ABBOTIC

Clarithromycin

1. NAME OF THE MEDICINAL PRODUCT

Abbotic 500 mg, Immediate-Release Tablets (IR)

2. QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE COMPOSITION

Clarithromycin 500 mg, Immediate-Release Tablet:

One tablet contains 500 mg Clarithromycin.

Tablet sodium content: 6.1 mg per tablet

For the full list of excipients, see section List of Excipients.

3. PHARMACEUTICAL FORM

Clarithromycin IR Tablets: Pale yellow, ovaloid film-coated tablet

4. CLINICAL PARTICULARS

4.1 Therapeutic indications

ABBOTIC® (Clarithromycin) is indicated for the treatment of mild to moderate, infections caused by susceptible strains of the designated microorganisms in the conditions listed below:

- *) Upper respiratory tract infections:

 There is insufficient evidence of efficacy to support the use of clarithromycin in acute bronchitis in young children.
- **) Pharyngitis/Tonsilitis due to *Streptococcus pyogenes*.
- ***) Acute maxillary sinusitis due to *Streptococcus pneumoniae*, *H. influenzae*, *M. catarrhalis*.
- *) Lower respiratory tract infections:
 - **) Acute bacterial exacerbation of chronic bronchitis due to *Haemophilus influenzae*, *Moraxella catarrhalis* or *Streptococcus pneumoniae*.
 - **) Pneumonia due to Mycoplasma pneumoniae or Streptococcus pneumoniae.
- *) Uncomplicated skin and skin structure infections due to *Staphylococcus aureus* or *Streptococcus pyogenes*. Abscesses usually require surgical drainage.
- *) Disseminated mycorbacterial infections due to Mycobacterium avium and *Mycobacterium intracellular*.
- *) ABBOTIC[®] in the presence of acid suppression is indicated for the eradication of *H. pylori* resulting in decreased recurrence of duodenal ulcer. (See Further Information).

4.2 Posology and method of administration

The usual recommended dosage is 250 mg twice daily.

In more severe infections the dosage can be increased to 500 mg twice daily. The usual duration of therapy is 7 to 14 days.

For the treatment *Legionella pneumophila* infection, a dose of 500 mg twice daily for four weeks is appropriate.

In patients with renal impairment with creatinine clearance < 30 ml/minute the dosage should be reduced by one half i.e. 250 mg once daily or 250 mg twice daily in more severe infections treatment should not continued beyond 14 days in these patients.

Note: In the treatment of haemolytic streptococcal infectious, a therapeutic regimen should be administered at last ten days. The tablet should not be cut during use.

4.3 Contraindications

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

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

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

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

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

Clarithromycin should not be used concomitantly with HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors (statins) that are extensively metabolized by CYP3A4 (lovastatin or simvastatin), due to the increased risk of myopathy, including rhabdomyolysis (see section 4.4).

Clarithromycin (and other strong CYP3A4 inhibitors) should not be used concomitantly with colchicine (see sections 4.4 and 4.5).

Concomitant administration with ticagrelor or ranolazine is contraindicated.

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

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.

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

CLARITHROMYCIN is principally metabolized by the liver. Therefore, caution should be exercised in administering the antibiotic to patients with impaired hepatic function. Caution should also be exercised when administering CLARITHROMYCIN to patients with moderate to severe renal impairment.

Caution is advised in patients with severe renal insufficiency.

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. In some instances, hepatic failure with fatal outcome has been reported and generally has been associated with serious underlying diseases and/or concomitant medications. Discontinue clarithromycin immediately if signs and symptoms of hepatitis occur, 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 diarrhea (CDAD) has been reported with use of nearly all antibacterial agents including clarithromycin, and may range in severity from mild diarrhea 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 diarrhea following antibiotic use. Careful medical history is necessary since CDAD has been reported to occur over two months after the administration of antibacterial agents.

