

EXTENDED ANTIDEPRESSANT MAINTENANCE AND DISCONTINUATION SYNDROMES

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Unipolar and bipolar depression are episodic, recurrent illnesses for the majority of patients. Because each episode engenders considerable costs for patients, families, and society, prevention of recurrences has high priority. Numerous studies demonstrate that maintenance antidepressants or mood stabilizing medications are efficacious in preventing recurrences. A review of maintenance studies supports the view that all antidepressants perform significantly better than placebo in preventing recurrences of depression—with the stipulation that full antidepressant doses be employed. Earliest studies, conducted two decades ago, evaluated tricyclics (TCAs), heterocyclics, and lithium, while recent studies have focused on selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs). Compliance is essential. Strategies for enhancing compliance include selection of medications with reported safety and few side effects, education of patients and families, referral to patient advocacy groups, and use of new technological compliance aids. Preliminary data suggest that SSRIs are better tolerated than TCAs; fewer patients discontinue these agents due to side effects. Selection criteria for maintenance treatment have not been well determined, but three or more prior episodes is recognized as a relatively strong indicator. Other clinical or genetic criteria have also been suggested.

For various reasons, patients may discontinue medications, and when this happens withdrawal phenomena may occur. Withdrawal effects are well documented for all antidepressants and can be profound with TCAs. After stopping some SSRIs, a few withdrawal symptoms may have similarities with those following discontinuation of TCAs, but unique “CNS-like” effects are frequently described, including brief recurrent episodes of dizziness, lightheadedness, vertigo, electric shock-like sensations, and gait instability. These appear to be half-life dependent, with agents with shorter half-lives having more discontinuation symptoms. If antidepressant medications must be discontinued, a gradual taper is preferable, perhaps extending three to six months or longer to prevent discontinuation effects, enable adaptation at the receptor level and allow earlier recognition and treatment of recurrent depressive symptoms. Depression and Anxiety, Volume 8, Supplement 1:43-53, 1998. © 1998 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

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LONGITUDINAL COURSE OF DEPRESSION

Depression is an episodic, recurrent illness for the majority of those afflicted. Estimates from longitudinal assessments have shown that 50–95% of patients with major depressive disorder (MDD) will experience multiple episodes over their lifespans unless maintenance treatment is provided (Angst et al., 1973; Frank et al., 1990; Goodwin and Jamison, 1990; Greden, 1993; Grof et al., 1973; Kraepelin, 1921; Montgomery,

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1988; NIMH/NIH, 1985; Thase, 1990). Natural history assessments demonstrate that, for many, each successive depressive episode tends to occur sooner, last longer, intensify in severity, and perhaps become more difficult to treat (Grof, 1973; Keller et al., 1982a,b; Keller, 1983, 1985; Kraepelin, 1921; Post et al., 1986; Post, 1992, 1994; Roy-Byrne, 1985; Zis and Goodwin, 1979). Given these observations, maintenance treatment of depression has been advocated for selected patients (Greden, 1993; Hirschfeld, 1994), and the importance of extended maintenance has received progressively more attention during each passing year.

WHAT IS MAINTENANCE TREATMENT?

For nosologic and conceptual reasons, treatment for depression has been conceptualized to occur in three phases (acute, continuation, and maintenance (Kupfer, 1991)) and the "5 R's" (response, remission, relapse, recovery, and recurrence) have been proposed as points of change during treatment (Frank et al., 1991; Kupfer, 1991). Such designations are a bit arbitrary since the natural longitudinal course for most patients tends to be irregular and unpredictable, with recurrences and relapses occurring at variable time intervals after maintenance is discontinued. Thus, it can be argued that for many and, perhaps, most patients, true "recovery" never occurs. While the designation of phases provided helpful semantic standardization, this review will not employ the terms "continuation treatment" or "recovery" and will operationally define maintenance treatment as including any and all treatments that follow the resolution of the acute episode and are intended to prevent reappearance of symptoms. It may be of any duration and even persist for one's lifetime, with its major objectives being prevention of worsening of severity, overt relapses, or recurrence of MDD at any time in the future.

