## **Summary of Product Characteristics for Pharmaceutical Products**

# 1. Name of the medicinal product:

Clarithromycin Tablets USP 500 mg

## 2. Qualitative and quantitative composition

Each film-coated tablet contains 500 mg of clarithromycin

Excipients with known effect

Maize Starch Lactose

For a full list of excipients, see section 6.1.

#### 3. Pharmaceutical form

Film coated tablets

White color, capsule shape, film coated tablets break line on one side and plain on other side

## 4. Clinical particulars

## 4.1 Therapeutic indications

Consideration should be given to official guidance on the appropriate use of antibacterial agents.

Clarithromycin film-coated tablets are indicated in adults and children 12 years and older.

Clarithromycin is indicated for treatment of infections caused by susceptible organisms. Indications include:

Lower respiratory tract infections for example, acute and chronic bronchitis, and pneumonia (see sections 4.4 and 5.1 regarding Sensitivity Testing).

Upper respiratory tract infections for example, sinusitis and pharyngitis.

Clarithromycin is appropriate for initial therapy in community acquired respiratory infections and has been shown to be active *in vitro* against common and atypical respiratory pathogens as listed in the microbiology section.

Clarithromycin is also indicated in skin and soft tissue infections of mild to moderate severity (e.g. folliculitis, cellulitis, erysipelas) (see sections 4.4 and 5.1 regarding Sensitivity Testing).

Clarithromycin in the presence of acid suppression effected by omeprazole or lansoprazole is also indicated for the eradication of *H. pylori* in patients with duodenal ulcers. See Dosage and Administration section.

Clarithromycin is usually active against the following organisms in vitro:

Gram-positive Bacteria: *Staphylococcus aureus* (methicillin susceptible); *Streptococcus pyogenes* (Group A beta-haemolytic streptococci); alpha-haemolytic streptococci (viridans group); *Streptococcus (Diplococcus) pneumoniae*; *Streptococcus agalactiae*; *Listeria monocytogenes*.

Gram-negative Bacteria: Haemophilus influenzae; Haemophilus parainfluenzae; Moraxella (Branhamella) catarrhalis; Neisseria gonorrhoeae; Legionella pneumophila; Bordetella pertussis; Helicobacter pylori; Campylobacter jejuni.

Mycoplasma: Mycoplasma pneumoniae; Ureaplasma urealyticum.

Other Organisms: *Chlamydia trachomatis; Mycobacterium avium; Mycobacterium leprae.* 

Anaerobes: Macrolide-susceptible Bacteroides fragilis; Clostridium perfringens; Peptococcus species; Peptostreptococcus species; Propionibacterium acnes.

Clarithromycin has bactericidal activity against several bacterial strains. The organisms include *Haemophilus influenzae; Streptococcus pneumoniae;* Streptococcus pyogenes; Streptococcus agalactiae; Moraxella (Branhamella) catarrhalis; Neisseria gonorrhoeae; H. pylori and Campylobacter spp.

The activity of clarithromycin against *H. pylori* is greater at neutral pH than at acid pH.

## 4.2 Posology and method of administration

#### Posology

The dosage of Clarithromycin film-coated tablets depends on the type and severity of the infection and has to be defined in any case by the physician.

Patients with respiratory tract/skin and soft tissue infections. Adults: The usual dose is 250 mg twice daily although this may be increased to 500mg twice daily in severe infections. The usual duration of treatment is 6 to 14 days.

Children older than 12 years: As for adults.

# Children younger than 12 years:

Use of Clarithromycin film-coated tablets is not recommended for children younger than 12 years. Clinical trials have been conducted using clarithromycin paediatric suspension in children 6 months to 12 years of age. Therefore, children under 12 years of age should use clarithromycin paediatric suspension.

Clarithromycin may be given without regard to meals as food does not affect the extent of bioavailability.

Eradication of *H. pylori* in patients with duodenal ulcers (Adults)

The usual duration of treatment is 6 to 14 days.

Triple Therapy

Clarithromycin (500mg) twice daily and lansoprazole 30mg twice daily should be given with amoxicillin 1000mg twice daily.

Triple Therapy

Clarithromycin (500mg) twice daily and lansoprazole 30mg twice daily should be given with metronidazole 400mg twice daily.

Triple Therapy

Clarithromycin (500mg) twice daily and omeprazole 40mg daily should be given with amoxycillin 1000mg twice daily or metronidazole 400mg twice daily.

Triple Therapy

Clarithromycin (500mg) twice daily and omeprazole 20mg daily should be given with amoxycillin 1000mg twice daily.

Elderly: As for adults.

Renal impairment:

In patients with renal impairment with creatinine clearance less than 30 mL/min, the dosage of clarithromycin should be reduced by one-half, i.e., 250 mg once daily, or 250 mg twice daily in more severe infections. Treatment should not be continued beyond 14 days in these patients. Renal impairment:

In patients with renal impairment with creatinine clearance less than 30 mL/min, the dosage of clarithromycin should be reduced by one-half, i.e., 250 mg once daily, or 250 mg twice daily in more severe infections. Treatment should not be continued beyond 14 days in these patients.

Method of administration

The tablet should be swallowed whole with a sufficient amount of fluid (eg. one glass of water) with or without food.

#### 4.3 Contraindications

Clarithromycin is contraindicated in patients with known hypersensitivity to the active substance clarithromycin, to other macrolide antibiotic drugs or to any of the excipients listed in section 6.1.

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and ergot alkaloids (e.g., ergotamine or dihydroergotamine) is contraindicated, as this may result in ergot toxicity (see sections 4.4 and 4.5).

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and oral midazolam is contraindicated (see section 4.5).

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and lomitapide is contraindicated (see section 4.5).

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and any of the following drugs is contraindicated: astemizole, cisapride, domperidone, pimozide and terfenadine as this may result in QT prolongation and cardiac arrhythmias, including ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation and torsades de pointes (see section 4.5).

Clarithromycin should not be given to patients with history of QT prolongation (congenital or documented acquired QT prolongation) or ventricular cardiac arrhythmia, including torsades de pointes (see sections 4.4 and 4.5).

Concomitant administration with ticagrelor, ivabradine or ranolazine is contraindicated.

Clarithromycin should not be used concomitantly with HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (statins) that are extensively metabolised by CYP3A4 (lovastatin or simvastatin), due to the increased risk of myopathy, including rhabdomyolysis (see section 4.5).

As with other strong CYP3A4 inhibitors, Clarithromycin should not be used in patients taking colchicine (see sections 4.4 & 4.5).

Clarithromycin should not be given to patients with electrolyte disturbances (hypokalaemia or hypomagnesaemia, due to the risk of prolongation of the OT interval).

Clarithromycin should not be used in patients who suffer from severe hepatic failure in combination with renal impairment.

# 4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

Use of any antimicrobial therapy, such as clarithromycin, to treat *H. pylori* infection may select for drug-resistant organisms.