Colchicine

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

Prolonged cardiac repolarisation and QT interval, imparting a risk of developing cardiac arrhythmia and *torsades de pointes*, have been seen in treatment with macrolides including clarithromycin (see section 4.8). Therefore, as the following situations may lead to an increased risk for ventricular arrhythmias (including *torsades de pointes*), clarithromycin should be used with caution in the following patients;

- Patients with coronary artery disease, severe cardiac insufficiency, conduction disturbances or clinically relevant bradycardia
- Clarithromycin must not be given to patients with hypokalaemia or hypomagnesaemia (see section 4.3).
- Patients concomitantly taking other medicinal products associated with QT prolongation (see section 4.5).
- Concomitant administration of clarithromycin with astemizole, cisapride, pimozide and terfenadine is contraindicated (see section 4.3).
- Clarithromycin must not be used in patients with congenital or documented acquired QT prolongation or history of ventricular 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).

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 generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), Stevens-Johnson Syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis and 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).

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

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 (see 4.5).

Oral Hypoglycemic Agents/Insulin

The concomitant use of clarithromycin and oral hypoglycemic agents (such as sulphonylurias) and/or insulin can result in significant hypoglycemia. Careful monitoring of glucose is recommended.

Oral Anticoagulants

There is a risk of serious hemorrhage and significant elevations in INR and prothrombin time when clarithromycin is co-administered with warfarin. 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 and apixaban, particularly to patients at high risk of bleeding (see section 4.5).

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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, 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 increasing 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 2-3 fold increase in the serum level of the acid metabolites 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

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

Oral Midazolam

When midazolam was co-administered with clarithromycin tablets (500 mg twice daily), midazolam AUC was increased 7-fold after oral administration of midazolam. Concomitant administration of oral midazolam and clarithromycin 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.

Lomitapide

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

Effects of Other Medicinal Products on Clarithromycin

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/erythromycin> for any patients taking hydroxychloroquine or chloroquine.

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 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(R)-hydroxy-clarithromycin (14-OHclarithromycin), 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 Cmax increased by 31%, Cmin 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 gm/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 Bi-directional Drug Interactions).

Effect of Clarithromycin on Other Medicinal Products

Antiarrhythmics

There have been postmarketed reports of torsades de pointes occurring with concurrent use of clarithromycin and quinidine or disopyramide. Electrocardiograms should be monitored for QTc prolongation during co administration of clarithromycin with these drugs. Serum levels of these medications 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 hypoglycemic agents/Insulin

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

CYP3A-based Interactions

Co-administration of clarithromycin, known to inhibit CYP3A, and a drug primarily metabolized by CYP3A may be associated with elevations in drug concentrations that could increase or prolong both therapeutic and adverse effects of the concomitant drug. Clarithromycin should be used with caution in patients receiving treatment 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 metabolized by this enzyme. Dosage adjustments may be considered, and when possible, serum concentrations of drugs primarily metabolized by CYP3A should be monitored closely in patients concurrently receiving clarithromycin.

The following drugs or drug classes are known or suspected to be metabolized by the same CYP3A isozyme: alprazolam, astemizole, carbamazepine, cilostazol, cisapride, cyclosporine, disopyramide, ergot alkaloids, lovastatin, methylprednisolone, midazolam, omeprazole, oral anticoagulants (e.g. warfarin, rivaroxaban, apixaban), atypical antipsychotics (e.g. quetiapine), pimozide, quinidine, rifabutin, sildenafil, simvastatin, tacrolimus, terfenadine, triazolam and vinblastine, but this list is not comprehensive. Drugs interacting by similar mechanisms through other isozymes within the cytochrome P450 system include phenytoin, theophylline and valproate.

Direct acting oral anticoagulants (DOACs)

The DOAC dabigatran is a substrate 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).

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 (C_{max} , AUC_{0-24} , and $t_{1/2}$ 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.

Sildenafil, tadalafil, and vardenafil

Each of these phosphodiesterase inhibitors is metabolized, 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 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.

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 metabolizer 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 metabolized 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. Concomitant use of clarithromycin and colchicine is contraindicated (see sections 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 pediatric 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 metabolized 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.

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 coadministered 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.

<u>Itraconazole</u>

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 saquinavir are substrates and inhibitors of CYP3A, and there is evidence of a bi-directional drug interaction. Concomitant administration of clarithromycin (500 mg bid) and saquinavir (soft gelatin capsules, 1200 mg tid) to 12 healthy volunteers resulted in steady-state AUC and Cmax values of saquinavir which were 177% and 187% higher than those seen with saquinavir 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 saquinavir/ritonavir therapy. When saquinavir is co-administered with ritonavir, consideration should be given to the potential effects of ritonavir on clarithromycin (see section 4.5).

