

## HIGHLIGHTS OF PRESCRIBING INFORMATION

These highlights do not include all the information needed to use FLUOXETINE TABLETS, safely and effectively. See full prescribing information for FLUOXETINE TABLETS.

FLUOXETINE TABLETS, for oral use

Initial U.S. Approval: 1987

WARNING: SUICIDAL THOUGHTS AND BEHAVIORS	
• <b>See full prescribing information for complete boxed warning.</b>	
• <b>Increased risk of suicidal thinking and behavior in children, adolescents, and young adults taking antidepressants (5.1).</b>	
• <b>Monitor for worsening and emergence of suicidal thoughts and behaviors (5.1).</b>	

RECENT MAJOR CHANGES	
Warnings and Precautions (5.2, 5.7)	8/2023

INDICATIONS AND USAGE	
Fluoxetine tablets are a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI) indicated for the treatment of:	
• Major Depressive Disorder (MDD) (1)	
• Adults: Efficacy was established in one 5-week trial, three 6-week trials, and one maintenance study (14.1)	
• Pediatrics: Efficacy was established in two 8- to 9-week trials of patients 8 to 18 years of age (14.1)	
• Obsessive Compulsive Disorder (OCD) (1)	
• Adults: Efficacy was established in two 13-week trials (14.2)	
• Pediatrics: Efficacy was established in one 13-week trial in patients 7 to 17 years of age (14.2)	
• Bulimia Nervosa (1)	
• Adults: Efficacy was established in two 8-week trials and one 16-week trial (14.3)	
• Panic Disorder, with or without agoraphobia (1)	
• Adults: Efficacy was established in two 12-week trials (14.4)	

DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION	
• Use another fluoxetine product for initial doses of 10 mg/day to 20 mg/day or for doses other than 30 mg or 60 mg:	

Indication	Adult	Pediatric
MDD (2.1)	20 mg/day in morning (initial dose) 80 mg/day (target dose)	10 mg/day to 20 mg/day (initial dose)* *This product has not been studied in doses greater than 20 mg/day in pediatric MDD.
	20 mg/day in morning (initial dose) 20 to 60 mg/day (target dose)	10 mg/day (initial dose) 10 mg/day to 60 mg/day (target dose)
OCD (2.2)	20 mg/day in morning (initial dose) 20 to 60 mg/day (target dose)	10 mg/day (initial dose) 10 mg/day to 60 mg/day (target dose)
Bulimia Nervosa (2.3)	60 mg/day in morning	--
Panic Disorder (2.4)	10 mg/day (initial dose) 20 mg/day (target dose) 60 mg/day (maximum dose studied)	--

- No additional benefits seen at higher doses above 20 mg/day in MDD (2.1, 14.1)
- Use a lower or less frequent dosage in patients with hepatic impairment, the elderly, and for patients with concurrent disease or on multiple concomitant medications (2.5, 6.6)

DOSAGE FORMS AND STRENGTHS	
• Tablets: 60 mg, functionally scored (3)	

CONTRAINDICATIONS	
• Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors (MAOIs): Do not use MAOIs intended to treat psychiatric disorders with fluoxetine or within 5 weeks of stopping treatment with fluoxetine. Do not use fluoxetine within 14 days of stopping an MAOI intended to treat psychiatric disorders. In addition, do not start fluoxetine in a patient who is being treated with linezolid or intravenous	

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ulcer, esophageal ulcer, gastrointestinal hemorrhage, hematemesis, hepatitis, peptic ulcer, stomach ulcer hemorrhage.

**Hemic and Lymphatic System**—*Infectious*: ecchymosis; *Rare*: petechia, purpura.

**Nervous System**—*Frequent*: emotional lability; *Frequent/Acute*: akathisia, ataxia, balance disorder<sup>1</sup>, bruxism<sup>1</sup>, buccoglossal syndrome, depersonalization, euphoria, hypertonia, libido increased, myoclonus, paranoid reaction; *Rare*: delusions.

**Respiratory System**—*Rare*: larynx edema.

**Skin and Appendages**—*Infectious/alopecia*; *Rare*: purpuric rash.

**Special Senses**—*Frequent*: taste perversion; *Infectious*: mydriasis.

**Urogenital System**—*Frequent*: micturition disorder; *Infectious*: dysuria, gynecological bleeding<sup>2</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> MedDRA dictionary term from integrated database of placebo controlled trials of 15,870 patients, of which 9,673 patients received fluoxetine.