The physician should not prescribe clarithromycin to pregnant women without carefully weighing the benefits against risk, particularly during the first three months of pregnancy (see section 4.6).

Clarithromycin is principally metabolised by the liver. Therefore, caution should be exercised in administering this antibiotic to patients with impaired hepatic function.

Caution should also be exercised when administering clarithromycin to patients with moderate to severe renal impairment (see section 4.2).

Hepatic dysfunction, including increased liver enzymes, and hepatocellular and/or cholestatic hepatitis, with or without jaundice, has been reported with clarithromycin. This hepatic dysfunction may be severe and is usually reversible. Cases of fatal hepatic failure (see section 4.8) have been reported. Some patients may have had pre-existing hepatic disease or may have been taking other hepatotoxic medicinal products. Patients should be advised to stop treatment and contact their doctor if signs and symptoms of hepatic disease develop, such as anorexia, jaundice, dark urine, pruritus, or tender abdomen.

Pseudomembranous colitis has been reported with nearly all antibacterial agents, including macrolides, and may range in severity from mild to life-threatening. Clostridioides difficile-associated diarrhoea (CDAD) has been reported with use of nearly all antibacterial agents including clarithromycin, and may range in severity from mild diarrhoea to fatal colitis. Treatment with antibacterial agents alters the normal flora of the colon, which may lead to overgrowth of C. difficile. CDAD must be considered in all patients who present with diarrhoea following antibiotic use. Careful medical history is necessary since CDAD has been reported to occur over two months after the administration of antibacterial agents. Therefore, discontinuation of clarithromycin therapy should be considered regardless of the indication. Microbial testing should be performed and adequate treatment initiated. Drugs inhibiting peristalsis should be avoided.

There have been post-marketing reports of colchicine toxicity with concomitant use of clarithromycin and colchicine, especially in the elderly, some of which occurred in patients with renal insufficiency. Deaths have been reported in some such patients (see section 4.5). Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and colchicine is contraindicated (see section 4.3).

Caution is advised regarding concomitant administration of clarithromycin and triazolobenzodiazepines, such as triazolam, and intravenous or oromucosal midazolam (see section 4.5).

#### Cardiovascular Events

Prolongation of the QT interval, reflecting effects on cardiac repolarisation imparting a risk of developing cardiac arrhythmia and *torsades de pointes*, have been seen in patients treated with macrolides including clarithromycin (see section 4.8). Due to increased risk of QT prolongation and ventricular arrhythmias (including torsades de pointes), the use of clarithromycin is contraindicated in patients taking any of astemizole, cisapride, domperidone, pimozide and terfenadine; in patients who have electrolyte disturbances such as hypomagnesaemia or hypokalaemia; and in patients with a history of QT prolongation or ventricular cardiac arrhythmia (see section 4.3).

Carefully consider the balance of benefits and risks before prescribing clarithromycin for any patients taking hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine, because of the potential for an increased risk of cardiovascular events and cardiovascular mortality (see section 4.5).

Furthermore, clarithromycin should be used with caution in the following:

- Patients with coronary artery disease, severe cardiac insufficiency, conduction disturbances or clinically relevant bradycardia;
- Patients concomitantly taking other medicinal products associated with QT prolongation other than those which are contraindicated

Epidemiological studies investigating the risk of adverse cardiovascular outcomes with macrolides have shown variable results. Some observational studies have identified a rare short-term risk of arrhythmia, myocardial infarction and cardiovascular mortality associated with macrolides including clarithromycin. Consideration of these findings should be balanced with treatment benefits when prescribing clarithromycin.

Pneumonia: In view of the emerging resistance of Streptococcus pneumoniae to macrolides, it is important that sensitivity testing be performed when prescribing clarithromycin for community-acquired pneumonia. In hospital-acquired pneumonia, clarithromycin should be used in combination with additional appropriate antibiotics.

Skin and soft tissue infections of mild to moderate severity: These infections are most often caused by Staphylococcus aureus and Streptococcus pyogenes, both of which may be resistant to macrolides. Therefore, it is important that sensitivity testing be performed. In cases where beta–lactam antibiotics cannot be used (e.g. allergy), other antibiotics, such as clindamycin, may be the drug of first choice. Currently, macrolides are only considered to play a role in some skin and soft tissue infections, such as those caused by Corynebacterium minutissimum, acne vulgaris, and erysipelas and in situations where penicillin treatment cannot be used.

In the event of severe acute hypersensitivity reactions, such as anaphylaxis, severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCAR) (e.g. Acute generalised exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), Stevens-Johnson Syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis and Drug Rash with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS), clarithromycin therapy should be discontinued immediately and appropriate treatment should be urgently initiated.

Clarithromycin should be used with caution when administered concurrently with medications that induce the cytochrome CYP3A4 enzyme (see section 4.5).

HMG-CoA Reductase Inhibitors (statins): Concomitant use of clarithromycin with lovastatin or simvastatin is contraindicated (see section 4.3). Caution

should be exercised when prescribing clarithromycin with other statins. Rhabdomyolysis has been reported in patients taking clarithromycin and statins. Patients should be monitored for signs and symptoms of myopathy.

In situations where the concomitant use of clarithromycin with statins cannot be avoided, it is recommended to prescribe the lowest registered dose of the statin. Use of a statin that is not dependent on CYP3A metabolism (e.g. fluvastatin) can be considered.

Oral hypoglycaemic agents/Insulin: The concomitant use of clarithromycin and oral hypoglycaemic agents (such as sulfonylurias) and/or insulin can result in significant hypoglycaemia. Careful monitoring of glucose is recommended (see section 4.5).

Oral anticoagulants: There is a risk of serious haemorrhage and significant elevations in International Normalized Ratio (INR) and prothrombin time when clarithromycin is co-administered with warfarin (see section 4.5). INR and prothrombin times should be frequently monitored while patients are receiving clarithromycin and oral anticoagulants concurrently.

Caution should be exercised when clarithromycin is co-administered with direct acting oral anticoagulants such as dabigatran, rivaroxaban, apixaban and edoxaban, particularly to patients at high risk of bleeding (see section 4.5).

Long-term use may, as with other antibiotics, result in colonisation with increased numbers of non-susceptible bacteria and fungi. If superinfections occur, appropriate therapy should be instituted.

Attention should also be paid to the possibility of cross resistance between clarithromycin and other macrolide drugs, as well as lincomycin and clindamycin.

# 4.5 Interaction with other medicinal products and other forms of interaction

The use of the following drugs is strictly contraindicated due to the potential for severe drug interaction effects:

Cisapride, pimozide, domperidone, astemizole and terfenadine

Elevated cisapride levels have been reported in patients receiving clarithromycin and cisapride concomitantly. This may result in QT prolongation and cardiac arrhythmias including ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation and torsades de pointes. Similar effects have been observed in patients taking clarithromycin and pimozide concomitantly (see section 4.3).