4.6 Fertility, Pregnancy and lactation

Pregnancy

The safety of clarithromycin for use in 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

Clarithromycin is excreted into human breast milk in small amounts. It has been estimated that an exclusively breastfed infant would receive about 1.7% of the maternal weight-adjusted dose of clarithromycin. The safety of clarithromycin use during breast-feeding of infants has not been established.

Fertility

In the rat, fertility studies have not shown any evidence of harmful effects.

4.7 Effects on ability to drive and use machines

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

4.8 Undesirable effects

The most frequent and common adverse reactions related to clarithromycin therapy for both adult and pediatric populations are abdominal pain, diarrhea, nausea, vomiting and taste perversion. These adverse reactions are usually mild in intensity and are consistent with the known safety profile of macrolide antibiotics.

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.

The following table displays adverse reactions reported in clinical trials and from post-marketing experience with clarithromycin IR.

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 < 1/100 to < 1/100), uncommon ($\geq 1/1,000$ to < 1/100) and not known (adverse reactions from post-marketing 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.

Adverse Reactions Reported with Clarithromycin						
MedDRA System	Very	Common	Uncommon	Not Known*		
Organ Class	common	$\geq 1/100 \text{ to} <$	$\geq 1/1,000 \text{ to} < 1/100$	(cannot be		
	≥ 1/10	1/10		estimated from the		
				available data)		
Infections and			Candidiasis, vaginal	Pseudomembranous		

Blood and Iymphatic system	infestations		infection	colitis, erysipelas
Immune system disorders Metabolism and nutrition disorders Psychiatric disorders Dysgeusia, headache Ear and labyrinth disorders Cardiac disorders Cardiac disorders Vascular disorders Psychiatric Gastrointestinal disorders Diarrhea, vomiting, dyspepsia, nausea, constipation, dyspepsia, nausea, constipation, dyspepsia, nausea, abdominal disorders Diarrhea, vomiting, dyspepsia, nausea, abdominal disorders Elepato Diarrhea, vomiting, abdominal discoloration, dappetic disorders, reaction, angloedema Anorexia, decreased appetite Psychotic disorder, confusional state, depersonalisation, depression, disorientation, abnormal dreams, mania Posygeusia, headache somolence, tremor parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia Dizziness, Convulsion, ageusia, parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia Deafness Cardiac disorders Cardiac dis	Blood and	Leukopenia,		Agranulocytosis,
Immune system disorders Hypersensitivity reaction, angioedema Metabolism and nutrition disorders Anorexia, decreased appetite Psychiatric disorders Insomnia Anxiety Psychotic disorder, confusional state, depersonalisation, depression, disorientation, hallucination, abnormal dreams, mania Nervous system disorders Dysgeusia, headache Dizziness, somnolence, tremor Convulsion, ageusia, parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia Ear and labyrinth disorders Vertigo, hearing impaired, tinnitus Deafness Cardiac disorders Electrocardiogram QT rorsade de pointes, ventricular tachycardia, palpitations Ventricular tachycardia, ventricular fibrillation Vascular disorders Electrocardiogram QT sentricular fibrillation Hemorrhage Gastrointestinal disorder Diarrhea, vomiting, dyspepsia, nausea, abdominal dyspepsia, nausea, abdominal pain Gastritis, stomatitis, tongue discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration mouth, eructation, pain Hepatobiliary Liver Cholestasis, Hepatic failure,	lymphatic system		neutropenia,	thrombocytopenia
disorders Anorexia, decreased appetite Psychiatric disorders Insomnia Anxiety Psychotic disorder, confusional state, depersonalisation, depression, disorientation, hallucination, abnormal dreams, mania Nervous system disorders Dysgeusia, headache Dizziness, somnolence, tremor parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia Convulsion, ageusia, parosmia, anosmia, paraesthesia Ear and labyrinth disorders Vertigo, hearing impaired, tinnitus Deafness Cardiac disorders Electrocardiogram QT prolonged, palpitations Torsade de pointes, ventricular fibrillation Vascular disorders Electrocardiogram qualpitations Ventricular fibrillation Vascular disorders Gastrointestinal disorder Hemorrhage Gastrointestinal disorders Diarrhea, vomiting, glossitis, abdominal discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration, pain Pancreatitis acute, tongue discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration, tooth discolouration Hepatobiliary Liver Cholestasis, Hepatic failure,			eosinophilia	
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disorders function test hepatitis, alanine jaundice	disorders	function test	hepatitis, alanine	jaundice
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Abbotic Tablet

