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Review Article

Medical Progress

GASTROINTESTINAL TOXICITY OF NONSTEROIDAL ANTIINFLAMMATORY DRUGS

M. MICHAEL WOLFE, M.D., DAVID R. LICHTENSTEIN, M.D., AND GURKIRPAL SINGH, M.D.

NE hundred years have passed since Felix O Hoffman, working at Bayer Industries, re-ported the successful synthesis of acetylsali-cylic acid as the first nonsteroidal antiinflammatory drug (NSAID).^{1,2} At the suggestion of Hermann Dreser, Bayer's chief pharmacologist at the time, 3 the compound was called "aspirin" and was purported to represent a convenient mechanism for the delivery of salicylic acid in the treatment of rheumatic diseas-es, menstrual pain, and fever.² Approximately 40 years elapsed before Douthwaite and Lintort⁴ provided endoscopic evidence that aspirin could cause gastric endoscopic evidence that aspirin could cause gastric mucosal damage. Numerous reports have corrobo-rated this observation,⁸ and the introduction of more potent agents with an even greater propensity for toxic effects has increased the awareness of NSAID-induced gastroduodenal ulcer and provided impetus for the development of effective NSAIDs with a more favorable safety profile. Starting in the carly 1970s, numerous new NSAIDs were developed that were initially believed to be de-void of gastrointestinal toxicity, but few, if any, are entirely harmless. These agents constitute one of the most widely used classes of drugs, with more than 70 million prescriptions and more than 30 billion oter-the-counter tablets sold annually in the United States,⁹ Although NSAIDs are generally well tolerat-

States.⁹ Although NSAIDs are generally well tolerat-ed, adverse gastrointestinal events occur in a small but important percentage of patients, resulting in substantial morbidity and mortality.

From the Section of Gastroenterology, Boston University School of Medicine and Boston Medical Center, Boston (M.M.W., D.R.L.), and the Division of Immunology and Rheumatology, Stanford University School of Medicine, Palo Alto, Calif (G.S.), Address reprint requests to Dr. Wolfe at the Boston Medical Center, Section of Gastroenterology, 88 E. Newton Sc, Boston, MA 02118-2398, or at michael avaliet@mc.org. 01999, Masschustert: Medical Society.

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EPIDEMIOLOGY OF GASTROINTESTINAL COMPLICATIONS

Because of the broad and nonspecific definitions of gastrointestinal disorders caused by the use of NSAIDs, as well as differences in patient populations, drugs, dosages, and periods of use, estimates of the prevalence of adverse effects vary greatly. In general, at least 10 to 20 percent of patients have dyspepsia while taking an NSAID, although the prevalence may range from 5 to 50 percent.^{10,31} Within a six-month period of treatment, 5 to 15 percent of pa-tients with rheumatoid arthritis can be expected to discontinue NSAID theraov because of dyspepsia.¹¹

tients with rheumatoid arthritis can be expected to discontinue NSAID therapy because of dyspepsia.¹¹ According to prospective data from the Arthritis, Rheumatism, and Aging Medical Information Sys-tem (ARAMIS), 13 of every 1000 patients with rheumatoid arthritis who take NSAIDs for one year have a serious gastrointestinal complication. The risk in patients with osteoarthritis is somewhat lower (7.3 per 1000 patients per year).¹² The rate of NSAID-related serious gastrointestinal complications requiring hospitalization has decreased

In erate of NSALD-related serious gastromicesinal complications requiring hospitalization has decreased in recent years. The decrease may be due, at least in part, to extensive medical-education campaigns that have persuaded physicians to use newer, less toxic NSALDs and non-NSALD analgesics in populations at bioth eith 10.

NSAIDs and non-NSAID analgesics in populations at high risk.¹² The mortality rate among patients who are hospi-talized for NSAID-induced upper gastrointestinal bleeding is about 5 to 10 percent.¹² An analysis of data from ARAMIS has shown that the mortality rate attributed to NSAID-related gastrointestinal tox-ic effects is 0.22 percent per year, with an annual relative risk of 4.21 as compared with the risk for persons not using NSAIDs.¹² Although the annual mortality rate is low, it must be emphasized that be-cause a large number of patients are exposed to cause a large number of patients are exposed to NSAIDs, often for extended periods of time, the risk over a lifetime is substantial. In the United States, for instance, it is estimated that NSAIDs are used arthritides. On the basis of these conservative figures and ARAMIS data, the annual number of hospitalitations in the United States for serious gastrointes-tinal complications is estimated to be at least 103,000. At an estimated cost of \$15,000 to \$20,000 per hos-

