The antidepressant action of escitalopram is presumably linked to the potentiation of serotonergic activity in the central nervous system (CNS) resulting from its inhibitory effect on the reuptake of 5HT from the synaptic cleft.

Escitalopram is a highly selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI). On the basis of *in vitro* studies, escitalopram had no or minimal effect on noradrenaline (NA), dopamine (DA) and gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) uptake.

In contrast to many tricyclic antidepressants and some of the SSRIs, escitalopram has no or very low affinity for a series of receptors including 5HT_{1A} and 5HT₂, DA D₁ and DA D₂ receptors, α_1 -, α_2 - and β -adrenoceptors, histamine H₁, muscarine cholinergic, benzodiazepine and opioid receptors. A series of functional *in vitro* tests in isolated organs as well as functional *in vivo* tests have confirmed the lack of receptor affinity.

Escitalopram has high affinity for the primary binding site and an allosteric modulating effect on the serotonin transporter.

Allosteric modulation of the serotonin transporter enhances binding of escitalopram to the primary binding site, resulting in more complete serotonin reuptake inhibition.

Escitalopram is the S-enantiomer of the racemate (citalopram) and is the enantiomer to which the therapeutic activity is attributed. Pharmacological studies have shown that the R-enantiomer is not inert but counteracts the serotonin-enhancing properties of the S-enantiomer in citalopram.

In healthy volunteers and in patients, escitalopram did not cause clinically significant changes in vital signs, ECGs or laboratory parameters.

S-demethylcitalopram, the main plasma metabolite, attains about 30% of parent compound levels after oral dosing and is about fivefold less potent at inhibiting 5HT reuptake than escitalopram *in vitro*. It is therefore unlikely to contribute significantly to the overall antidepressant effect.

Clinical trials

Escitalopram should not be used for the treatment of major depression in children and adolescents under the age of 18 years since the safety and efficacy in this population have not been established.

Major depression.

Escitalopram should not be used in the treatment of children and adolescents under the age of 18 years.

Two fixed dose studies and one flexible dose study have shown escitalopram in the dose range 10 to 20 mg/day to be more efficacious than placebo in the treatment of depression. All three studies were randomised, double blind, parallel group, placebo controlled multicentre studies. Two of the studies

included an active reference (citalopram). All three studies consisted of a one week single blind placebo lead-in period followed by an eight-week double blind treatment period.

Patients were required to have depression with a minimum score of 22 on the Montgomery-Asberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) at both the screening and baseline visits. The MADRS consists of ten items that measure core symptoms of depression, such as sadness, tension, pessimism and suicidal thoughts. Each item is rated on a scale of 0 (no abnormality) to 6 (severe). The populations studied were therefore defined as suffering from moderate to severe depression (mean MADRS score 29). A total of 591 patients received escitalopram in these studies.

All three studies showed escitalopram to be statistically significantly superior to placebo on the ITT LOCF (intention to treat/last observation carried forward) analysis of the mean change from baseline in the MADRS total score ($p \leq 0.01$). The magnitude of the difference between escitalopram and placebo in the MADRS change score ranged from 2.7 to 4.6 (mean of these values: 3.6). The magnitude of the difference for citalopram ranged from 1.5 to 2.5 (mean of these values: 2.0). The magnitude of the difference is larger with escitalopram than with citalopram.

Escitalopram demonstrated a significant early difference compared to placebo from week 2 onwards on the MADRS (week 1 in observed cases analysis). Likewise, the Clinical Global Impression - Improvement items (CGI-I) differed significantly from placebo from week 1 onwards. These early differences were not seen with racemic citalopram.

In the study with two parallel escitalopram dose groups, analysis of subgroups of patients showed a trend toward greater improvement in patients with severe major depressive disorder (HAM-D > 25) receiving 20 mg/day as compared to 10 mg/day. The Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D) consists of 17 to 24 items reflecting core symptoms of depression. Each item is scored on a 3, 4 or 5 point scale with 0 reflecting no symptoms and higher scores reflecting increasing symptom severity.

In a fourth flexible dose study with a similar design, the primary analysis did not distinguish a significant drug/placebo difference for either escitalopram or citalopram over eight weeks on the MADRS change score in the LOCF dataset. However, on the basis of the OC analysis, both escitalopram and citalopram were significantly better than placebo ($p \leq 0.05$; difference between escitalopram and placebo: 2.9).