500 mg

RDCCDS000046/9

		increased, aspartate	increased, aspartate	
		aminotransferase		
		increased,		
		gammaglutamyltrans		
		ferase		
		increased		
Skin and	Rash,	Pruritus, urticaria,	Severe cutaneous	
subcutaneous	hyperhidr	rosis rash	adverse reactions	
tissue			(SCAR) (e.g. Acute	
disorders			generalized	
			exanthematous	
			pustulosis (AGEP),	
			Stevens-Johnson	
			syndrome, toxic	
			epidermal necrolysis,	
			drug rash with	
			eosinophilia and	
			systemic symptoms	
			(DRESS), acne	
Musculoskeletal		Musculoskeletal	Myopathy	
and connective				
tissue disorders				
Renal and urinary			Renal failure,	
disorders			nephritis interstitial	
General disorders		Malaise, asthenia,		
and administration		chest pain, chills,		
site conditions		fatigue		
Investigations		Blood alkaline	International	
		phosphatase	normalised ratio	
		increased, blood	increased,	
		lactate	prothrombin time	
		dehydrogenase	prolonged, urine	
		increased	color abnormal	

^{*} 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.

^{**}In some of the reports of rhabdomyolysis, clarithromycin was administered concomitantly with other drugs known to be associated with rhabdomyolysis (such as statins, fibrates, colchicine or allopurinol).

Immunocompromised Patients

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 HIV disease or intercurrent illness.

In adult patients, the most frequently reported adverse events by patients events treated with total doses of 1,000 mg and 2,000 mg of CLARITHROMYCIN were: nausea, vomiting, taste perversion, abdominal pain, diarrhea rash, flatulence, headache, constipation, hearing disturbance, SGOT and SGPT elevations. Additional low-frequency events included dyspepsia, insomnia, and dry mouth.

In these immunocompromised patients evaluations of laboratory values were made by analyzing those values outside the seriously abnormal level (i.e., the extreme high or low limit) for the specified test. On the basis of this criteria, about 2 to 3% of these patients who received 1000 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 also had elevated BUN levels.

4.9 Overdose

Symptoms

Reports indicate that the ingestion of large amounts of clarithromycin can be expected to produce gastrointestinal symptoms. One patient who had a history of bipolar disorder ingested 8 grams of clarithromycin and showed altered mental status, paranoid behavior, hypokalemia, and hypoxemia.

Treatment

Adverse reactions accompanying overdosage should be treated by the prompt elimination of unabsorbed drug and supportive measures. As with other macrolides, clarithromycin serum are not expected to be appreciably affected by hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis.

5. PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES

5.1 Pharmacodynamic properties

Pharmacotherapeutic group: Antibacterial for systemic use, macrolide

ATC-Code: J01FA09

ABBOTIC[®] (Clarithromycin) is a semi-synthetic macrolide antibiotic obtained by substitution of a CH₃O group for the hydroxyl (OH) group at position 6 of the erythromycin lactonic ring. Specifically, Clarithromycin is 6-0 Methyl Erythromycin A. The white to off white antibiotic

powder is practically odorless, essentially insoluble in water, and slightly soluble in ethanol, methanol and acetonitrile. Its molecular weight is 747.96.

Microbiology

Clarithromycin exerts its antibacterial action by binding to the 50S ribosomal subunits of susceptible bacteria and suppressing protein synthesis.

Clarithromycin has demonstrated excellent *in vitro* activity against both standard strains of bacteria and clinical isolates. It is highly potent against a wide variety of aerobic and anaerobic Gram-positive and Gram-negative organisms. The minimum inhibitory concentrations (MICs) of clarithromycin are generally one log₂ dilution more potent than the MICs of erythromycin.