<sup>2</sup> Group term that includes individual MedDRA terms: cervix hemorrhage uterine, dysfunctional uterine bleeding, genital hemorrhage, menometrorrhagia, menorrhagia, metrorrhagia, polymenorrhea, postmenopausal hemorrhage, uterine hemorrhage, vaginal hemorrhage. Adjusted for gender.

## 6.2 Postmarketing Experience

The following adverse reactions have been identified during postapproval use of fluoxetine. Because these reactions are reported voluntarily from a population of uncertain size, it is difficult to reliably estimate their frequency or evaluate a causal relationship to drug exposure.

Voluntary reports of adverse reactions temporally associated with fluoxetine that have been received since market introduction and that may have no causal relationship with the drug include the following: anorexia, agitation, anxiety, atrial fibrillation<sup>1</sup>, ataxia<sup>1</sup>, cerebrovascular accident<sup>1</sup>, cholestatic jaundice, drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) dyskinesia (including, for example, a case of buccal-lingual-masticatory syndrome with involuntary tongue protrusion reported to develop in a 77-year-old female after 5 weeks of fluoxetine therapy and which completely resolved over the next few months following drug discontinuation), eosinophilic pneumonia<sup>1</sup>, epidermal necrolysis, erythema multiforme, erythema nodosum, exfoliative dermatitis, galactorrhea, gynecostoma, heart arrest<sup>1</sup>, hepatic failure/necrosis, hyperprolactinemia, hypoglycemia, hypomania, immune-related hemolytic anemia, immune-related hemolytic anemia, kidney failure, memory impairment, mood disorders developing in patients with risk factors including drugs associated with such reactions and worsening of pre-existing mood disorders, myoclonus, nystagmus, pancytopenia, pulmonary embolism, pulmonary hypertension, QT prolongation, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, thrombocytopenia<sup>1</sup>, thrombocytopenic purpura, ventricular tachycardia (including Torsades de Pointes–type arrhythmias), vaginal bleeding, and violent behaviors<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> These terms represent serious adverse events, but do not meet the definition for adverse drug reactions. They are included here because of their seriousness.

## 7 DRUG INTERACTIONS

As with all drugs, the potential for interaction by a variety of mechanisms (e.g., pharmacodynamic, pharmacokinetic drug inhibition or enhancement, etc.) is a possibility.

### 7.1 Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors (MAOIs)

**See Dosage and Administration (2.6, 2.7), Contraindications (4.1), and Warnings and Precautions (5.2).**

### 7.2 CNS-Acting Drugs

Caution is advised if the concomitant administration of fluoxetine and such drugs is required. In evaluating individual cases, consideration should be given to using lower initial doses of the concomitantly administered drugs, using conservative titration schedules, and monitoring of clinical status [see *Clinical Pharmacology* (12.3)].

### 7.3 Other Serotonergic Drugs

The concomitant use of serotonergic drugs (including other SSRIs, SNRIs, triptans, tricyclic antidepressants, opioids, lithium, buspirone, amphetamines, tyryptophan, and St. John's Wort) with fluoxetine increases the risk of serotonin syndrome. Monitor patients for signs and symptoms of serotonin syndrome, particularly during treatment initiation and dosage increases. If serotonin syndrome occurs, consider discontinuation of fluoxetine and/or concomitant serotonergic drugs [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2)*].

**7.4 Drugs that Interfere with Hemostasis (e.g., NSAIDs, Aspirin, Warfarin)**  
Serotonin release by platelets plays an important role in hemostasis. Epidemiological studies of the case-control and cohort design that have demonstrated an association between use of psychotropic drugs that interfere with serotonin reuptake and the occurrence of upper gastrointestinal bleeding have also indicated that concurrent use of an NSAID or aspirin may potentiate this risk of bleeding. Concurrent use of these agents with fluoxetine has been reported when SNRIs or SSRIs are coadministered with warfarin. Patients receiving warfarin therapy should be carefully monitored when fluoxetine is initiated or discontinued [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.7)*].

### 7.5 Potential for Other Drugs to Affect Fluoxetine

Drugs tightly bound to plasma proteins: Because fluoxetine is tightly bound to plasma proteins, adverse effects may result from displacement of protein-bound fluoxetine by other tightly-bound drugs [see *Clinical Pharmacology* (12.3)].

### 7.6 Potential for Fluoxetine to Affect Other Drugs

**Pimozide**—Concomitant use in patients taking pimozide is contraindicated. Pimozide can prolong the QT interval. Fluoxetine can increase the level of pimozide through inhibition of CYP2D6. Fluoxetine can also prolong the QT interval. Clinical studies of pimozide with other antidepressants demonstrate an increase in drug interaction or QT prolongation. While a specific study with pimozide and fluoxetine has not been conducted, the potential for drug interactions or QT prolongation warrants restricting the concurrent use of pimozide and fluoxetine [see *Contraindications (4.2), Warnings and Precautions (5.11), and Drug Interactions (7.7)*].