Escitalopram demonstrated efficacy in the treatment of anxiety symptoms associated with depression. In the three positive double blind placebo controlled studies, escitalopram was shown to be effective compared to placebo on the MADRS anxiety items, inner tension and sleep disturbances. Furthermore, in the one study where the Hamilton Anxiety Scale (HAM-A) and the anxiety factor of the Hamilton Rating Scale for Depression (HAM-D scale) were used, results have shown that escitalopram was significantly better than placebo.

In a relapse prevention trial, 274 patients meeting (DSM-IV) criteria for major depressive disorder, who had responded during an initial eight-week open label treatment phase with escitalopram 10 or 20 mg/day, were randomised to continuation of escitalopram at the same dose, or to placebo, for up to 36 weeks of observation for relapse. Response during the open label phase was defined as a decrease of the MADRS total score to less than or equal to 12. Relapse during the double blind phase was defined as an increase of the MADRS total score to greater than or equal to 22, or discontinuation

due to insufficient clinical response. Patients receiving continued escitalopram experienced a significantly longer time to relapse over the subsequent 36 weeks compared to those receiving placebo (26 versus 40%; hazard ratio = 0.56, $p = 0.013$).

Further evidence of long-term efficacy is provided in a six-month study which compared escitalopram 10 mg/day to citalopram 20 mg/day over a six-month treatment period. Analysis of the primary endpoint (the development of the MADRS total scores over 24 weeks) demonstrated escitalopram to be at least as efficacious as citalopram in the long-term treatment of depression. Secondary analyses showed that, while both treatments resulted in numerical improvements in ratings in the MADRS, HAM-A and the CGI, escitalopram was statistically superior to citalopram in several analyses, both during and at the end of the study.

Additional supportive evidence of the sustained efficacy of escitalopram treatment is demonstrated in an open label 12-month study. The efficacy of escitalopram was maintained throughout the study, as measured by the MADRS total score and CGI-S score. Patients showed continued improvement, with total MADRS scores falling from 14.2 at baseline to 5.8 at last assessment, and CGI-scores falling from 2.7 at baseline to 1.6 at last assessment.

A study in the elderly did not provide conclusive efficacy results for escitalopram, as the reference drug (fluoxetine) failed to differentiate from placebo. However, safety data from this study showed escitalopram to be well tolerated.

5.2 PHARMACOKINETIC PROPERTIES

Absorption

Data specific to escitalopram are unavailable. Absorption is expected to be almost complete and independent of food intake (mean T_{max} is four hours after multiple dosing). While the absolute bioavailability of escitalopram has not been studied, it is unlikely to differ significantly from that of racemic citalopram (about 80%).

Distribution

The apparent volume of distribution ($V_{d,\beta}/F$) after oral administration is about 12 to 26 L/kg. The binding of escitalopram to human plasma proteins is independent of drug plasma levels and averages 55%.

Metabolism

Escitalopram is metabolised in the liver to the demethylated and didemethylated metabolites. Alternatively, the nitrogen may be oxidised to form the N-oxide metabolite. Both parent and metabolites are partly excreted as glucuronides. Unchanged escitalopram is the predominant compound in plasma. After multiple dosing the mean concentrations of the demethyl and didemethyl metabolites are usually 28 to 31% and < 5% of the escitalopram concentration, respectively. Biotransformation of escitalopram to the demethylated metabolite is mediated by a combination of CYP2C19, CYP3A4 and CYP2D6.

Excretion

The elimination half-life ($t_{1/2\beta}$) after multiple dosing is about 30 hours and the oral plasma clearance (Cl_{oral}) is about 0.6 L/minute.

Escitalopram and major metabolites are, like racemic citalopram, assumed to be eliminated both by the hepatic (metabolic) and the renal routes with the major part of the dose excreted as metabolites in urine. Approximately 8.0% of escitalopram is eliminated unchanged in urine and 9.6% as the S-demethylcitalopram metabolite based on escitalopram 20 mg data. Hepatic clearance is mainly by the P450 enzyme system.

The pharmacokinetics of escitalopram are linear over the clinical dosage range. Steady-state plasma levels are achieved in about one week. Average steady-state concentrations of 50 nmol/L (range 20 to 125 nmol/L) are achieved at a daily dose of 10 mg.

Special Populations

Elderly patients (> 65 years). Escitalopram pharmacokinetics in subjects > 65 years of age were compared to younger subjects in a single dose and a multiple dose study. Escitalopram AUC and half-life were increased by approximately 50% in elderly subjects, and C_{max} was unchanged. 10 mg is the recommended dose for elderly patients.

Gender. In a multiple dose study of escitalopram (10 mg/day for three weeks) in 18 male (nine elderly and nine young) and 18 female (nine elderly and nine young) subjects, there were no differences in AUC, C_{max} and half-life between the male and female subjects. No adjustment of dosage on the basis of gender is needed.