In vitro data also indicate clarithromycin has activity against Legionella pneumophila and Mycoplasma pneumoniae. It is bactericidal to Helicobacter pylori; this activity of clarithromycin is greater at neutral pH than at acid pH. In vitro and in vivo data show this antibiotic has activity against clinically significant mycobacterial species.

The in vitro data indicate Enterobacteriaceae, pseudomonas species and other non-lactose fermenting Gram-negative bacilli are not susceptible to clarithromycin.

Clarithromycin has been shown to be active against most strains of the following microorganisms both in vitro and in clinical infections as described in section 4.1:

Aerobic Gram-Positive microorganisms

Staphylococcus aureus
Streptococcus pneumoniae
Streptococcus pyogenes
Listeria monocytogenes

Aerobic Gram-negative microorganisms

Haemophilus influenzae Haemophilus parainfluenzae Moraxella catarrhalis Neisseria gonorrhoeae Legionella pneumophila

Other microorganisms

Mycoplasma pneumoniae Chlamydia pneumoniae (TWAR)

Mycobacteria

Mycobacterium leprae Mycobacterium avium complex (MAC) consisting of: Mycobacterium avium Mycobacterium Intracellulare Beta-lactamase production should have no effect on clarithromycin activity.

NOTE: Most strains of methicillin-resistant and oxacillin-resistant staphylococci are resistant to clarithromycin.

Helicobacter

Helicobacter pylori

In cultures performed prior to therapy, *H. pylori* was isolated and clarithromycin MIC's were determined pre-treatment in 104 patients. Of these, four patients had resistant strains, two patients had strains with intermediate susceptibility, and 98 patients had susceptible strains. The following *in vitro* data are available, **but their clinical significance is unknown.** Clarithromycin exhibits *in vitro* activity against most strains of the following microorganisms; however, the safety and effectiveness of clarithromycin in treating clinical infections due to these microorganisms have not been established in adequate and well-controlled clinical trials.

Aerobic Gram-positive microorganisms

Streptococcus agalactiae Viridans group streptococci

Aerobic Gram-negative microorganisms

Bordetella pertussis Pasteurella multocida

Anaerobic Gram-positive microorganisms

Clostridium perfringens Peptococcus niger Propionibacterium acnes

Anaerobic Gram-negative microorganisms

Bacteroides melaninogenicus

Spirochetes

Borrelia burgdorferi

Campylobacter

Campylobacter jejuni

The principal metabolite of clarithromycin in man and other primates is a microbiologically-active metabolite, 14-OH-Clarithromycin. This metabolite is as active or 1- to 2-fold less active than the parent compound for most organisms, except for *H. influenzae* against which it is twice

as active. The parent compound and the 14-OH-metabolite exert either an additive or synergistic effect on *H. influenzae* in vitro and in vivo, depending on bacterial strains.

Clarithromycin was found to be two to ten times more active than erythromycin in several experimental animal infection models. It was shown, for example, to be more effective than erythromycin in mouse systemic infection, mouse subcutaneous abscess, and mouse respiratory tract infections caused by *S. pneumoniae*, *S. aureus*, *S. pyogenes*, and *H. influenzae*. In guinea pigs with Legionella infection this effect was more pronounced; an intraperitoneal dose of 1.6 mg/kg/day of clarithromycin was more effective than 50 mg/kg/day of erythromycin.

Susceptibility Test:

Quantitative methods that require measurement of zone diameters give the most precise estimates susceptibility of bacteria to antimicrobial agents. One recommended procedure uses discs impregnated with 15 mcg of clarithromycin for testing susceptibility (Kirby-Bauer diffusion test); interpretations correlate inhibition zone diameters of this disc test with MIC values for clarithromycin. The MIC's are determined by the broth or agar dilution method.

With these procedures, a report from the laboratory of "susceptible" indicates the infecting organism is likely to respond to therapy. A report of "resistant" indicates the infective organism is not likely to respond to therapy. A report of "Intermediate Susceptibility" suggests the therapeutic effect of the drug may be equivocal or the organism would be susceptible if higher doses were used. (Intermediate susceptibility is also referred to as moderately susceptible).