**Thioridazine**—Thioridazine should not be administered with fluoxetine or within a minimum of 5 weeks after fluoxetine has been discontinued, because of the risk of QT prolongation [see *Contraindications (4.2), Warnings and Precautions (5.11), and Drug Interactions (7.7)*].

In a study of 19 healthy male subjects, which included a 6-week and 13 rapid hydroxylators of debrisoquin, a single 25-mg oral dose of thioridazine increased the area under the curve (AUC) for thioridazine by 45% in slow hydroxylators compared with the rapid hydroxylators. The rate of debrisoquin hydroxylation is felt to depend on the level of CYP2D6 isozyme activity. Thus, this study suggests that drugs which inhibit CYP2D6, such as certain SSRIs, including fluoxetine, will produce elevated plasma levels of thioridazine.

Thioridazine administration with fluoxetine demonstrated an increase in the QT interval, which is associated with serious ventricular arrhythmias, such as Torsades de Pointes–type arrhythmias, and sudden death. This risk is expected to increase with fluoxetine-induced inhibition of thioridazine metabolism.

**Drugs metabolized by CYP2D6**—Fluoxetine inhibits the activity of CYP2D6, and may make individuals with normal CYP2D6 metabolic activity resemble a poor metabolizer. Co-administration of fluoxetine with other drugs that are metabolized by CYP2D6, including certain antidepressants (e.g., TCAs), antipsychotics (e.g., phenothiazines and most atypicals), and antiarrhythmics (e.g., propafenone, flecainide, and others) should be approached with caution. Therapy with medications that are predominantly metabolized by the CYP2D6 system and that have a relatively narrow therapeutic index (see list below) should be initiated at a lower dose and/or require closer monitoring. The following are examples of drugs that are metabolized in 5 weeks. Thus, his/her dosing requirements resemble those of poor metabolizers. If fluoxetine is added to the treatment regimen of a patient already receiving a drug metabolized by CYP2D6, the need for decreased dose of the original medication should be considered. Drugs with a narrow therapeutic index represent the greatest concern (e.g., flecainide, propafenone, vinbistine, and TCAs). Due to the risk of serious ventricular arrhythmias and sudden death potentially associated with elevated plasma levels of thioridazine, thioridazine should not be administered with fluoxetine or within a minimum of 5 weeks after fluoxetine has been discontinued [see *Contraindications (4.2)*].

**Tricyclic Antidepressants (TCAs)**—In 2 studies, previously stable plasma levels of imipramine and desipramine have increased greater than 2- to 10-fold when fluoxetine has been administered for 3 weeks. This increase may persist for 3 weeks longer after fluoxetine is discontinued. Thus, the dose of TCAs may need to be reduced and plasma TCA concentrations may need to be monitored temporarily when fluoxetine is co-administered or has been recently discontinued [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2) and Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*].

**Benzodiazepines**—The half-life of concurrently administered diazepam may be prolonged in some patients [see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*]. Co-administration of alprazolam and fluoxetine has resulted in increased alprazolam plasma concentrations and in further psychomotor performance decrement due to increased alprazolam levels.

**Antipsychotics**—Some clinical data suggests a possible pharmacodynamic and/or pharmacokinetic interaction between SSRIs and antipsychotics. Elevation of blood levels of haloperidol and clozapine has been observed in patients receiving concomitant fluoxetine.

**Anticoagulants**—Patients on stable doses of phenytoin and carbamazepine have developed elevated plasma anticoagulant concentrations and clinical anticoagulant toxicity following initiation of concomitant fluoxetine treatment.

**Lithium**—There have been reports of both increased and decreased lithium levels when lithium was used concomitantly with fluoxetine. Cases of lithium toxicity and decreased serotonergic effects have been reported. Lithium levels should be monitored when these drugs are administered concomitantly [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2)*].

**Drugs tightly bound to plasma proteins**—Because fluoxetine is tightly bound to plasma proteins, the administration of fluoxetine to a patient taking another drug that is tightly bound to protein (e.g., coumadin, digoxin) may cause a shift in plasma concentrations potentially affecting an adversely [see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*].

**Drugs Metabolized by CYP3A4**—In *in vitro* interaction study involving co-administration of fluoxetine with single doses of terfenadine (a CYP3A4 substrate), no increase in plasma terfenadine concentrations occurred with concomitant fluoxetine. Additionally, *in vitro* studies have shown ketonecazole, a potent inhibitor of CYP3A4 activity, to be at least 100 times more potent than fluoxetine or norfluoxetine as an inhibitor of the metabolism of several substrates for this enzyme, including astemizole, cisapride, and midazolam. These data indicate that fluoxetine's extent of inhibition of CYP3A4 activity is not likely to be of clinical significance.