MAINTENANCE TREATMENT OPTIONS

Most maintenance treatments are extensions of treatments used for acute depressive episodes. A categorical list of options includes medications alone, psychotherapy alone, medications plus psychotherapy, and somatic treatments such as electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) or phototherapy (APA, 1990; Beck et al., 1979; Covi et al., 1974; Doogan and Caillard, 1992; Elkin et al., 1989; Frank et al., 1993; Jacobson et al., 1991; Katon et al., 1992; Klerman et al., 1974; Kupfer et al., 1992; Montgomery et al., 1988; Prien et al., 1984; Rehm, 1979; Rush et al., 1977; Thase, 1990). This list of options is somewhat misleading, however, since adequate data have been collected only for medications or for the combination of antidepressant medications plus psychotherapy. Too few con-

trolled studies have assessed psychotherapy alone, somatic interventions alone, or various other combinations of treatments. This review will focus on extended maintenance with antidepressant medications, the only known approach having established efficacy.

ANTIDEPRESSANT MEDICATIONS AVAILABLE FOR MAINTENANCE

Over the past four decades, the antidepressant armamentarium available to clinicians has grown steadily. Prescribing changes have paralleled the increased availability of options. Tricyclic and heterocyclic agents dominated prescription patterns for almost three decades, so it is understandable that most earlier maintenance studies assessed these agents. Since the introduction of fluoxetine one decade ago and the release of other SSRIs during subsequent years, these agents have rapidly become first-line choices (Nemeroff, 1994; Tollefson, 1993), largely due to their greater tolerability, safety, ease of prescription, and fewer side effects (these aspects are addressed elsewhere in this special issue). Because SSRIs have only been widely used for 5–10 years (depending on the agent), fewer studies have evaluated their effectiveness. The SSRI maintenance database is expanding rapidly, however.

METHODOLOGIC CRITERIA FOR MAINTENANCE ANTIDEPRESSANT TREATMENT STUDIES

When seeking to assess the long-term effectiveness of maintenance treatment, naturalistic data can be misleading and interpretations risky. Greden (in press) has suggested that studies used to determine effectiveness of maintenance should minimally incorporate: 1) a placebo control, 2) a treatment duration of 12 to 18 months (preferably longer), 3) adequate dosage, 4) monitoring of compliance, and 5) control for concomitant treatments. Sadly, fewer than 25–30 studies meet most of these criteria; impressively, virtually all strongly support the superiority of maintenance antidepressant medications when compared with placebo.

EFFECTIVENESS OF MAINTENANCE ANTIDEPRESSANT MEDICATIONS

Maintenance antidepressants prevent relapses in the majority of patients over a long-term course. They are the only interventions known to do so. This is a profound observation, but despite its importance it has not been widely incorporated into practice.

Table 1 lists studies on maintenance antidepressants with acceptable methodologic criteria. As stated, earlier studies generally employed tricyclics or lithium as the maintenance agents. Most were at the minimum range of acceptable duration (12–18 months). Clinical approximations are difficult, but an estimate from the best studies suggests that about 75% of patients remain euthymic for 12–36 months or longer, if adequate maintenance treatment is provided, whereas 50–75% of those with multiple prior episodes relapse if maintenance is discontinued. A conservative statement from all studies is that recurrence rates tend to be at least twice as large for those crossed over to placebo as for those maintained on antidepressants, but the differences are likely to be greater since adequate maintenance doses were not always used in earlier

studies (discussed below). The longest and best placebo-controlled investigation was a three-year study by Frank et al. (1990), with a subsequent two-year extension for some subjects by these same investigators (Kupfer et al., 1992). These two reports strongly substantiated the effectiveness of imipramine, revealing that this TCA was successful in preventing recurrences of depression in almost eight of every ten patients, even after three years.