Clinical Studies

Helicobacter pylori is strongly associated with peptic ulcer disease. Ninety (90) to 100% of patients with duodenal ulcers are infected with this pathogen. Eradication of *H. pylori* has been shown to reduce the rate of duodenal ulcer recurrence, thereby reducing the need for maintenance anti-secretory therapy.

5.2 Pharmacokinetic properties

Absorption

The kinetics of orally administered clarithromycin has been studied extensively in a number of animal species and adult humans. These studies have shown that clarithromycin is readily and rapidly absorbed with an absolute bioavailability of approximately 50%. Little or no accumulation was found and the metabolic disposition did not change in any species following multiple dosing. Food intake immediately before dosing increases clarithromycin bioavailability by a mean of 25%. Overall, this increase is minor and should be of little clinical significance with the recommended dosing regimens. Clarithromycin may thus be administered in either the presence or absence of food.

<u>Distribution</u>, <u>Biotransformation and Elimination</u> *In vitro*

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In vitro studies showed that the protein binding of clarithromycin in human plasma averaged about 70% at concentrations of 0.45-4.5 mcg/mL. A decrease in binding to 41% at 45.0 mcg/mL suggested that the binding sites might become saturated, but this only occurred at concentrations far in excess of the therapeutic drug levels.

In vivo

Results of animal studies showed clarithromycin levels in all tissues, except the central nervous system, were several times higher than the circulating drug levels. The highest concentrations were usually found in the liver and lung where the tissue to plasma (T/P) ratios reached 10 to 20.

Normal Subjects

With b.i.d. dosing at 250 mg, the peak steady state plasma concentration was attained in 2 to 3 days and averaged about 1 mcg/mL for clarithromycin and 0.6 mcg/mL for 14-hydroxy clarithromycin, while the elimination half-lives of the parent drug and metabolite ware 3-4 hours and 5-6 hours, respectively.

With b.i.d. dosing at 500 mg, the steady state C_{max} for clarithromycin and its hydroxylated metabolite averaged 2.7-2.9 mcg/mL and 0.88-0.83 mcg/mL, respectively. The half-life of the parent drug at the 500 mg dose level was 4.5-4.8 hours, while that of the 14-hydroxy clarithromycin was 6.9-8.7 hours. At steady state the 14-hydroxy clarithromycin levels did not increase proportionately with the clarithromycin dose, and the apparent half-lives of both clarithromycin and its hydroxylated metabolite tended to be longer at the high doses.

In human adults given single oral doses of 250 mg or 1200 mg clarithromycin urinary excretion accounted for 37.9% of the lower dose and 46.0% of the higher dose. Fecal elimination accounted for 40.2% and 29.1 % of these respective doses.

Patients

Clarithromycin and its 14-OH metabolite distributed readily into body tissues and fluids. Limited data from a small number of patients suggests that clarithromycin does not achieve significant levels in cerebrospinal fluid after oral doses (i.e., only 1 to 2 percent of serum levels in CSF in patients with normal blood-CSF barries). Concentrations in tissues are usually several fold higher than serum concentrations. Examples from tissue and serum concentrations are presented below:

CONCENTRATION				
(after 250 mg q12 h)				
Tissue	Tissue	Serum		
Type	(mcg/g)	(mcg/mL)		
Tonsil	1.6	0.8		
Lung	8.8	1.7		

Hepatic Impairment

In a study comparing one group of healthy human subjects with a group of subjects with liver impairment who were given 250 mg of clarithromycin b.i.d. for two days and a single 250 mg dose the third day, steady state plasma levels and systemic clearing of clarithromycin were not significantly different between the two groups. In contrast, steady state concentrations of the 14-OH metabolite were markedly lower in the group of hepatic-impaired subjects. This decreased metabolic clearance of the parent compound by 14-hydroxylation was partially offset by an increase in the renal clearance of parent drug, resulting in comparable steady state levels of parent drug in the hepatic impaired and healthy subjects. These results indicate that no adjustment of dosage in necessary for subjects with moderate or severe hepatic impairment but with normal renal function.

Renal Impairment

A study was conducted to evaluate and compare the pharmacokinetic profile of multiple 500 mg oral doses of clarithromycin in subjects with normal and decreased renal function. The plasma levels, half-life, Cmax and Cmin for both clarithromycin and its 14-OH metabolite were higher and AUC was larger in subjects with renal impairment. K elimination and urinary excretion were lower. The extent to which these parameters differed was correlated with the degree of renal impairment; the more severe the renal impairment, the more significant the difference (see DOSAGE AND ADMINISTRATION).