**Olanzapine**—Fluoxetine (60-mg single dose or 60-mg daily dose for 8 days) causes a small (mean 16%) increase in the maximum concentration of olanzapine and a small (mean 16%) decrease in olanzapine clearance. The magnitude of the impact of this factor is small in comparison to the overall variability between individuals, and therefore dose modification is not routinely recommended.

### 7.7 Drugs that Prolong the QT Interval

Do not use fluoxetine in combination with thioridazine or pimozide. Use fluoxetine with caution in combination with other drugs that cause QT prolongation. These include: specific antipsychotics (e.g., ziprasidone, iloperidone, chlorpromazine, levomepromazine, piperidone), specific antiarrhythmics (e.g., erythromycin, gatifloxacin, moxifloxacin, sparfloxacin); Class II antiarrhythmic medications (e.g., quinidine, procainamide); Class III antiarrhythmics (e.g., amiodarone, sotalol); and others (e.g., pentamidine, mesoridazine acetate, methadone, halofantrine, mefloquine, olodateron mesylate, procabrol or tacrolimus). Fluoxetine is primarily metabolized by CYP2D6. Concomitant treatment with CYP2D6 inhibitors can increase the concentration of fluoxetine. Concomitant use of other tightly protein-bound drugs can increase the concentration of fluoxetine [see *Contraindications (4.2), Warnings and Precautions (5.11), Drug Interactions (7.6), and Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*].

## 8 USE IN SPECIFIC POPULATIONS

### 8.1 Pregnancy

**Pregnancy Exposure Registry.**

There is a pregnancy exposure registry that monitors pregnancy outcomes in women exposed to antidepressants during pregnancy. Healthcare providers are encouraged to register patients by calling the National Pregnancy Registry for Antidepressants at 1-866-961-2388 or visiting online at <https://www.momenshealth.com/en/research/pregnancyregistry/antidepressants/>.

### Risk Summary

Based on data from published observational studies, exposure to SSRIs, particularly in the month before delivery, has been associated with a less than 2-fold increase in the risk of postpartum hemorrhage [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.7) and Clinical Considerations*].

Available data from published epidemiologic studies and postmarketing reports over several decades have not established an increased risk of major birth defects or miscarriage. Some studies have reported an increased incidence of cardiovascular malformations; however, these studies results do not establish a causal relationship [see *Data*]. There are risks associated with untreated depression in pregnancy and risks of persistent pulmonary hypertension of the newborn (PPHN) [see *Data*] and poor neonatal adaptation with exposure to selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), including Fluoxetine Tablets, during pregnancy [see *Clinical Considerations*].

In rats and rabbits treated with fluoxetine during the period of organogenesis, there was no evidence of developmental effects at doses up to 1.6 times and 3.9 times, respectively, the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) of 60 mg on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis. However, in other reproductive studies in rats, an increase in stillborn pups, a decrease in pup weight, and an increase in pup deaths early after birth occurred at doses that are 1.5 times (during gestation) and 0.97 times (during gestation and lactation) the MRHD given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis.

The estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated population is unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the US general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2% to 4% and 15% to 20%, respectively. **Clinical Considerations.**

#### Disease-Associated Maternal and/or Embryo/Fetal Risk

Women who continue antidepressants during pregnancy are more likely to experience a relapse of major depression than women who discontinue antidepressants. This finding is from a prospective, longitudinal study that followed 201 pregnant women with a history of major depressive disorder who were euthymic and taking antidepressants at the beginning of pregnancy. Consider the risk of untreated depression when discontinuing or changing treatment with antidepressant medication during pregnancy and postpartum.

#### Maternal Adverse Reactions

Use of Fluoxetine Tablets in the month before delivery may be associated with an increased risk of postpartum hemorrhage [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.7)*].

#### Fetal/Neonatal Adverse Reactions

Neonates exposed to Fluoxetine Tablets and other SSRIs or SNRIs late in the third trimester have developed complications requiring prolonged hospitalization, respiratory support, and tube feeding. Such complications can arise immediately upon delivery. Reported clinical findings have included respiratory distress, cyanosis, apnea, seizures, temperature instability, feeding difficulty, vomiting, hypoglycemia, hypotension, hypothermia, hyperreflexia, jitteriness, irritability, and constant crying. These findings are consistent with either a direct toxic effect of SSRIs and SNRIs or possibly a drug discontinuation syndrome. It should be noted that, in some cases, the clinical picture is consistent with serotonin syndrome [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2)*].