Published reports to date about SSRI maintenance therapy include three one-year studies, one of fluoxetine (Montgomery et al., 1988), one of paroxetine (Montgomery and Dunbar, 1993), and one of sertraline (Doogan and Caillard, 1992). All three SSRIs were shown to perform significantly better than placebo in preventing recurrences of depression. Kocsis

TABLE 1. Efficacy of antidepressant maintenance vs. placebo in prevention of unipolar depression, percent relapse*

| Reference | Medication | Placebo | Rx | Significance |
|------------------------------|---------------|---------|---------------------------|--------------|
| Newer Agents | | | | |
| <i>SSRIs</i> | | | | |
| Bjork, 1983 | Zimelidine | 84 | 32 | .001 |
| Montgomery et al., 1988 | Fluoxetine | 57 | 26 | .001 |
| Jakovljevic and Mewett, 1991 | Paroxetine | 23 | 14 | N.S. |
| Doogan and Caillard, 1992 | Sertraline | 46 | 13 | .001 |
| Claghorn and Feighner, 1993 | Paroxetine | 25 | 15 | N/A |
| Montgomery and Dunbar, 1993 | Paroxetine | 30 | 14 | .05 |
| Montgomery et al., 1993 | Citalopram | 31 | 10 | .05 |
| Kocsis et al., 1997 | Sertraline | N/A | 83 | N/A |
| Wilson et al., 1997 | Sertraline | | abstract only, no results | |
| <i>Others</i> | | | | |
| Anton et al., 1994 | Nefazodone | 25 | 9 | .01 |
| Feiger et al., 1996,1997 | Nefazodone | 14 | 1.6 | .01 |
| Entsuah et al., 1996 | Venlafaxine | 34 | 20 | <.03 |
| Montgomery and Kremer, 1997 | Mirtazapine | 35 | 8 | .0001 |
| Older Agents | | | | |
| <i>TCAs</i> | | | | |
| Prien et al., 1973 | Imipramine | 85 | 29 | .01 |
| Coppen et al., 1978 | Amitriptyline | 31 | 0 | .01 |
| Kane et al., 1982 | Imipramine | 100 | 67 | N.S. |
| Glen et al., 1984 | Amitriptyline | 88 | 43 | .05 |
| Prien et al., 1984 | Imipramine | 71 | 44 | .05 |
| Frank et al., 1990 | Imipramine | 78 | 21 | .001 |
| Jakovljevic and Mewett, 1991 | Imipramine | 23 | 12 | .05 |
| Rouillon et al., 1991 | Maprotiline | 32 | 16 | .01 |
| Kupfer et al., 1992 | Imipramine | 67 | 9 | .006 |
| Claghorn and Feighner, 1993 | Imipramine | 25 | 4 | N/A |
| Anton et al., 1994 | Nefazodone | 25 | 8 | .05 |
| Montgomery and Kremer, 1997 | Mirtazapine | 35 | 21 | .002 |
| <i>MAOIs</i> | | | | |
| Georgotas et al., 1989 | Phenelzine | 65 | 13 | .05 |
| Robinson et al., 1991 | Phenelzine | 75 | 10 | .001 |
| <i>Lithium</i> | | | | |
| Prien et al., 1973 | Lithium | 85 | 4 | .05 |
| Prien et al., 1973 | Lithium | 71 | 57 | .05 |
| Schou, 1979 | Lithium | 84 | 29 | .001 |
| Kane et al., 1992 | Lithium | 100 | 29 | .001 |
| Glen et al., 1984 | Lithium | 88 | 42 | .05 |

*Time periods for relapse/recurrence vary considerably: several studies are 9 to 12 months from starting placebo, most are approximately 12 months, several are 12 to 24 months, and two are longer than 36 months (Frank et al., 1990; Kupfer et al., 1992).

et al. (1997) presented preliminary findings on a two-year maintenance study using sertraline, employing the terminology recommended by Kupfer (1991). Eighty-three percent of 22 sertraline responders maintained their response during a "continuation phase." Results are pending for the "maintenance phase." Entsuah et al. (1996) evaluated venlafaxine and concluded it also is more effective than placebo ($P = 0.022$) in maintaining the initial clinical response, but limitations of the study included a low relapse rate for placebo and a low completion rate. Anton et al. (1994) demonstrated nefazodone as more effective than placebo ($P = 0.01$). Finally, Feiger et al. (1996) demonstrated that nefazodone was more effective than placebo in sustaining euthymia, but the placebo group in this study also had a low relapse rate and the study was only nine months in duration. The importance of relatively complete resolution of symptoms is suggested by Judd's (1997) observation that patients who still suffer subsyndromal depressive symptoms relapse 5.5 times more rapidly than patients who had no residual depressive symptoms.