Macrolides have been reported to alter the metabolism of terfenadine resulting in increased levels of terfenadine which has occasionally been associated with cardiac arrhythmias such as QT prolongation, ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation and torsades de pointes (see section 4.3). In one study in 14 healthy volunteers, the concomitant administration of clarithromycin and terfenadine resulted in a two to three fold increase in the serum level of the acid metabolite of terfenadine and in prolongation of the QT interval which did not lead to any clinically detectable effect. Similar effects have been observed with concomitant administration of astemizole and other macrolides.

## Ergot alkaloids:

Post-marketing reports indicate that co-administration of clarithromycin with ergotamine or dihydroergotamine has been associated with acute ergot toxicity characterized by vasospasm, and ischaemia of the extremities and other tissues including the central nervous system. Concomitant administration of clarithromycin and these ergot alkaloids is contraindicated (see section 4.3).

# Oral midazolam

When midazolam was co-administered together with clarithromycin tablets (500 mg twice per day), the AUC of midazolam increased 7-fold following the administration of oral midazolam. The concomitant administration of clarithromycin and oral midazolam is contraindicated (see section 4.3).

#### HMG-CoA Reductase Inhibitors (statins)

Concomitant use of clarithromycin with lovastatin or simvastatin is contraindicated (see 4.3) as these statins are extensively metabolized by CYP3A4 and concomitant treatment with clarithromycin increases their plasma concentration, which increases the risk of myopathy, including rhabdomyolysis. Reports of rhabdomyolysis have been received for patients taking clarithromycin concomitantly with these statins. If treatment with clarithromycin cannot be avoided, therapy with lovastatin or simvastatin must be suspended during the course of treatment.

Caution should be exercised when prescribing clarithromycin with statins. In situations where the concomitant use of clarithromycin with statins cannot be avoided, it is recommended to prescribe the lowest registered dose of the statin. Use of a statin that is not dependent on CYP3A metabolism (e.g. fluvastatin) can be considered. Patients should be monitored for signs and symptoms of myopathy.

## Effects of other medicinal products on clarithromycin

Drugs that are inducers of CYP3A (e.g. rifampicin, phenytoin, carbamazepine, phenobarbital, St. John's wort) may induce the metabolism

of clarithromycin. This may result in sub-therapeutic levels of clarithromycin leading to a reduced efficacy. Furthermore, it might be necessary to monitor the plasma levels of the CYP3A inducer, which could be increased owing to the inhibition of CYP3A by clarithromycin (see also the relevant product information for the CYP3A4 inducer administered). Concomitant administration of rifabutin and clarithromycin resulted in an increase in rifabutin, and decrease in clarithromycin serum levels together with an increased risk of uveitis.

The following drugs are known or suspected to affect circulating concentrations of clarithromycin; clarithromycin dosage adjustment or consideration of alternative treatments may be required.

Efavirenz, nevirapine, rifampicin, rifabutin and rifapentine

Strong inducers of the cytochrome P450 metabolism system such as efavirenz, nevirapine, rifampicin, rifabutin, and rifapentine may accelerate the metabolism of clarithromycin and thus lower the plasma levels of clarithromycin, while increasing those of 14-OH-clarithromycin, a metabolite that is also microbiologically active. Since the microbiological activities of clarithromycin and 14-OH-clarithromycin are different for different bacteria, the intended therapeutic effect could be impaired during concomitant administration of clarithromycin and enzyme inducers.

#### Etravirine

Clarithromycin exposure was decreased by etravirine; however, concentrations of the active metabolite, 14-OH-clarithromycin, were increased. Because 14-OH-clarithromycin has reduced activity against Mycobacterium avium complex (MAC), overall activity against this pathogen may be altered; therefore alternatives to clarithromycin should be considered for the treatment of MAC.

#### Fluconazole

Concomitant administration of fluconazole 200 mg daily and clarithromycin 500 mg twice daily to 21 healthy volunteers led to increases in the mean steady-state minimum clarithromycin concentration (Cmin) and area under the curve (AUC) of 33% and 18% respectively. Steady state concentrations of the active metabolite 14-OH-clarithromycin were not significantly affected by concomitant administration of fluconazole. No clarithromycin dose adjustment is necessary.

#### Ritonavir

A pharmacokinetic study demonstrated that the concomitant administration of ritonavir 200 mg every eight hours and clarithromycin 500 mg every 12 hours resulted in a marked inhibition of the metabolism of clarithromycin. The clarithromycin  $C_{\text{max}}$  increased by 31%,  $C_{\text{min}}$  increased 182% and AUC

increased by 77% with concomitant administration of ritonavir. An essentially complete inhibition of the formation of 14-OH-clarithromycin was noted. Because of the large therapeutic window for clarithromycin, no dosage reduction should be necessary in patients with normal renal function. However, for patients with renal impairment, the following dosage adjustments should be considered: For patients with CLCR 30 to 60 mL/min the dose of clarithromycin should be reduced by 50%. For patients with CLCR <30 mL/min the dose of clarithromycin should be decreased by 75%. Doses of clarithromycin greater than 1 g/day should not be coadministered with ritonavir.

Similar dose adjustments should be considered in patients with reduced renal function when ritonavir is used as a pharmacokinetic enhancer with other HIV protease inhibitors including atazanavir and saquinavir (see section below, Bi-directional drug interactions).

## Effect of clarithromycin on other medicinal products

#### CYP3A-based interactions

Co-administration of clarithromycin, known to inhibit CYP3A, and a drug primarily metabolised by CYP3A may be associated with elevations in drug concentrations that could increase or prolong both therapeutic and adverse effects of the concomitant drug.

The use of clarithromycin is contraindicated in patients receiving CYP3A substrates, astemizole, cisapride, domperidone, pimozide and terfenadine due to the risk of QT prolongation and cardiac arrhythmias, including ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation and torsades de pointes (see sections 4.3 and 4.4).

The use of clarithromycin is also contraindicated with ergot alkaloids, oral midazolam, HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors mainly metabolised by CYP3A4 (e.g. lovastatin and simvastatin), colchicine, ticagrelor, ivabradine and ranolazine (see section 4.3).

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin with lomitapide is contraindicated due to the potential for markedly increased transaminases (see section 4.3).

Caution is required if clarithromycin is co-administered with other drugs known to be CYP3A enzyme substrates, especially if the CYP3A substrate has a narrow safety margin (e.g. carbamazepine) and/or the substrate is extensively metabolised by this enzyme. Dosage adjustments may be considered, and when possible, serum concentrations of drugs primarily metabolised by CYP3A should be monitored closely in patients concurrently receiving clarithromycin. Drugs or drug classes that are known or suspected to be metabolised by the same CYP3A isozyme include (but this list is not comprehensive) alprazolam, carbamazepine, cilostazole, ciclosporin,

disopyramide, ibrutinib, methadone, methylprednisolone, midazolam (intravenous), omeprazole, oral anticoagulants (e.g. warfarin, rivaroxaban, apixaban), atypical antipsychotics (e.g. quetiapine), quinidine, rifabutin, sildenafil, sirolimus, tacrolimus, triazolam and vinblastine.