At an estimated cost of \$10,000 to \$20,000 per hos-pitalization, the annual direct costs of such compli-cations exceed \$2 billion.¹⁴ If has been estimated conservatively that 16,500 NSAID-related deaths occur among patients with rheumatoid arthritis or osteoarthritis every year in the United States. This figure is similar to the num-ber of deaths from the acquired immunodeficiency

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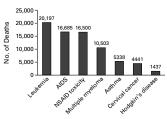
syndrome and considerably greater than the number syndrome and considerably greater than the number of deaths from multiple myeloma, asthma, cervical cancer, or Hodgkin's disease (Fig. 1).^{12,15} If deaths from gastrointestinal toxic effects of NSAIDs were tabulated separately in the National Vital Statistics reports, these effects would constitute the 15th most common cause of death in the United States. Yet these toxic effects remain largely a "silent epidemic," with many physicians and most patients unaware of the magnitude of the problem.¹² Furthermore, the

with many physicians and most patients unaware of the magnitude of the problem.¹² Eurthermore, the mortality statistics do not include deaths ascribed to the use of over-the-counter NSAIDs. In a recent survey of 4799 Americans, 807 were identified who had taken NSAIDs (prescribed or over-the-counter drugs) at least twice in the past year for five or more consecutive days.¹² Approxi-mately 45 percent of the group took NSAIDs for five or more consecutive days at least once per month, and 40 percent took both over-the-counter and pre-scribed NSAIDs. Nearly 75 percent of those who used NSAIDs regularly were either unaware of or unconcerned about possible gastrointestinal compli-cations. In addition, almost two thirds of the regular users indicated that they would expect warning signs before the development of serious NSAID-induced complications. Only a minority of patients who have serious gastrointestinal complications, Singh et al.¹¹ found that although the proportion of patients with prior symptoms was only slightly higher than the proportion with no prior symptoms (2.7 percent vs. 2.0 percent), 81 percent of the patients reported no antecedent dyspepsia.

RISK FACTORS FOR GASTROINTESTINAL COMPLICATIONS

Because dyspeptic symptoms are not a reliable warning sign, it is important to identify factors that in crease the risk of serious gastrointestinal complica-tions and to determine methods for reducing this

tions and to determine methods for reducing this risk. A number of studies have been designed to identify patients who are most likely to have adverse effects of NSAID therapy (Table 1). Advanced age has been consistently found to be a primary risk factor for adverse gastrointestinal events. The risk increases linearly with age.¹⁵⁻²⁰ Although previous reports suggested that the risk diminishes over time, a recent study indicates that the risk of NSAID-associated gastrointestinal hemorrhage re-mains constant over an extended period of observa-tion.¹² Other risk factors that have been identified in multiple studies are hieper dows of NSAIDs (inmultiple studies are higher doses of NSAIDs (in-cluding the use of two or more NSAIDs), a history of gastroduodenal ulcer or gastrointestinal bleeding, concomitant use of corticosteroids, serious coexisting conditions, and concomitant use of anticoagu-lants.²⁰⁻²⁷ However, many of these studies are based



Cause of Death

Figure 1. U.S. Mortality Data for Seven Selected Disorders in 1997. A total of 16,500 patients with rheumatoid arthritis or osteo-arthritis died from the gastrointestinal toxic effects of NSAIDs. Data are from the National Center for Health Statistics and the Arthritis, Rheumatism, and Aging Medical Information System.¹²

 TABLE 1. RISK FACTORS FOR THE

 DEVELOPMENT OF NSAID-ASSOCIATED
 GASTRODUODENAL ULCERS.*

Established risk factors Advanced age (linear increase in risk) History of ulcer Concomitant use of corticosteroids Higher doses of NSADD, including the use of more than one NSAD

Concomitant administration of anticoagulants Serious systemic disorder Possible risk factors

Concomitant infection with Helicobacter pylori Cigarette smoking Consumption of alcohol

*Information on risk factors is from Singh and Triadafilopoulus,¹² Bjorkman,¹⁶ Longstreth,¹⁷ Greene and Winickoff,¹⁶ Gabriel et al.,¹⁰ Griffin et al.,²³ Lang-man et al.,²¹ Garcia Rodriguez and Jick,²² Hallas et al.,²³ Silverstein et al.,²⁴ Hochain et al.,²⁵ Piper et al.,²⁵ Silver et al.,²⁷ and Barkin.²⁴

on univariate analysis and do not consider the interactions among multiple factors and coexisting conditions