Montgomery (1991) argues that "the evidence in favor of SSRIs as a group is now stronger than the evidence for the tricyclic antidepressants" because of the variability in study quality among the earlier generation of studies. Silverstone (1992) maintained, however, that the newer antidepressants have not yet been proven more effective than the standard TCAs. Only "head-to-head" comparisons with adequate samples of patients with prior documented recurrences will truly answer this debate, and they must incorporate adequate treatment duration and adequate dosage. In essence, there is a dire need for longer-term, well-controlled studies with both older and newer agents and with augmenting strategies.

Meanwhile, a conservative summary suggests that while all antidepressants are more effective than no treatment, no class of antidepressants can yet be clearly shown to be superior to another in research settings, where compliance considerations are better controlled.

IMPORTANCE OF ADEQUATE DOSAGE

Maintenance assessments from the 1970s routinely used a study design that lowered the dosage when the maintenance phase was reached (e.g., Prien et al., 1973). While virtually all such studies still showed that active medication maintenance was superior to placebo treatment—even after doses were lowered from those used during acute treatment—the results almost certainly would have been more impressive if investigators had employed full dosages of antidepressant medications during the maintenance phase. The dose of antidepressant needed for long-term maintenance has been addressed by Frank (1993) and Montgomery (1997), with the conclusion that the full antidepressant

doses are needed for long-term treatment. Until any agent is shown to have equal effectiveness at lower doses, it should be assumed that full antidepressant doses ("whatever was required to end the acute episode") are needed for long-term treatment for all antidepressants (Montgomery, 1997).

IMPACT OF COMBINATIONS AND MEDICATION "SWITCHES"

Few studies have evaluated the combination of TCAs and psychotherapy (Frank et al., 1990), and no long-term standardized assessments have compared combinations of SSRIs and psychotherapy with SSRIs alone. The efficacy of combination drug therapy vs. drug monotherapy also is poorly studied (Almatura and Percudani, 1993). Similarly, anecdotal reports actually suggest that "switches" may lead to a greater risk of relapse and that the transition can often be a difficult time. While the absence of standardized studies makes generalizations risky, it is prudent to assume that the antidepressant that produces remission in the short term generally should be continued during maintenance. If the caveat of "let the switcher beware" is accepted, the clinician should consider "long-term" or "maintenance" aspects at the time of writing the first prescription, obviously choosing an agent that is believed to resolve not only the acute episode but will be safe, well tolerated, associated with maximal compliance, and effective in maintaining euthymia over an indefinite, extended time period—perhaps over the patient's remaining lifetime.

SELECTION CRITERIA FOR EXTENDED MAINTENANCE TREATMENT

Current selection criteria for maintenance antidepressant treatment are summarized in Table 2. Perhaps the best accepted criterion is that individuals with three or more documented episodes of MDD are recommended for indefinite treatment with antidepressant medications, with the rationale being that the majority of those with multiple episodes appear to have another episode within one to two years unless maintenance treatment is continued (summarized in Greden, in press). Other criteria are less well substantiated and rely upon clinical, genetic or laboratory features. These features include patients with a strong family history of mood disorders; a prior episode of profound severity; prior suicidal behavior; prior psychosis; prior documented relapse following treatment discontinuation; prior demonstrated treatment refractoriness and chronicity; and coexisting medical problems or complications of aging that would make another episode hazardous. Some data suggest that if the "first episode" occurred when the patient was