Drugs interacting by similar mechanisms through other isozymes within the cytochrome P450 system include phenytoin, theophylline and valproate.

#### Corticosteroids

Caution should be exercised in concomitant use of clarithromycin with systemic and inhaled corticosteroids that are primarily metabolised by CYP3A due to the potential for increased systemic exposure to corticosteroids. If concomitant use occurs, patients should be closely monitored for systemic corticosteroid undesirable effects.

## Antiarrhythmics

There have been post-marketing reports of torsades de pointes occurring with concurrent use of clarithromycin and quinidine or disopyramide. Electrocardiograms should be monitored for QT prolongation during coadministration of clarithromycin with these drugs. Serum levels of quinidine and disopyramide should be monitored during clarithromycin therapy.

There have been post marketing reports of hypoglycemia with the concomitant administration of clarithromycin and disopyramide. Therefore blood glucose levels should be monitored during concomitant administration of clarithromycin and disopyramide.

#### Oral hypoglycaemic agents/Insulin

With certain hypoglycemic drugs such as nateglinide, and repaglinide, inhibition of CYP3A enzyme by clarithromycin may be involved and could cause hypoglycaemia when used concomitantly. Careful monitoring of glucose is recommended.

#### Omeprazole

Clarithromycin (500 mg every 8 hours) was given in combination with omeprazole (40 mg daily) to healthy adult subjects. The steady-state plasma concentrations of omeprazole were increased (Cmax, AUC0-24, and t1/2 increased by 30%, 89%, and 34%, respectively), by the concomitant administration of clarithromycin. The mean 24-hour gastric pH value was 5.2 when omeprazole was administered alone and 5.7 when omeprazole was co-administered with clarithromycin.

Direct acting oral anticoagulants (DOACs)

The DOACs dabigatran and edoxaban are substrates for the efflux transporter P-gp. Rivaroxaban and apixaban are metabolised via CYP3A4 and are also substrates for P-gp. Caution should be exercised when clarithromycin is co-administered with these agents particularly to patients at high risk of bleeding (see section 4.4).

## Sildenafil, tadalafil, and vardenafil

Each of these phosphodiesterase inhibitors is metabolised, at least in part, by CYP3A, and CYP3A may be inhibited by concomitantly administered clarithromycin. Co-administration of clarithromycin with sildenafil, tadalafil or vardenafil would likely result in increased phosphodiesterase inhibitor exposure. Reduction of sildenafil, tadalafil and vardenafil dosages should be considered when these drugs are co-administered with clarithromycin.

# Theophylline, carbamazepine

Results of clinical studies indicate that there was a modest but statistically significant ( $p \le 0.05$ ) increase of circulating theophylline or carbamazepine levels when either of these drugs were administered concomitantly with clarithromycin. Dose reduction may need to be considered.

#### Tolterodine

The primary route of metabolism for tolterodine is via the 2D6 isoform of cytochrome P450 (CYP2D6). However, in a subset of the population devoid of CYP2D6, the identified pathway of metabolism is via CYP3A. In this population subset, inhibition of CYP3A results in significantly higher serum concentrations of tolterodine. A reduction in tolterodine dosage may be necessary in the presence of CYP3A inhibitors, such as clarithromycin in the CYP2D6 poor metaboliser population.

Triazolobenzodiazepines (e.g. alprazolam, midazolam, triazolam)

When midazolam was co-administered with clarithromycin tablets (500 mg twice daily), midazolam AUC was increased 2.7-fold after intravenous administration of midazolam. If intravenous midazolam is co-administered with clarithromycin, the patient must be closely monitored to allow dose adjustment. Drug delivery of midazolam via oromucosal route, which could bypass pre-systemic elimination of the drug, will likely result in a similar interaction to that observed after intravenous midazolam rather than oral administration. The same precautions should also apply to other benzodiazepines that are metabolised by CYP3A, including triazolam and alprazolam. For benzodiazepines which are not dependent on CYP3A for their elimination (temazepam, nitrazepam, lorazepam), a clinically important interaction with clarithromycin is unlikely.

There have been post-marketing reports of drug interactions and central nervous system (CNS) effects (e.g. somnolence and confusion) with the

concomitant use of clarithromycin and triazolam. Monitoring the patient for increased CNS pharmacological effects is suggested.

# Other drug interactions

#### Colchicine

Colchicine is a substrate for both CYP3A and the efflux transporter, P-glycoprotein (Pgp). Clarithromycin and other macrolides are known to inhibit CYP3A and Pgp. When clarithromycin and colchicine are administered together, inhibition of Pgp and/or CYP3A by clarithromycin may lead to increased exposure to colchicine (see section 4.3 and 4.4).

## Digoxin

Digoxin is thought to be a substrate for the efflux transporter, P-glycoprotein (Pgp). Clarithromycin is known to inhibit Pgp. When clarithromycin and digoxin are administered together, inhibition of Pgp by clarithromycin may lead to increased exposure to digoxin. Elevated digoxin serum concentrations in patients receiving clarithromycin and digoxin concomitantly have also been reported in post marketing surveillance. Some patients have shown clinical signs consistent with digoxin toxicity, including potentially fatal arrhythmias. Serum digoxin concentrations should be carefully monitored while patients are receiving digoxin and clarithromycin simultaneously.

#### Zidovudine

Simultaneous oral administration of clarithromycin tablets and zidovudine to HIV-infected adult patients may result in decreased steady-state zidovudine concentrations. Because clarithromycin appears to interfere with the absorption of simultaneously administered oral zidovudine, this interaction can be largely avoided by staggering the doses of clarithromycin and zidovudine to allow for a 4-hour interval between each medication. This interaction does not appear to occur in paediatric HIV-infected patients taking clarithromycin suspension with zidovudine or dideoxyinosine. This interaction is unlikely when clarithromycin is administered via intravenous infusion.

#### Phenytoin and Valproate

There have been spontaneous or published reports of interactions of CYP3A inhibitors, including clarithromycin with drugs not thought to be metabolised by CYP3A (e.g. phenytoin and valproate). Serum level determinations are recommended for these drugs when administered concomitantly with clarithromycin. Increased serum levels have been reported.

Concomitant administration of clarithromycin with lomitapide is contraindicated due the potential for markedly increased transaminases (see section 4.3).

## Hydroxychloroquine and Chloroquine

Observational data have shown that co-administration of azithromycin with hydroxychloroquine in patients with rheumatoid arthritis is associated with an increased risk of cardiovascular events and cardiovascular mortality. Because of the potential for a similar risk with other macrolides when used in combination with hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine, careful consideration should be given to the balance of benefits and risks before prescribing clarithromycin for any patients taking hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine. Clarithromycin should be used with caution in patients receiving these medicines known to prolong the QT interval due to the potential to induce cardiac arrhythmia and serious adverse cardiovascular events.