Reduced hepatic function. In patients with mild or moderate hepatic impairment (Child-Pugh criteria A and B), the half-life of escitalopram was about twice as long and the exposure was about 60% higher than in subjects with normal liver function (see 4.4 SPECIAL WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS FOR USE and 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

Reduced renal function. While there is no specific data, the use of escitalopram in reduced renal function may be extrapolated from that of racemic citalopram. Escitalopram is expected to be eliminated more slowly in patients with mild to moderate reduction of renal function with no major impact on the escitalopram concentrations in serum. At present no information is available for the treatment of patients with severely reduced renal function (creatinine clearance < 20 mL/minute).

Polymorphism. It has been observed that poor metabolisers with respect to CYP2C19 have twice as high a plasma concentration of escitalopram as extensive metabolisers. No significant change in exposure was observed in poor metabolisers with respect to CYP2D6 (see 4.2 DOSE AND METHOD OF ADMINISTRATION).

5.3 PRECLINICAL SAFETY DATA

Genotoxicity

No genotoxicity studies were performed with escitalopram. However, other nonclinical studies suggest that the effects of escitalopram can be directly predicted from those of the citalopram racemate.

In assays of genotoxic activity, citalopram showed no evidence of mutagenic or clastogenic activity.

Carcinogenicity

No carcinogenicity studies were performed with escitalopram. However, other preclinical studies suggest that the effects of escitalopram can be directly predicted from those of the citalopram racemate.

Citalopram did not show any carcinogenic activity in long-term oral studies using mice and rats at doses up to 240 and 80 mg/kg/day, respectively.

6 PHARMACEUTICAL PARTICULARS

6.1 LIST OF EXCIPIENTS

The tablets contain the following excipients: microcrystalline cellulose, colloidal anhydrous silica, purified talc, croscarmellose sodium, magnesium stearate and Opadry II complete film coating system 85F28751 WHITE (ARTG No.1027). The tablets are gluten free.

6.2 INCOMPATIBILITIES

Incompatibilities were either not assessed or not identified as part of the registration of this medicine.

6.3 SHELF LIFE

In Australia, information on the shelf life can be found on the public summary of the Australian Register of Therapeutic Goods (ARTG). The expiry date can be found on the packaging.

6.4 SPECIAL PRECAUTIONS FOR STORAGE

Store below 25°C.

6.5 NATURE AND CONTENTS OF CONTAINER

Lexam 10 PCTFE (Aclar)/Aluminium blister packs of 28 tablets.

Lexam 20 PCTFE (Aclar)/Aluminium blister packs of 28 tablets.

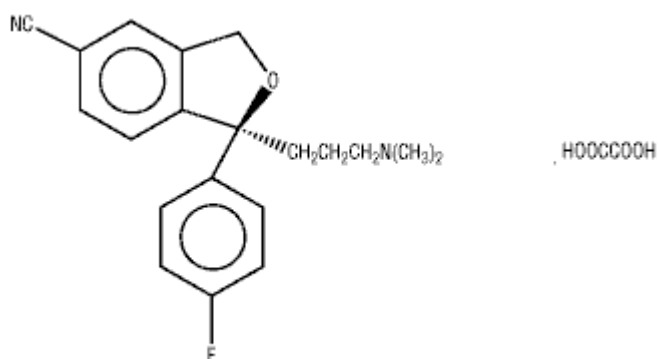
6.6 SPECIAL PRECAUTIONS FOR DISPOSAL

In Australia, any unused medicine or waste material should be disposed of by taking to your local pharmacy.

6.7 PHYSICOCHEMICAL PROPERTIES

Chemical structure

Escitalopram oxalate. The chemical name for escitalopram oxalate is *S*(+)-1-(3-dimethylaminopropyl)-1-(4'-fluorophenyl)-1,3-dihydroisobenzofuran-5-carbonitrile hydrogen oxalate. Its structural formula is:



$C_{20}H_{21}FN_2O \cdot C_2H_2O_4$ Molecular weight: 414.42

CAS number

CAS No.: 219861-08-2

7 MEDICINE SCHEDULE (POISONS STANDARD)

Schedule 4 - Prescription Only Medicine

8 SPONSOR

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www.arrowpharma.com.au

9 DATE OF FIRST APPROVAL

5 July 2013.

10 DATE OF REVISION

10 May 2018

SUMMARY TABLE OF CHANGES

Section Changed	Summary of new information
4.6	Safety related updates