TABLE 2. Indications for extended maintenance antidepressants: patient characteristics

| Number of prior episodes (1) | Clinical features (2) | Genetic history or laboratory data (3) |
|--|---|---|
| Three or more prior episodes of MDD | | |
| One or two prior episodes of MDD coupled with columns two or three | Prior suicidal behavior Treatment refractoriness Psychosis Concurrent medical, personal or occupational circumstances that make future episodes "hazardous" Prompt relapse following prior discontinuation of treatment | Positive family history of mood disorders Persistent HPA dysregulation |
| Chronic dysthymia coupled with: | MDD ("Double Depression") | |

older, the risk of relapse is higher without maintenance treatment (Grof et al., 1973; Zis and Goodwin, 1979), but these observations may be confounded by unrecorded prior episodes or those with mild severity that did not meet diagnostic criteria for MDD. Patients who have had abnormal hypothalamic-pituitary adrenal dysregulation that fails to normalize despite improvement in symptoms also appear at higher risk for prompt relapse if treatment is discontinued (Greden et al., 1983; Ribeiro et al., 1993).

ATTENUATION OF RESPONSE TO MAINTENANCE TREATMENT

Systematic controlled maintenance studies have not been conducted for longer than five years, so it cannot be definitively stated that beneficial effects remain indefinitely. Nevertheless, clinical experience with TCAs suggests that euthymia may be successfully maintained for decades. Some anecdotal reports have suggested that the initial clinical response to an SSRI may fade with time, possibly with a subsequent relapse (Goldberg et al., 1995), but lacking well-controlled studies this observation remains in question. Fava (1995) observed that patients may improve with higher or lower doses, different SSRIs, supplementation with TCAs, or adjuvant agents such as lithium or psychostimulants. However, such recovery may also be transient. Confirmation of this possible attenuation pattern requires further study. Should attenuation exist, effective clinical interventions need to be sought (Goldberg et al., 1995).

RISK-BENEFIT RATIO

The risk-benefit ratio for extended antidepressant maintenance treatment appears favorable. Studies to date have not shown any major long-term medical complications to be associated with maintenance use of TCAs, SSRIs, or other antidepressants, with the exception of long-term lithium treatment, which can induce distal renal tubular fibrosis in a small percentage of users. Clinicians must continue to be alert to possible deleterious consequences that might develop after years of treatment (including assessment of the question of whether extended antidepressant

maintenance treatment might induce neurobiological changes that actually increase the likelihood of relapse if medications are ever discontinued). Since our experience base is already vast, long-term adverse manifestations seem unlikely. In comparison, the risks of treatment discontinuation are well documented and serious. Repeat episodes of depression cost lives, destroy function, and are grossly expensive to society. Recurrence should be prevented whenever possible.

COMPLIANCE: A VARIABLE IN MAINTENANCE TREATMENT

A requisite for effective maintenance of euthymia is that the patient must take the medication prescribed. The ideal medication would thus have well-established efficacy, high safety profile, few or no troubling side effects, few drug-drug interactions (and none that present major safety considerations), demonstrated long-term effectiveness, simplicity of use, and clear cost-effectiveness (Mendels, 1992; Preskorn, 1995). While no current antidepressant completely fulfills this idealized check list, there are important differences among antidepressant classes. Tricyclics have demonstrated acute efficacy and long-term effectiveness but are notable for their preponderance of major adverse events, some of which can be life-threatening, especially among elderly patients (e.g., cardiac arrhythmias or orthostatic hypotension, with falls and fractures). TCAs also have lethal suicide potential and they produce an array of unpleasant side effects (dry mouth, sedation, weight gain, blurry vision, urinary hesitancy, lethargy) that make long-term use difficult.

COMPLIANCE AND TOLERABILITY OF SSRIS VS. TCAS AND HETEROCYCLICS

The paucity of life-threatening or troublesome anticholinergic side effects for the SSRIs largely explains why they have become "first-line" agents, although their greater effectiveness in patients with atypical depression or those with selected comorbid syndromes such as depression and obsessive-compulsive disorder