## Bi-directional drug interactions

#### Atazanavir

Both clarithromycin and atazanavir are substrates and inhibitors of CYP3A, and there is evidence of a bi-directional drug interaction. Co-administration of clarithromycin (500 mg twice daily) with atazanavir (400 mg once daily) resulted in a 2- fold increase in exposure to clarithromycin and a 70% decrease in exposure to 14-OH-clarithromycin, with a 28% increase in the AUC of atazanavir. Because of the large therapeutic window for clarithromycin, no dosage reduction should be necessary in patients with normal renal function. For patients with moderate renal function (creatinine clearance 30 to 60 mL/min), the dose of clarithromycin should be decreased by 50%. For patients with creatinine clearance <30 mL/min, the dose of clarithromycin should be decreased by 75% using an appropriate clarithromycin formulation. Doses of clarithromycin greater than 1000 mg per day should not be co-administered with protease inhibitors.

#### Calcium Channel Blockers

Caution is advised regarding the concomitant administration of clarithromycin and calcium channel blockers metabolized by CYP3A4 (e.g., verapamil, amlodipine, diltiazem) due to the risk of hypotension. Plasma concentrations of clarithromycin as well as calcium channel blockers may increase due to the interaction. Hypotension, bradyarrhythmias and lactic acidosis have been observed in patients taking clarithromycin and verapamil concomitantly.

#### Itraconazole

Both clarithromycin and itraconazole are substrates and inhibitors of CYP3A, leading to a bidirectional drug interaction. Clarithromycin may increase the plasma levels of itraconazole, while itraconazole may increase the plasma levels of clarithromycin. Patients taking itraconazole and clarithromycin concomitantly should be monitored closely for signs or symptoms of increased or prolonged pharmacologic effect.

## Saquinavir

Both clarithromycin and saguinavir are substrates and inhibitors of CYP3A, and there is evidence of a bi-directional drug interaction. Concomitant administration of clarithromycin (500 mg twice daily) and saquinavir (soft gelatin capsules, 1200 mg three times daily) to 12 healthy volunteers resulted in steady-state AUC and Cmax values of saguinavir which were 177% and 187% higher than those seen with saguinavir alone. Clarithromycin AUC and Cmax values were approximately 40% higher than those seen with clarithromycin alone. No dose adjustment is required when the two drugs are co-administered for a limited time at the doses/formulations studied. Observations from drug interaction studies using the soft gelatin capsule formulation may not be representative of the effects seen using the saquinavir hard gelatin capsule. Observations from drug interaction studies performed with saquinavir alone may not be representative of the effects seen with saguinavir/ritonavir therapy. When saguinavir is co-administered with ritonavir, consideration should be given to the potential effects of ritonavir on clarithromycin (see section 4.5: Ritonavir).

Patients taking oral contraceptives should be warned that if diarrhoea, vomiting or breakthrough bleeding occur there is a possibility of contraceptive failure.

#### 4.6 Pregnancy and Lactation

#### Pregnancy

The safety of clarithromycin for use during pregnancy has not been established. Based on variable results obtained from animal studies, and experience in humans, the possibility of adverse effects on embryofetal development cannot be excluded. Some observational studies evaluating exposure to clarithromycin during the first and second trimester have reported an increased risk of miscarriage compared to no antibiotic use or other antibiotic use during the same period. The available epidemiological studies on the risk of major congenital malformations with use of macrolides including clarithromycin during pregnancy provide conflicting results. Therefore, use during pregnancy is not advised without carefully weighing the benefits against risk.

## **Breastfeeding**

The safety of clarithromycin for use during breast feeding of infants has not been established. Clarithromycin and its active metabolite are excreted in breast milk in small amounts. Therefore, diarrhea and fungus infection of the mucous membranes could occur in the breast-fed infant, so that nursing might have to be discontinued. The possibility of sensitisation should be born in mind. It has been estimated that an exclusively breastfed infant would receive about 1.7% of the maternal weight-adjusted dose of clarithromycin. The benefit of treatment of the mother should be weighed against the potential risk for the infant.

# 4.7 Effects on ability to drive and use machines

There are no data available on the effect of clarithromycin on the ability to drive or use machines. The potential for dizziness, vertigo, confusion and disorientation should be taken into account before patients drive or use machines.

#### 4.8 Undesirable effects

## Summary of the safety profile

The most frequent and common adverse reactions related to clarithromycin therapy for both adult and paediatric populations are abdominal pain, diarrhoea, nausea, vomiting and taste perversion. These adverse reactions are usually mild in intensity and are consistent with the known safety profile of macrolide antibiotics (see section b of section 4.8).

There was no significant difference in the incidence of these gastrointestinal adverse reactions during clinical trials between the patient population with or without preexisting mycobacterial infections.

#### Tabulated summary of adverse reactions

The following table displays adverse reactions reported in clinical trials and from post-marketing experience with clarithromycin immediate-release tablets, granules for oral suspension, powder for solution for injection, extended-release tablets and modified-release tablets.

The reactions considered at least possibly related to clarithromycin are displayed by system organ class and frequency using the following convention: very common ( $\geq 1/10$ ), common ( $\geq 1/100$  to < 1/10), uncommon ( $\geq 1/1,000$  to < 1/100) and not known (adverse reactions from postmarketing experience; cannot be estimated from the available data). Within each frequency grouping, adverse reactions are presented in order of decreasing seriousness when the seriousness could be assessed.