The identification of *Helicobacter pylori* infection as a factor in the development of peptic ulcer has as a factor in the decorporation of peper inter into the mass raised the question of a possible synergistic relation between the presence of *H. pylori* infection and NSAID use. Although several studies²⁹³² have found these two factors to be independent, two prospective studies have suggested a synergistic relation. Bi-anchi Porro et al.³³ used the combination of amox-icillin and omeprazole to treat NSAID users infected

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with *H. pylori*. They found that the eradication of *H. pylori* did not affect the rate of ulcer healing. However, six months after the end of combination therapy, the cumulative rate of recurrent ulcers was 31 percent among the patients in whom *H. pylori* had been eradicated and 46 percent among those who were still infected. This difference was not statistically significant.

who well similation with the the set of a regimen that istically significant. Chan et al.²⁴ found that the use of a regimen that included bismuth subcitrate to eradicate *H. pylori* significantly decreased the rate of ulcer development associated with the use of naproxen. In this study, gastroducodenal ulcers developed in 26 percent of *H. pylori*-infected persons, but in only 7 percent of those in whom the organism had been eradicated. The inclusion of bismuth in the drug regimen, however, makes the findings somewhat ambiguous, because bismuth can accumulate in the gastric mucosa and stimulate prostaglandin synthesis.²⁴ Most recentby, Hawkey et al.³⁵ randomly assigned 285 patients with current ulcers or a history of ulcers who were using NSAIDs to combined treatment with omeprazole, clarithromycin, and amoxicillin or to treatment with omeprazole alone. They found that the eradication of *H. pylori* infection. It thus appears that infection with *H. pylori* increases the risk of gastroducedan lucusal injury associated with NSAID use only minimally, if at all.²⁸ Singh et al.³⁰ recently proposed a simple, pointbased algorithm that patients and their physicians can use to estimate the risk of an NSAID-related

Singh et al.³⁶ recently proposed a simple, pointbased algorithm that patients and their physicians can use to estimate the risk of an NSAID-related gastrointestinal complication. If confirmed by other investigators, this tool may help guide decisions about prescriptions for specific NSAIDs, the use of prophylactic agents, and the need for and frequency of patient monitoring.³⁶

PATHOGENESIS OF NSAID-INDUCED GASTRODUODENAL MUCOSAL INJURY

Gastroduodenal mucosal injury develops when the deleterious effect of gastric acid overwhelms the normal defensive properties of the mucosa. Concepts abour NSAID-induced gastroduodenal mucosal injury have evolved from a simple notion of topical injury to theories involving multiple mechanisms with both local and systemic effects (Fig. 2). The systemic effects are largely the result of the inhibition of endogenous prostaglandin synthesis.³⁷ Prostaglandin inhibition, in turn, leads to decreases in epithelial mucus, secretion of bicarbonate, mucosal blood flow, epithelial proliferation, and mucosal resistance to injury.^{38,39} The impairment in mucosal resistance permits injury by endogenous factors, including acid, pepsin, and bile salts, as well as by exogenous factors such as NSAIDs and possibly ethanol and other noxious agents.

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Topical Injury

Mucosal injury is initiated topically by the acidic properties of aspirin and many other NSAIDs. Because of a low dissociation constant, which varies according to the particular agent, these weak acids remain in their nonionized lipophilic form in the highly acidic gastric lumen. Such conditions favor migration through the gastric mucus across plasma membranes and into surface epithelial cells, where NSAIDs are dissociated into the ionized form, resulting in trapping of hydrogen ions.²⁷ NSAIDs can also cause topical mucosal damage by diminishing the hydrophobicity of gastric mucus, thereby allowing endogenous gastric acid and pepsin to injure the surface epithelium.³⁹ In addition, topical mucosal injury may occur as a result of indirect mechanisms, mediated through the biliary exerction and subsequent duodenogastric reflux of active NSAID metabolites.^{40,41} For example, although sulindac is administered as a nontoxic prodrug, its active metabolite, sulindaca sulfide, is excreted into the bile. On entry into the duodenum, sulindac sulfide causes topical injury to the mucosa by virtue of its acidic properties.