#### Data

##### Human Data

It has been shown that SSRIs (including fluoxetine) can cross the placenta. Published epidemiological studies of pregnant women exposed to fluoxetine have not established an increased risk of major birth defects, miscarriage, and other adverse developmental outcomes. Several populations reported an increased incidence of cardiovascular malformations in children with *in utero* exposure to fluoxetine. However, these studies results do not establish a causal relationship. Methodologic limitations of these observational studies include possible exposure and outcome misclassification, lack of adequate controls, adjustment for confounders and confirmatory studies. However, these studies cannot definitively establish or exclude any drug-associated risk during pregnancy.

Exposure to SSRIs, particularly later in pregnancy, may have an increased risk for PPHN. PPHN occurs in 1 to 2 per 1000 live births in the general population and is associated with substantial neonatal morbidity and mortality.

##### Animal data

In embryofetal development studies in rats and rabbits, there was no evidence of malformations or developmental variations following administration of fluoxetine at doses up to 12.5 and 15 mg/kg/day, respectively (1.6 and 3.9 times, respectively, the MRHD of 60 mg given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis) throughout organogenesis. However, in rat reproduction studies, an increase in stillborn pups, a decrease in pup weight, and an increase in pup deaths during the first 7 days postpartum occurred

following maternal exposure to 12 mg/kg/day (1.5 times the MRHD given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis) during gestation or 7.5 mg/kg/day (0.97 times the MRHD given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis) during gestation and lactation. There was no evidence of malformations or developmental variations following offspring exposure to 12 mg/kg/day during gestation. The no-effect dose for rat pup mortality was 5 mg/kg/day (0.65 times the MRHD given to adolescents on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis).

## 8.2 Lactation

### Risk Summary

Data from published literature report the presence of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine in human milk [see *Data*]. There are reports of agitation, irritability, poor feeding, and weight gain in infants exposed to fluoxetine through breast milk [see *Clinical Considerations*]. There are no data on the effect of fluoxetine or its metabolites on milk production. The developmental and health benefits of breastfeeding should be considered along with the mother's clinical need for Fluoxetine Tablets and any potential adverse effects on the breastfed child from Fluoxetine Tablets or the underlying maternal condition.

### Clinical Considerations

Infants exposed to Fluoxetine Tablets should be monitored for agitation, irritability, poor feeding, and poor weight gain.

### Data

A study of 19 nursing mothers on fluoxetine with daily doses of 10 mg to 60 mg showed that fluoxetine was detectable in 30% of nursing infant sera (range: 1 to 84 ng/mL) whereas norfluoxetine was found in 85% (range: <1 to 265 ng/mL).

### 8.4 Pediatric Use

Use of fluoxetine in children-The efficacy of fluoxetine for the treatment of MDD was demonstrated in two 8- to 9-week placebo-controlled clinical trials with 315 pediatric outpatients ages 8 to 18 [see *Clinical Studies (14.1)*].

The efficacy of fluoxetine for the treatment of OCD was demonstrated in one 13-week placebo-controlled clinical trial with 103 pediatric outpatients ages 7 to < 18 [see *Clinical Studies (14.2)*]. The safety and effectiveness in pediatric patients < 8 years of age in MDD and < 7 years of age in OCD have not been established.

Fluoxetine pharmacokinetics were evaluated in 21 pediatric patients (ages 6 to < 18) with MDD or OCD [see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*].

The acute adverse reaction profiles observed in the 3 studies (N=418 randomized; 228 fluoxetine-treated, 190 placebo-treated) patients and in the 190 (8%) placebo-treated patients who were included in the discontinuation study (N=418) were similar to those observed in the 19-week MDD study (N=219 randomized, 109 fluoxetine-treated, 110 placebo-treated) was also similar to that observed in adult trials with fluoxetine [see *Adverse Reactions (6.1)*].

Manic reaction, including mania and hypomania, was reported in 6 (1 mania, 5 hypomania) out of 228 (26%) fluoxetine-treated patients and in 1 of 190 (0.6%) placebo-treated patients. The manic reactions were characterized by changes in mood and affect, elevated or irritable mood, decreased need for sleep, increased goal-directed activity, and decreased inhibition. Consequently, regular monitoring for the occurrence of mania/hypomania is recommended.