Table 2: Summary of Adverse reactions

System Organ Class	Very	Common	Uncommon	Not Known*
	(≥ 1/10)	(≥ 1/100 to < 1/10)	(≥ 1/1,000 to < 1/100)	(cannot be estimated from the available data)
Infections and infestations			Cellulitis <sup>1</sup> , candidiasis, gastroenteritis <sup>2</sup> ,infection <sup>3</sup> , vaginal infection	Pseudomembranous colitis, erysipelas,
Blood and lymphatic system			Leukopenia, neutropenia <sup>4</sup> , thrombocythemia <sup>3</sup> , eosinophilia <sup>4</sup>	Agranulocytosis, thrombocytopenia
Immune system disorders			Anaphylactoid reaction <sup>1</sup> , hypersensitivity	Anaphylactic reaction, angioedema
Metabolism and nutrition disorders			Anorexia, decreased appetite	
Psychiatric disorders		Insomnia	Anxiety, nervousness <sup>3</sup>	Psychotic disorder, confusional state <sup>5</sup> , depersonalisation, depression, disorientation, hallucination, abnormal dreams, mania
Nervous system disorders		Dysgeusia, headache, taste perversion	Loss of consciousness <sup>1</sup> , dyskinesia <sup>1</sup> , dizziness, somnolence <sup>5</sup> , tremor	Convulsion, ageusia, parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia
Ear and labyrinth disorders			Vertigo, hearing impaired, tinnitus	Deafness
Cardiac disorders			Cardiac arrest <sup>1</sup> , atrial fibrillation <sup>1</sup> , electrocardiogram QT prolonged, extrasystoles <sup>1</sup> , palpitations	Torsade de pointes, ventricular tachycardia ventricular fibrillation
Vascular disorders		Vasodilation <sup>1</sup>		Haemorrhage
Respiratory, thoracic and mediastinal disorder			Asthma <sup>1</sup> , epistaxis <sup>2</sup> , pulmonary embolism <sup>1</sup>	
Gastrointestinal disorders		Diarrhoea, vomiting, dyspepsia, nausea, abdominal pain	Oesophagitis <sup>1</sup> , gastrooesophageal reflux disease <sup>2</sup> , gastritis, proctalgia <sup>2</sup> , stomatitis, glossitis, abdominal distension <sup>4</sup> , constipation, dry mouth, eructation, flatulence,	Pancreatitis acute, tongue discolouration, tooth discolouration
Hepatobiliary disorders		Liver function test abnormal	Cholestasis <sup>4</sup> , hepatitis <sup>4</sup> , alanine aminotransferase increased, aspartate aminotransferase increased,	Hepatic failure, jaundice hepatocellular

			gamma-glutamyltransferase increased <sup>4</sup>	
Skin and subcutaneous tissue disorders		Rash, hyperhidrosis	Dermatitis bullous <sup>1</sup> , pruritus, urticaria, rash maculo- papular <sup>3</sup>	Stevens-Johnson syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis, drug rash with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS), acne, acute generalised exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP)
Musculoskeletal and connective tissue disorders			Muscle spasms <sup>3</sup> , musculoskeletal stiffness <sup>1</sup> , myalgia <sup>2</sup>	Rhabdomyolysis <sup>2,6</sup> , myopathy
Renal and urinary disorders			Blood creatinine increased <sup>1</sup> , blood urea increased <sup>1</sup>	Renal failure, nephritis interstitial
General disorders and administration site conditions	Injection site phlebitis <sup>1</sup>	Injection site pain <sup>1</sup> , injection site inflammation <sup>1</sup>	Malaise <sup>4</sup> , pyrexia <sup>3</sup> , asthenia, chest pain <sup>4</sup> , chills <sup>4</sup> , fatigue <sup>4</sup>	
Investigations			Albumin globulin ratio abnormal <sup>1</sup> , blood alkaline phosphatase increased <sup>4</sup> , blood lactate dehydrogenase increased <sup>4</sup>	International normalised ratio increased, prothrombin time prolonged, urine colour abnormal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> ADRs reported only for the Powder for Solution for Injection formulation

- <sup>2</sup>ADRs reported only for the Extended-Release Tablets formulation
- <sup>3</sup> ADRs reported only for the Granules for Oral Suspension formulation
- <sup>4</sup> ADRs reported only for the Immediate-Release Tablets formulation
- <sup>5,6</sup> See section c)

# Description of selected adverse reactions

Injection site phlebitis, injection site pain, and injection site inflammation are specific to the clarithromycin intravenous formulation.

In some of the reports of rhabdomyolysis, clarithromycin was administered concomitantly with statins, fibrates, colchicine or allopurinol (see section 4.3 and 4.4).

<sup>\*</sup> Because these reactions are reported voluntarily from a population of uncertain size, it is not always possible to reliably estimate their frequency or establish a causal relationship to drug exposure. Patient exposure is estimated to be greater than 1 billion patient treatment days for clarithromycin.

There have been post-marketing reports of drug interactions and central nervous system (CNS) effects (e.g. somnolence and confusion) with the concomitant use of clarithromycin and triazolam. Monitoring the patient for increased CNS pharmacological effects is suggested (see section 4.5).

Special population: Adverse Reactions in Immunocompromised Patients (see section e)

# Paediatric populations

Clinical trials have been conducted using clarithromycin paediatric suspension in children 6 months to 12 years of age. Therefore, children under 12 years of age should use clarithromycin paediatric suspension. There are insufficient data to recommend a dosage regimen for use of the clarithromycin IV formulation in patients less than 18 years of age.

Frequency, type and severity of adverse reactions in children are expected to be the same as in adults.

# Other special populations

## <u>Immunocompromised patients</u>

In AIDS and other immunocompromised patients treated with the higher doses of clarithromycin over long periods of time for mycobacterial infections, it was often difficult to distinguish adverse events possibly associated with clarithromycin administration from underlying signs of Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) disease or intercurrent illness.

In adult patients, the most frequently reported adverse reactions by patients treated with total daily doses of 1000 mg and 2000 mg of clarithromycin were: nausea, vomiting, taste perversion, abdominal pain, diarrhea, rash, flatulence, headache, constipation, hearing disturbance, **Serum Glutamic Oxaloacetic Transaminase** (SGOT) and **Serum Glutamic Pyruvate Transaminase** (SGPT) elevations. Additional low-frequency events included dyspnoea, insomnia and dry mouth. The incidences were comparable for patients treated with 1000 mg and 2000 mg, but were generally about 3 to 4 times as frequent for those patients who received total daily doses of 4000 mg of clarithromycin.

In these immunocompromised patients, evaluations of laboratory values were made by analysing those values outside the seriously abnormal level (i.e. the extreme high or low limit) for the specified test. On the basis of these criteria, about 2% to 3% of those patients who received 1000 mg or 2000 mg of clarithromycin daily had seriously abnormal elevated levels of SGOT and SGPT, and abnormally low white blood cell and platelet counts. A lower percentage of patients in these two dosage groups also had elevated Blood Urea Nitrogen levels. Slightly higher incidences of abnormal values were

noted for patients who received 4000 mg daily for all parameters except White Blood Cell.

# Reporting of suspected adverse reactions

Reporting suspected adverse reactions after authorisation 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 via the Yellow Card Scheme at: www.mhra.gov.uk/yellowcard or search for MHRA Yellow Card in the Google Play or Apple App Store.

#### 4.9 Overdose

## Symptoms of intoxication:

Reports indicate that the ingestion of large amounts of clarithromycin can be expected to produce gastrointestinal symptoms. Symptoms of overdose may largely correspond to the profile of adverse reactions. One patient who had a history of bipolar disorder ingested 8 grams of clarithromycin and showed altered mental status, paranoid behaviour, hypokalaemia and hypoxaemia.

## Therapy of intoxication:

There is no specific antidote on overdose. Serum levels of clarithromycin cannot be reduced by haemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis.