also has contributed to their higher acceptance. While the more favorable side effect and safety profile of SSRIs make them more "user-friendly" for physicians, of greater relevance for maintenance is the fact they appear to result in higher compliance among patients. For example, Montgomery et al. (1994) conducted a meta-analysis of 42 published randomized control trials investigating the discontinuation rates of the TCAs and SSRIs, whether motivated by side effects or perceived lack of efficacy. Stoppage rates were similar for lack of efficacy, but discontinuation rates for side effect reasons were significantly greater for TCAs ($P < 0.01$). The authors concluded that SSRIs are favored as first-line treatments primarily because of better tolerability and less toxicity. Schatzberg (1997) reviewed 16 controlled studies of SSRIs in severe depression and concluded that SSRIs are superior to placebo and as effective but better tolerated than TCAs. Anderson and Tomenson (1995) also concluded that SSRIs were better tolerated than TCAs as measured by side effect dropout rates but were not convinced the differences were clinically or economically relevant. Hotopf et al. (1997) studied the discontinuation rates of SSRIs, older and newer TCAs, and heterocyclic antidepressants and concluded that the SSRI discontinuation rates were not significantly different from the heterocyclic compounds or the newer TCAs and recommended tricyclics as the first-line medication. This topic requires further study.

STRATEGIES FOR ENHANCING COMPLIANCE

Even with the most favorable agents, compliance rates with antidepressants are disturbingly low for most patients treated for depression. The nature of this disease is that it seems to discourage many patients from seeking or sustaining treatment. Thus, physicians and associated members of the treatment team must work diligently to enhance compliance. Table 3 lists clinical recommendations for antidepressant maintenance medications. A number of new technological innovations have been introduced that may aid in this task during future years. One example is the use of computerized "memory caps" for the medication bottle, with each cap containing digital time and date windows that change whenever the cap is removed. The cap provides a visual reminder to the patient of the time of the last dosage. The caps, when linked to a computer via a modem, also generate computerized printouts that illustrate compliance and this information can be used to identify patterns (e.g., skipping doses on weekends) and provide opportunities to reemphasize the importance of adherence to recommended timetables. Such innovations may be especially helpful with cognitively impaired patients. Another example of future technology is the use of the

TABLE 3. Clinical recommendations for antidepressant maintenance medications

| |
|---|
| "Full-dose" for all agents |
| Choose a medication with favorable side effect and safety profiles at the time treatment is started |
| Educate patient and family about plans for extended treatment at commencement of acute treatment |
| Avoid "switches" of agents if at all possible |
| If "switches" necessary, a different "class" of medication is preferable |
| Self-rating scales at each visit |
| Patient graphs and diaries to monitor linkage between symptom severity and medication dosage |
| No "drug holidays" |
| Family involvement, close monitoring, and technological aids to promote compliance |
| Dosage adjustment if severity worsens or during high-risk times |

personal digital assistant or "PDA" (hand-held computers) that provide the patient with self-tailored messages designed to encourage compliance. Different tailored messages might be conveyed depending on the data inserted (e.g. concern about weight gain) and the trends identified. Such technologies need to be studied systematically to determine their effectiveness and economic considerations and availability will need to be improved, but predictably these and other future innovations will help enhance compliance. Meanwhile, the physician's emphasis on educating the patient and family at the time of the first prescription, close physician monitoring during each appointment, early and repeated use of charts and graphs, use of diaries that incorporate medication times, and encouragement for the patient and family to become involved in patient advocacy groups, such as the National Depression and Manic Depressive Association and the National Alliance for the Mentally Ill, are important strategies to enhance compliance (Almatura and Percudani, 1993; Frank, 1997).

ANTIDEPRESSANT DISCONTINUATION RECOMMENDATIONS

For many patients with depression and high risk of relapse, continued maintenance medications appear to be the preferred course (Greden, 1993; Greden, in press). For those circumstances when discontinuation seems inevitable or unavoidable (impending elective surgeries, patient refuses to continue, etc.), the half-life of the medication should be taken into account when planning discontinuation. If feasible, a downward taper of dosage should be scheduled. The optimal time period of this taper continues to be a topic of debate and requires further study but several weeks appear to be the minimum for agents with a shorter half-life, and Greden has encouraged tapering over 6–12 months

(Greden, 1993). While unusual, this long-term taper prevents discontinuation symptoms, enables adaptation at the receptor level, and allows earlier recognition and treatment of “recurrence symptoms” without the development of full-fledged episodes.