As with other SSRIs, decreased weight gain has been observed in association with the use of fluoxetine in children and adolescent patients. After 9 weeks of treatment in a clinical trial, pediatric subjects treated with fluoxetine gained an average weight of 1.1 cm less in height and 1.1 kg less in weight than subjects treated with placebo. In addition, fluoxetine treatment was associated with a decrease in alkaline phosphatase levels. The safety of fluoxetine treatment for pediatric patients has not been systematically assessed for chronic treatment longer than several months in duration. In particular, there are no studies that directly assess the longer-term effects of fluoxetine on the growth, development, and maturation of children and adolescent patients. Therefore, height and weight should be monitored periodically in pediatric patients receiving fluoxetine. [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.6)*].

Fluoxetine is approved for use in pediatric patients with MDD and OCD [see *Boxed Warning and Warnings and Precautions (5.1)*]. Anyone considering the use of fluoxetine in a child or adolescent must balance the potential risks with the clinical need. **Juvenile Animal Toxicity Data**—Significant toxicity on multiple tissues, neurobehavior, reproductive organs, and bone development have been observed following exposure of juvenile rats to fluoxetine from weaning through maturity. Oral administration of fluoxetine to rats from weaning postnatal day 21 through adulthood day 90 at 3 mg/kg/day, 10 mg/kg/day, or 30 mg/kg/day was associated with skeletal degeneration and necrosis, epididymal vacuolization, and hyperplasia (at 30 mg/kg/day corresponding to plasma exposures [AUC] approximately 5 to 10 times the average AUC in pediatric patients at the MRHD of 20 mg/day); increased serum levels of creatine kinase (at AUC as low as 1 to 2 to 2 times the average AUC in pediatric patients at the MRHD of 20 mg/day); skeletal muscle degeneration and necrosis; decreased femur length/growth; and body weight gain (at AUC 5 to 10 times the average AUC in pediatric patients at the MRHD of 20 mg/day). The high dose of 30 mg/kg/day exceeded the maximum tolerated dose. When animals were evaluated after a drug-free interval (up to 11 weeks after cessation of dosing), fluoxetine was associated with neurobehavioral abnormalities (decreased reactivity at AUC as low as approximately 0.1 to 0.2 times the average AUC in pediatric patients at the MRHD and learning deficit at the high dose) and reproductive functional impairment (decreased mating at all doses and impaired fertility at the high dose). In addition, the testicular and epididymal microscopic lesions and decreased sperm concentrations found in the high dose group were also observed, indicating that the drug effects on reproductive organs are irreversible. The reversibility of fluoxetine-induced muscle damage was not assessed.

These fluoxetine toxicities in juvenile rats have not been observed in adult animals. Plasma exposures (AUC) to fluoxetine in juvenile rats receiving 3 mg/kg/day, 10 mg/kg/day, or 30 mg/kg/day doses in this study are approximately 0.1 to 0.2, 1 to 2, and 5 to 10 times, respectively, the average plasma exposure in pediatric patients receiving the MRHD of 20 mg/day. In addition, fluoxetine was associated with neurobehavioral abnormalities (decreased reactivity at AUC as low as approximately 0.1 to 0.2 times the average AUC in pediatric patients at the MRHD and learning deficit at the high dose) and reproductive functional impairment (decreased mating at all doses and impaired fertility at the high dose). In addition, the testicular and epididymal microscopic lesions and decreased sperm concentrations found in the high dose group were also observed, indicating that the drug effects on reproductive organs are irreversible. The reversibility of fluoxetine-induced muscle damage was not assessed. This study was conducted in juvenile rats but has not been observed in adult animals. Plasma exposures (AUC) to fluoxetine in juvenile rats receiving 3 mg/kg/day, 10 mg/kg/day, or 30 mg/kg/day doses in this study are approximately 0.1 to 0.2, 1 to 2, and 5 to 10 times, respectively, the average plasma exposure in pediatric patients receiving the MRHD of 20 mg/day. In addition, fluoxetine was associated with neurobehavioral abnormalities (decreased reactivity at AUC as low as approximately 0.3 to 0.8, 1 to 8, and 3 to 20 times, respectively, the pediatric exposure at the MRHD).

A specific effect on bone development was reported in juvenile mice administered fluoxetine by the intraperitoneal route to 4-week-old mice for 4 weeks at doses of either oral MRHD of 20 mg/day or mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis. There was a decrease in bone mineralization and density at both doses, but the overall growth (body weight gain or femur length) was not affected.