Adverse reactions accompanying overdosage should be the prompt elimination of unabsorbed drug and supportive measures. As with other macrolides, clarithromycin serum levels are not expected to be appreciably affected by haemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis. Severe acute allergic reactions may be seen very rarely, e.g. anaphylactic shock. At first signs of hypersensitivity reactions therapy with clarithromycin must be discontinued and the required measures should be initiated immediately.

#### 5. Pharmacological properties

# 5.1 Pharmacodynamic properties

Pharmacotherapeutic group: Antibacterial for systemic use, macrolides ATC code: J01FA09

Mechanism of action

Clarithromycin is an antibiotic belonging to the macrolide antibiotic group. It exerts its antibacterial action by selectively binding to the 50s ribosomal sub-unit of susceptible bacteria preventing translocation of activated amino acids. It inhibits the intracellular protein synthesis of

susceptible bacteria. Clarithromycin demonstrates excellent in-vitro activity against standard strains of clinical isolates. It is highly potent against a wide variety of aerobic and anaerobic gram-positive and gramnegative organisms. The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of clarithromycin, are generally two-fold lower than the MICs of erythromycin.

The 14-hydroxy metabolite of clarithromycin, a product of parent drug metabolism also has antimicrobial activity. The metabolite is less active than the parent compound for most organisms, including mycobacterium spp. An exception is Haemophilus influenza where the 14-hydroxy metabolite is twofold more active than the parent compound. Clarithromycin is also bactericidal against several bacterial strains.

## Breakpoints

According to the EUCAST (European Committee on Antimicrobial Susceptibility Testing) the following breakpoints have been defined for clarithromycin:

Table 1: Breakpoints

•		
Breakpoints (MIC, mg/L)		
Microorganism	Susceptible (≤)	Resistant (>)
Staphylococcus spp.	1 mg/L	2 mg/L
Streptococcus spp. (A, B, C, G)	0.25 mg/L	0.5 mg/L
Streptococcus pneumonia	0.25 mg/L	0.5 mg/L
Viridans group streptococcus	IE	IE
Haemophilus spp.	1 mg/L	32 mg/L
Moraxella catarrhalis	0.25 mg/L	0.5 mg/L <sup>1</sup>
Helicobacter pylori	0.25 mg/L <sup>1</sup>	0.5 mg/L

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The breakpoints are based on epidemiological cut-off values (ECOFFs), which distinguish wild-type isolates from those with reduces susceptibility.

The prevalence of resistance may vary geographically and with time for selected species and local information on resistance is desirable, particularly when treating severe infections This information gives only an appropriate guidance on the probabilities whether micro-organisms will be susceptible to clarithromycin or not. As far as applicable the information on the European range of acquired resistance for the individual micro-organism is indicated in brackets.

Clarithromycin is usually active against the following organisms in vitro: <u>Gram-positive Bacteria:</u> Staphylococcus aureus (methicillin susceptible); Streptococcus pyogenes <sup>1</sup> (Group A beta-hemolytic streptococci); alphahemolytic streptococci (viridans group); Streptococcus (Diplococcus) pneumoniae; Streptococcus agalactiae; Listeria monocytogenes.

<u>Gram-negative Bacteria:</u> Haemophilus influenza \*; Haemophilus parainfluenza; Moraxella (Branhamella) catarrhalis °; Neisseria

<sup>&</sup>quot; IE" indicates that there is insufficient evidence that the species in question is a good target for therapy with the drug. Susceptibility

gonorrhoeae; Legionella pneumophila°; Bordetella pertussis; Campylobacter jejuni, Helicobacter pylori².

Mycoplasma: Mycoplasma pneumoniae°; Ureaplasma urealyticum.

Other Organisms: Chlamydia trachomatis; Mycobacterium avium°; Mycobacterium leprae; Mycobacterium kansasii°; Mycobacterium chelonae°; Mycobacterium fortuitum; Mycobacterium intrazellulare°; Chlamydia pneumonia°,

<u>Anaerobes:</u> Macrolide-susceptible Bacteroides fragilis; Clostridium perfringens; Peptococcus species; Peptostreptococcus species; Propionibacterium acnes.

Clarithromycin also has bactericidal activity against several bacterial strains. The organisms include Haemophilus influenza \$; Streptococcus pneumoniae; Streptococcus pyogenes; Streptococcus agalactiae; Moraxella (Branhamella) catarrhalis; Neisseria gonorrhoeae and Campylobacter spp.

Species for which acquired resistance may be a problem

Aerobic Gram-positive micro-organisms: Staphylococcus aureus (Methicillin-resistant) +

Inherently resistant organisms

Aerobic Gram-negative micro-organisms Escherichia coli; Klebsiella spp. And Pseudomonas aeruginosa

- ° No updated data were available at release of tables. Primary literature, scientific standard literature and therapeutic recommendations assume susceptibility.
- \$ Inherent susceptibility of most of the isolates shows intermediate resistance.
- <sup>+</sup> At least one region shows resistance rates higher than 50%.
- <sup>1</sup> The resistance rates are in some studies ≥ 10%.
- <sup>2</sup> The resistance rate is  $\geq$  10% by pre-treated patients.

Other information

Susceptibility and resistance of Streptococcus pneumoniae and Streptococcus spp. to clarithromycin can be predicted by testing erythromycin.

The mechanisms of acquired resistance in macrolides are: efflux of active substance by an active pump mechanism, inducible or constitutive production of a methylase enzyme that modifies the ribosomal target, hydrolysis of macrolides by esterases, chromosomal mutations that alter a 50s ribosomal protein. Cross-resistance between clarithromycin and other macrolides and clindamycin and lincomycin may therefore occur. Methicillin-resistant and oxacillin-resistant staphylococci (MRSA) and penicillin-resistant Streptococcus pneumoniae are resistant to all currently available Beta-lactam antibiotics and macrolides such as clarithromycin. Most available clinical experience from controlled randomised clinical trials indicate that Clarithromycin Ranbaxy 500 mg twice daily in combination with another antibiotic e.g. amoxicillin or metronidazole and e.g. omeprazole (given at approved levels) for 7 days achieve > 80% H. pylori eradication rate in patients with gastro-duodenal ulcers. As expected, significantly lower eradication rates were observed in patients with baseline metronidazole-resistant H. pylori isolates.

Hence, local information on the prevalence of resistance and local therapeutic guidelines should be taken into account in the choice of an appropriate combination regimen for H. pylori eradication therapy. Furthermore, in patients with persistent infection, potential development of secondary resistance (in patients with primary susceptible strains) to an antimicrobial agent should be taken into the considerations for a new retreatment regimen.