Elderly subjects: A study was also conducted to evaluate and compare the safety and pharmacokinetic profiles of multiple 500 mg oral doses of clarithromycin in healthy elderly male and female subjects to those in healthy young adult male subjects. The elderly group, circulating plasma levels were higher and elimination slower than in the younger group for both parent drug and 14-OH metabolite. However, there was no difference between the two groups when renal clearance was correlated with creatinine clearance. It is concluded from those result that any effect the handling on the handling of clarithromycin is related to renal function and not to age per se.

Mycobacterium avium Infections

Steady-state concentrations of clarithromycin and 14-OH-clarithromycin observed following administration of 500 mg doses of clarithromycin every 12 hours to adult patients with HIV infection were similar to those observed in normal subjects. However, at the higher doses which may be required to treat Mycobacterium avium infections, clarithromycin concentrations were much higher than those observed at the usual doses. In adult HIV-infected patients taking 1000 and 2000 mg/day in two divided doses, steady-state clarithromycin Cmax values ranged from 2 to 4 μ g/ml and 5 to 10 μ g/ml, respectively. Elimination half-lives appeared to be lengthened at these higher doses as compared to that seen with usual doses in normal subjects. The higher

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plasma concentrations and longer elimination half lives observed at these doses are consistent with the known nonlinearity in clarithromycin pharmacokinetics.

Concomitant Omeprazole Administration

A pharmacokinetic study was conducted with clarithromycin 500 mg t.i.d. and omeprazole 40 mg once daily. When clarithromycin was given alone at 500 mg every eight hours, the mean steady-state C_{max} value was approximately 3.8 μ g/ml and the mean C_{min} value was approximately 1.8 μ g/ml. The mean AUC_{0-8} for clarithromycin was 22.9 μ g/hr/ml. The Tmax and half-life were 2.1 hr and 5.3 hr, respectively, when clarithromycin was dosed at 500 mg t.i.d. In the same study when clarithromycin 500 mg t.i.d. was administered with omeprazole 40 mg once daily, increases in omeprazole half-life and AUC_{0-24} were observed. For all subjects combined, the mean omeprazole AUC_{0-24} was 89% greater and the harmonic mean for omeprazole $T_{1/2}$ was 34% greater when omeprazole was administered with clarithromycin than when omeprazole was administered alone. When clarithromycin was administered with omeprazole, the steady state C_{max} , C_{min} , and AUC_{0-8} of clarithromycin was administered with placebo.

At steady state, clarithromycin gastric mucus concentration six hours post dosing were approximately 25-fold higher in the clarithromycin/omeprazole group compared with the clarithromycin alone group. Six hours post-dosing, mean clarithromycin gastric tissue concentrations were approximately 2-fold higher when clarithromycin was given with omeprazole than when clarithromycin was given with placebo.

6. PHARMACEUTICAL PARTICULARS

6.1 List of excipients

Clarithromycin 500 mg, Immediate-Release Tablet (IR)

Tablet Core

Sodium croscarmellose

Microcrystalline cellulose

Silicon dioxide

Povidone

Stearic acid

Magnesium stearate

Talc

Tablet Coating, Colour and Gloss Coating

Hydroxypropyl methylcellulose

Sorbitan monooleate

Propylene glycol

Titanium dioxide

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Hydroxypropyl cellulose Vanillin Dye Yellow Sorbic acid

HOW SUPPLIED

Abbotic[®] Filmtab 500 mg List No. L214 Box, 3 blisters @ 10 Film-coated tablets Reg. No.: DKL0400202117A2

Store at temperature not exceed 30°C and dry.

ON MEDICAL PRESCRIPTION ONLY HARUS DENGAN RESEP DOKTER

Manufactured by:

PT. Abbott Indonesia Jl. Raya Jakarta Bogor km. 37 Depok, Indonesia

Under Controlled by:

Abbott Laboratories, ILL, USA

Refer to RDCCDS000046 v1.0-v8.0 Date of Revision: 23 June 2023 L009/06/23