### 8.5 Geriatric Use

US fluoxetine clinical trials included 687 patients  $\geq$  65 years of age and 93 patients  $\geq$  75 years of age. The efficacy in geriatric patients has been established [see *Clinical Studies (14.1)*]. For pharmacokinetic studies in geriatric patients, [see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*]. No overall differences in safety or effectiveness were observed between these subjects and younger subjects, and other reported clinical experience has not identified differences in responses between the elderly and younger patients, but greater sensitivity of some older individuals cannot be ruled out. SNRIs and SSRIs, including fluoxetine, have been associated with cases of clinically significant hyponatremia in elderly patients, who may be at greater risk for this adverse reaction [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.9)*].

### 8.6 Hepatic Impairment

In subjects with cirrhosis of the liver, the clearances of fluoxetine and its active metabolite, norfluoxetine, were decreased, thus increasing the elimination half-lives of these substances. A lower or less frequent dose of norfluoxetine should be used in patients with cirrhosis. Caution is advised when using fluoxetine in patients with hepatic diseases or conditions that could affect its metabolism [see *Dosage and Administration (2.5) and Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*].

### 9 DRUG ABUSE AND DEPENDENCE

#### 9.3 Dependence

Fluoxetine has not been systematically studied, in animals or humans, for its potential for abuse, tolerance, or physical dependence. While the premarketing clinical experience with fluoxetine did not reveal any tendency for a withdrawal syndrome or any drug seeking behavior, these observations were not systematic and it is not possible to predict on the basis of this limited experience the extent to which a CNS active drug will be misused, diverted, and/or abused once marketed. Consequently, physicians should carefully evaluate patients for history of drug abuse and follow such patients carefully, observing them for signs of misuse or abuse of fluoxetine (e.g., development of tolerance, incrementation of dose, drug-seeking behavior).

#### 10 OVERDOSAGE

The following have been reported with fluoxetine tablet overdose:

- Seizures, which may be delayed, and altered mental status including coma.
- Cardiovascular toxicity, which may be delayed, including QRS and QTc interval prolongation, wide complex tachyarrhythmias, torsade de pointes, and cardiac arrest. Hypertension most commonly seen, but rarely can see hypotension alone and with co-ingestants including alcohol.
- Serotonin syndrome (patients with a multiple drug overdose with other pro serotonergic drugs may have a higher risk).

Gastrointestinal decontamination with activated charcoal should be considered in patients who present early after a fluoxetine overdose.

Consider contacting a Poison Center (1-800-221-2222) or a medical toxicologist for additional overdose management recommendations.

#### 11 DESCRIPTION

Fluoxetine hydrochloride is a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor for oral administration. It is designated (S)-N-methyl-3-phenyl-3-(1-(4-chlorophenyl)-piperidinyl)propylamine hydrochloride and has the empirical formula of C<sub>19</sub>H<sub>17</sub>F<sub>3</sub>NH<sub>2</sub>Cl. Its molecular weight is 345.78. The structural formula is:



Fluoxetine hydrochloride, USP is a white to off-white crystalline powder with a solubility of 14 mg/mL in water.

Each scored tablet contains fluoxetine hydrochloride equivalent to 60 mg (194  $\mu$ mol) of fluoxetine. In addition, each scored tablet also contains the following inactive ingredients: microcrystalline cellulose, corn starch (maize), povidone, mannitol, croscarmellose sodium, erythromycin, gatifloxacin, moxifloxacin, sparfloxacin; Class II antiarrhythmic medications (e.g., quinidine, procainamide); and the TCAs. Such individuals are referred to as "poor metabolizers" of drugs such as desibrisquin, dextromethorphan, and the TCAs. In a study involving labeled and unlabeled enantiomers administered as a racemate, these individuals metabolized S-fluoxetine at a slower rate and thus achieved higher concentrations of S-fluoxetine. Consequently, concentrations of S-fluoxetine at steady state were lower. The metabolites of S-fluoxetine in these poor metabolizers were normal. When compared with normal metabolizers, the total sum at steady state of the plasma concentrations of the 4 active enantiomers was not significantly greater among poor metabolizers. Thus, the net pharmacodynamic activities were essentially the same. Alternative, nonstable pathways (non-2D6) also contribute to the metabolism of fluoxetine. This explains how fluoxetine achieves a steady-state concentration rather than increasing without limit.

Because fluoxetine's metabolism, like that of a number of other compounds including TCAs and other SSRIs, involves the CYP2D6 system, concomitant therapy with drugs also metabolized by this enzyme system (such as the TCAs) may lead to drug interactions [see *Drug Interactions (7.6)*].