# 5.2 Pharmacokinetic properties

## Absorption:

Clarithromycin is rapidly and well absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract but undergoes extensive firstpass metabolism after oral administration. The absolute bioavailability of a 250mg clarithromycin tablet is approximately 50%. The bioavailability of the suspension is identical to or slightly higher than the bioavailability of the tablets. The pharmacokinetic profile of the suspension in children corresponds to the pharmacokinetic profile of the suspension in adults. Due to its chemical structure (6-OMethylerythromycin) clarithromycin is quite resistant to degradation by stomach acid. After oral administration of 250mg & 500mg clarithromycin twice daily, peak plasma levels of 1-2  $\mu g/mL$  & 2.8 $\mu g/mL$  were observed respectively in adults. The peak plasma concentration of pharmacological active 14-hydroxy metabolite was 0.6 $\mu g/mL$  after the administration of 250mg clarithromycin twice daily. Steady state is attained within 2 days of dosing.

#### Effect of Food

Food slightly delays the absorption of clarithromycin but does not affect the extent of bioavailability, therefore it may be given without regard to food.

#### Distribution:

Clarithromycin penetrates well into different compartments, with an estimated volume of distribution of 200-400L. Clarithromycin provides concentrations in some tissues that are several times higher than the circulating level of the active substance. Increased levels have been found in both tonsils and lung tissue. Clarithromycin also penetrates the gastric mucus. Clarithromycin is approximately 80% bound to plasma proteins at therapeutic levels.

## Metabolism:

Clarithromycin is rapidly and extensively metabolised in the liver. Metabolism involves mainly Ndealkylation, oxidation and stereospecific hydroxylation at position C14.

#### Excretion:

Clarithromycin is excreted in the feces (5-10%) via the bile. At steady state approximately 20% and 30% of clarithromycin is excreted as

unchanged drug in urine. 14-hydroxy clarithromycin as well as other metabolites are also excreted in the urine accounting for 10% to 15% of the dose. The elimination half-life of clarithromycin is reportedly about 3 to 4 hours in patients receiving 250mg doses twice daily, and about 5 to 7 hours in those receiving 500mg twice daily. The principal metabolite, 14-OH-clarithromycin has an elimination half-life of 5 to 6 hours after a dose of 250mg twice daily and about 7 to 9 hours in those receiving 500mg twice daily.

# Special Populations Renal impairment:

The plasma levels, half-life, Cmax and Cmin for both clarithromycin and its 14-OH metabolite were higher and the AUC was larger in subjects with renal impairment.

<u>Geriatric</u>: Elderly patients with severe renal impairment may require dose adjustment.

## 5.3 Preclinical safety data

The acute oral  $LD_{50}$  values for a clarithromycin suspension administered to 3-day old mice were 1290 mg/kg for males and 1230 mg/kg for females. The  $LD_{50}$  values in 3-day old rats were 1330 mg/kg for males and 1270 mg/kg for females. For comparison, the  $LD_{50}$  of orally-administered clarithromycin is about 2700 mg/kg for adult mice and about 3000 mg/kg for adult rats. These results are consistent with other antibiotics of the penicillin group, cephalosporin group and macrolide group in that the  $LD_{50}$  is generally lower in juvenile animals than in adults.

In both mice and rats, body weight was reduced or its increase suppressed and suckling behaviour and spontaneous movements were depressed for the first few days following drug administration. Necropsy of animals that died disclosed dark-reddish lungs in mice and about 25% of the rats; rats treated with 2197 mg/kg or more of a clarithromycin suspension were also noted to have a reddish - black substance in the intestines, probably because of bleeding. Deaths of these animals were considered due to debilitation resulting from depressed suckling behaviour or bleeding from the intestines.

Pre-weaning rats (5 days old) were administered a clarithromycin suspension formulation for two weeks at doses of 0, 15, 55 and 200 mg/kg/day. Animals from the 200 mg/kg/day group had decreased bodyweight gains, decreased mean haemoglobin and haematocrit values, and increased mean relative kidney weights compared to animals from the control group. Treatment-related minimal to mild multifocal vacuolar degeneration of the intrahepatic bile duct epithelium and an increased incidence of nephritic lesions were also observed in animals from this treatment group. The "no-toxic effect" dosage for this study was 55 mg/kg/day.

An oral toxicity study was conducted in which immature rats were administered a clarithromycin suspension (granules for suspension) for 6 weeks at daily dosages of 0, 15, 50 and 150 mg base/kg/day. No deaths occurred and the only clinical sign observed was excessive salivation for some of the animals at the highest dosage from 1 to 2 hours after administration during the last 3 weeks of treatment. Rats from the 150 mg/kg dose group had lower mean body weights during the first three weeks, and were observed to have decreased mean serum albumin values and increased mean relative liver weight compared to the controls. No treatment-related gross or microscopic histopathological changes were found. A dosage of 150 mg/kg/day produced slight toxicity in the treated rats and the "no effect dosage" was considered to be 50 mg/kg/day.

Juvenile beagle dogs, 3 weeks of age, were treated orally daily for four weeks with 0, 30, 100, or 300 mg/kg of clarithromycin, followed by a 4-week recovery period. No deaths occurred and no changes in the general condition of the animals were observed. Necropsy revealed no abnormalities. Upon histological examination, fatty deposition of centrilobular hepatocytes and cell infiltration of portal areas were observed by light microscopy and an increase in hepatocellular fat droplets was noted by electron microscopy in the 300 mg/kg dose group. The toxic dose in juvenile beagle dogs was considered to be greater than 300 mg/kg and the "no effect dose" 100 mg/kg.

# Fertility, Reproduction and Teratogenicity

Fertility and reproduction studies have shown daily dosages of 150-160 mg/kg/day to male and female rats caused no adverse effects on the oestrus cycle, fertility, parturition and number and viability of offspring. Two teratogenicity studies in both Wistar (p.o.) and Sprague-Dawley (p.o. and i.v.) rats, one study in New Zealand white rabbits and one study in cynomolgus monkeys failed to demonstrate any teratogenicity from clarithromycin.

#### 6. Pharmaceutical Particulars

# 6.1 List of Excipients

Micro crystalline cellulose
Maize Starch
Lactose
Povidone (P.V.P. K-30)
Isopropyl alcohol
Purified talc
Sodium starch glycolate
Colloidal Anhydrous Silica
Magnesium stearate
Dichloromethane
Color Titanium dioxide film coat

# 6.2 Incompatibilities

Not Applicable

#### 6.3 Shelf-Life

36 months

# 6.4 Special Precautions for storage

Store below 30°C.

Protect from light & Moisture.

#### 6.5 Nature and Content of container

7 Tablets are in Alu-Alu blister pack. Such 2 Alu-Alu blister is packed in a printed carton along with packing insert

# 6.6 Special precautions for disposal and other handling

Any unused medicinal product or waste material should be disposed of in accordance with local requirements.

KEEP OUT OF REACH OF CHILDREN

# 7. Marketing Authorization Holder

Denmark Pharmaceuticals Pvt. Ltd.

First Floor Harish Textile,

Parsi Panchayat Road, Andheri East, Mumbai-400069, India

## 8. Marketing Authorization Number

CTD10578

## 9. Date of first authorization/renewal of the authorization

25/10/2023

## 10. Date of revision of the text

10/5/2025