WITHDRAWAL SYMPTOMS FOLLOWING DISCONTINUATION OF ANTIDEPRESSANTS

Despite efforts to enhance compliance and sustain extended maintenance for those patients at high risk for relapse, some patients will discontinue their antidepressant medications. What are the clinical manifestations associated with this event?

The earliest reports of tricyclic antidepressant withdrawal symptoms were noted soon after the release of tricyclic agents (Kuhn, 1957; Mann and MacPherson, 1959; Andersen and Kristiansen, 1959). Because TCAs impact cholinergic, histaminergic, serotonergic, and adrenergic networks, it was not surprising that discontinuation was associated with a montage of withdrawal symptoms, including nausea, anorexia, emesis, anxiety, agitation, insomnia, restlessness, paresthesias, myalgias, rhinorrhea, diarrhea, and diaphoresis. This “TCA Withdrawal Syndrome” was described in detail by Dilsaver and Greden (1984). Central and peripheral cholinergic overdrive were postulated to be the etiology of many of the symptoms, supported by the observation that most symptoms responded favorably to both anticholinergic administration or resumption of the medication (Dilsaver et al., 1983; Dilsaver and Greden, 1984; Dilsaver, 1994).

Most SSRIs have also been noted to have withdrawal symptoms upon sudden discontinuation. Table 4 lists SSRI withdrawal case reports in the literature. Paroxetine is cited a bit more frequently in withdrawal case reports than sertraline, while fluoxetine has the fewest citations. The SSRI withdrawal symptoms noted upon discontinuance or decrease in dose have some overlap in symptom profile with TCAs, but some relatively unique “CNS-like” symptoms have been noted that seem to differ somewhat from the TCA withdrawal profile. The most common of these include dizziness, lightheadedness, vertigo, electric shock-like sensations, and gait instability. These are often described as having an acute onset, short duration, and occurring at multiple times throughout the day. These CNS-like symptoms have been reported with all SSRIs. Gastrointestinal withdrawal symptoms of nausea, emesis, abdominal cramps, and abdominal distention were frequently reported with paroxetine and, occasionally, with sertraline. Other SSRI withdrawal symptoms also occur (see Table 4 for references). A retrospective chart review of 352 patients (Coupland et al., 1996) and a comparison of post-mar-

TABLE 4. SSRI withdrawal case reports

| Author/year | Drug(s) |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Cooper, 1988 | Fluoxetine |
| Stoukides and Stoukides, 1991 | Fluoxetine |
| Szabadi, 1992 | Fluvoxamine |
| Barr et al., 1994 | Paroxetine |
| Ellison, 1994 | Fluoxetine, sertraline, paroxetine |
| Keuthen et al., 1994 | Paroxetine |
| Lauterbach, 1994 | Fluoxetine |
| Louie et al., 1994 | Sertraline |
| Kasantikul, 1995 | Fluoxetine |
| Bloch et al., 1995 | Paroxetine |
| Debattista and Schatzberg, 1995 | Paroxetine |
| Dominguez and Goodnick, 1995 | Paroxetine |
| Einbinder, 1995 | Fluoxetine |
| Fava and Grandi, 1995 | Paroxetine, sertraline |
| Frost and Lal, 1995 | Paroxetine, sertraline |
| Koopowitz and Berk, 1995 | Paroxetine |
| Leiter et al., 1995 | Sertraline |
| Phillips, 1995 | Paroxetine, sertraline |
| Pyke, 1995 | Paroxetine |
| Amsden and Georgian, 1996 | Sertraline |
| Berlin, 1996 | Fluoxetine |
| Bhuamik and Wildgust, 1996 | Paroxetine |
| Pacheco et al., 1996 | Paroxetine |
| Reeves and Pinkofsky, 1996 | Paroxetine |
| Rosenstock, 1996 | Sertraline |
| Landry and Roy, 1997 | Paroxetine |

keting safety in the United Kingdom (Price et al., 1996) confirm this diffuse profile. Symptoms usually occurred one to three days after dose decrease or discontinuation of the drug and commonly resolved within ten days.