**Accumulation and Slow Elimination**—The relatively slow elimination of fluoxetine (elimination half-life of 1 to 3 days after acute administration and 4 to 6 days after chronic administration) and its active metabolite, norfluoxetine (elimination half-life of 16 to 16 days after acute and chronic administration), leads to significant accumulation of these active species in chronic use and delayed attainment of steady state, even when a fixed dose is used [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.14)*]. After 30 days of dosing at 40 mg/day, plasma concentrations of fluoxetine in the range of 91 ng/mL to 302 ng/mL and norfluoxetine in the range of 72 ng/mL to 253 ng/mL have been observed. Plasma concentrations of fluoxetine are higher than those predicted by single-dose studies, because fluoxetine's metabolism is not proportional to dose. Norfluoxetine, however, appears to have linear pharmacokinetics. Its mean terminal half-life after a single dose was 8.6 days and after multiple dosing was 9.3 days.

Steady-state levels after prolonged dosing are similar to levels seen at 4 to 5 weeks.

The long elimination half-lives of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine assure that, even when dosing is stopped, active drug substance will persist in the body for weeks (primarily depending on individual patient characteristics, previous dosing regimen, and length of previous therapy at discontinuation). This is of potential consequence when drug discontinuation is required or when drugs are prescribed that might interact with fluoxetine and norfluoxetine following the discontinuation of fluoxetine.

**Liver Disease**—As might be predicted from its primary site of metabolism, liver impairment can affect the elimination of fluoxetine. The elimination half-life of fluoxetine was prolonged in a study of cirrhotic patients, with a mean of 7.6 days compared with the range of 2 to 3 days seen in subjects without liver disease; norfluoxetine elimination was also delayed, with a mean duration of 12 days for cirrhotic patients compared with the range of 7 to 9 days in normal subjects. This suggests that the use of fluoxetine in patients with liver disease must be approached with caution. If fluoxetine is administered to patients with liver disease, a lower or less frequent dose should be used [see *Dosage and Administration (2.5) and Use in Specific Populations (6.6)*].

**Renal Disease**—In depressed patients on dialysis (N=12), fluoxetine administered as 20 mg once daily for 2 months produced steady-state fluoxetine and norfluoxetine plasma concentrations comparable with those seen in patients with normal renal function. While the possibility exists that renally excreted metabolites and these agents have been associated with severe renal dysfunction, use of a lower or less frequent dose is not routinely necessary in renally impaired patients.

**Geriatric pharmacokinetics**—The disposition of single doses of fluoxetine in healthy elderly subjects (> 65 years of age) did

not differ significantly from that in younger normal subjects. However, given the long half-life and nonlinear disposition of the drug, a single-dose study is not adequate to rule out the possibility of altered pharmacokinetics in the elderly, particularly if they have systemic illness or are receiving multiple drugs for concomitant diseases. The effects of age upon the metabolism of fluoxetine have been investigated in 260 elderly but otherwise healthy depressed patients (60 years of age) who received 20 mg fluoxetine for 6 weeks. Combined fluoxetine plus norfluoxetine plasma concentrations were 209.3 ng/mL  $\pm$  85.7 ng/mL at the end of 6 weeks. No unusual age-associated pattern of adverse reactions was observed in those elderly patients.

**Pediatric pharmacokinetics (children and adolescents)**—Fluoxetine pharmacokinetics were evaluated in 21 pediatric patients (40 children ages 6 to < 13, 11 adolescents ages 13 to < 18) diagnosed with MDD or OCD. Fluoxetine 20 mg/day was administered for up to 62 days. The average steady-state concentrations of fluoxetine in these children were 2-fold higher than in adolescents (171 ng/mL and 86 ng/mL, respectively). The average norfluoxetine steady-state concentrations in these children were 1.5-fold higher than in adolescents (195 ng/mL and 113 ng/mL, respectively). These differences can be almost entirely explained by differences in weight. No gender-associated difference in fluoxetine pharmacokinetics was observed. Similar ranges of fluoxetine and norfluoxetine plasma concentrations were observed in another study in 94 pediatric patients (ages 8 to < 18) diagnosed with MDD. Higher average steady-state fluoxetine and norfluoxetine concentrations were observed in children relative to adults; however, these concentrations were in the same range as concentrations observed in the adult population. As in adults, fluoxetine and norfluoxetine accumulated extensively following multiple oral dosing; steady-state concentrations were achieved within 3 to 4 weeks of daily dosing.

## 13 NONCLINICAL TOXICOLOGY

### 13.1 Carcinogenesis, Mutagenesis, Impairment of Fertility

**Carcinogenesis**—The dietary administration of fluoxetine to rats and mice for 2 years at doses of up to 10 mg/kg/day and 12 mg/kg/day, respectively (approximately 1.2 and 0.7 times, respectively, the MRHD of 60 mg on a mg/m<sup>2</sup> basis), produced no evidence of carcinogenicity.