Few standardized comparisons of withdrawal symptoms among SSRI agents exist. The Committee on Safety of Medicines (CSM), which advises the Medicines Control Agency (MCA), the UK health authority, reported that insomnia, tremor, dizziness, sweating, nausea, and confusion appear to be more common upon withdrawal of paroxetine than with other SSRIs (Anon, 1993). However, the Drug Safety Research Unit (DSRU) in Southampton, UK, found no difference in recorded events occurring within seven days of discontinuation of either paroxetine or the other SSRI agents (Choo, 1993; Inman et al., 1993). A recent study (Blomgren et al., 1997) compared discontinuation-emergent signs among patients stopping fluoxetine, paroxetine, and sertraline. The five most common symptoms found were dizziness, nausea, insomnia, headache, and nervousness. Brief interruptions in paroxetine and sertraline produced more adverse effects than fluoxetine, with differences presumably attributable to the long half-life of fluoxetine. This is in accordance with Price’s observation that the number of withdrawal symptoms reported is greatest with paroxetine and least with fluoxetine (Price et al., 1996). Paroxetine’s short half-life and

high receptor specificity are postulated to be responsible for these events. The hypothesized role of serotonin in coordinating sensory and autonomic function with motor activity has been proposed as a possible mechanism accounting in part for these CNS-like discontinuation symptoms (Coupland et al., 1996; Jacobs and Fornal, 1993).

Several case reports describe withdrawal symptoms with venlafaxine (Farah and Lauer, 1996; Giakas and Davis, 1997; Louie et al., 1996). Symptoms included the familiar profile of dizziness, headaches, nausea, fatigue, shock-like sensations, and gastrointestinal problems. One report for trazodone withdrawal exists (Otani et al., 1994). No reports of mirtazapine, nefazodone, or bupropion withdrawal have yet been published. MAOI withdrawal reportedly may result in severe anxiety, agitation, insomnia or drowsiness, pressured speech, hallucinations, cognitive impairment, delirium, suicidality, and delusions of persecution (Dilsaver, 1994). In summary, withdrawal manifestations are likely following the discontinuation of most antidepressants that have half-lives ranging from hours to several days, but symptom constellations and severity may vary from one medication to another.

TREATMENT OF ANTIDEPRESSANT WITHDRAWAL SYMPTOMS

Treatment of antidepressant withdrawal symptoms has not been systematically studied. For TCAs, anticholinergic medications relieve most manifestations (Dilsaver and Greden, 1984). The TCA can also be restarted and tapered over a longer time period. For SSRI discontinuation symptoms, the agent can also be restarted. Reports confirm, for example, that the resumption of paroxetine (Koopowitz and Berk, 1995; Debattista and Schatzberg, 1995; Phillips, 1995; Dominguez and Goodnick, 1995) resulted in the prompt resolution of symptoms. Meclizine (25 mg/day) or dimenhydrinate (50 mg/day) (Pyke, 1995) have been prescribed in attempts to control dizziness, and cyclizine (dose unknown) (Koopowitz and Berk, 1995) has been used to alleviate nausea following the discontinuation of paroxetine. Prevention of discontinuation syndromes through gradual taper continues to be the preferred option.

While generally not life-threatening, antidepressant discontinuation syndromes may be frightening to the patient, impair quality of life, and prompt the patient to believe that depressive symptoms are returning or to fear that "addiction," dependency, or a serious illness may have developed. Work performance, driving skills, and routine activities may be significantly altered. Thus, discontinuation symptoms should not be ignored. Patients should be educated at the outset of treatment about the potential for withdrawal symptoms and encouraged to avoid sudden discontinuations.

CONCLUSION

While acute episodes of depression are under-recognized and under-treated (Hirschfeld et al., 1997), it can be argued that the neglect of maintenance treatment of depression is of equal or greater importance. The public health and fiscal consequences for multiple recurrences are profound. Whatever the reasons for past neglect, maintenance requires future prioritization. Physicians not only have well-accepted, powerful medicinal agents for alleviating acute episodes of depression, for most patients they also have powerful tools for maintaining euthymia. Greater use of these tools appears warranted.

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