The Role of Prostaglandins

Topical injury caused by NSAIDs contributes to the development of gastroduodenal mucosal injury. However, the systemic cffects of these agents appear to have the predominant role,^{37,434} largely through the decreased synthesis of mucosal prostaglandins.⁴⁴ The use of enteric-coated aspirin preparations⁴⁴ and parenteral⁴⁵ or rectal⁴⁶ administration of NSAIDs in order to prevent topical mucosal injury has also failed to prevent the development of ulcers. Moreover, does of aspirin as low as 30 mg are sufficient to suppress prostaglandins synthesis in the gastric mucosal,³⁷ Prostaglandins are derived from arachidonic acid, which originates from cell-membrane hospholipids

Prostaglandins are derived from arachidonic acid, which originates from cell-membrane phospholipids through the action of phospholipase A₂ (Fig. 3). The metabolism of arachidonic acid to prostaglandins and leukotrienes is catalyzed by the cyclooxygenase pathway and the 5-lipoxygenase pathway, respectively-1^{1,107} Too related but unique isoforms of cyclooxygenase-2, have been demonstrated in mammalian cells.^{48,40} Despite their structural similarities, they are encoded by distinct genes and differ with regard to their distribution and expression in tissues.^{48,41} The cyclooxygenase-1 gene contains a promoter region without a TATA sequence and is primarily expressed constitutively. In contrast, the cyclooxygenase-2 gene is thought to be the inducible form that is nearly undetectable in most (but not all) tissues under normal physiologic conditions.

Cyclooxygenase-1 appears to function as a "housekeeping" enzyme in most tissues, including the gastric mucosa, the kidneys, and the platelets, whereas the expression of cyclooxygenase-2 can be induced

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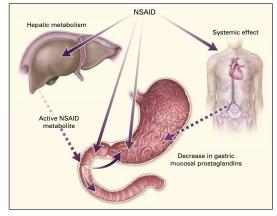


Figure 2. Mechanisms by Which NSAIDs Induce Gastroduodenal Mucosal Injury.

According to the dual-injury hypothesis of Scheen and Vender,²⁷ NSADs have direct toxic effects on the gastroduodenal mucosa (solid arrows) and indirect effects through active hepatic metabolites and decreases in mucosal prostaglandins (broken arrows). Hepatic metabolites are excreted in the bile and subsequently into the duodenum, where they cause mucosal damage to the stomach by duodenogastric reflux and mucosal damage to the small intestine by antegrade passage through the gastrointestinal tract. Adapted from Scheen and Vender.³⁷

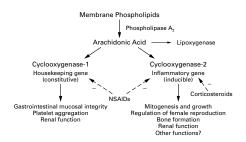


Figure 3. Biosynthesis of Prostaglandins through the Cyclooxygenase Pathways. The immediate precursor of prostaglandins, arachidonic acid, is derived from membrane phospholipids and is catalyzed by the two cyclooxygenase iscenzymes (also designated as prostaglandin H synthase), cyclooxygenase-1 and cyclooxygenase-2. The gene for cyclooxygenase-1, the houskeeping enzyme, is expressed constitutively and maintains the homeostasis of organs, including gastric mucosal integrity. In contrast, the gene for cyclooxygenase-2, the inflammatory nezyme, is inducible. Although both pathways can be variably inhibited by different NSAIDs, only the gene for cyclooxygenase-2 contains a corticosteroid-responsive repressor element in its promoter region. The broken arrows indicate the inhibitory effects of pharmacologic agents.

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by inflammatory stimuli and mitogens in many different types of tissue, including macrophages and synovial cells.⁴³ It has thus been suggested that the antiinflammatory properties of NSAIDs are mediat-ed through the inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2, where-as adverse effects, such as gastroduodenal ulceration, occur as a result of effects on the constitutively ex-pressed cyclooxygenase-1.^{43,49} As discussed below, cur-rent strategies for developing NSAIDs with an im-proved safety profile include the selective inhibition of cyclooxygenase-2, with the sparing of cyclooxy

genase-1. Although there is substantial evidence that the sup pression of gastric prostaglandins is the fundamental mechanism responsible for the gastrointestinal toxici-ty of NSAIDs, some studies suggest that other mech-anisms may be involved. For example, ulcers do not anisms may be involved. For example, ulcers do not develop spontaneously in mice with a disrupted cy-clooxygenase-1 gene,⁵² and Wallace et al.^{53,54} reported that NSAID-induced injury occurred in association with enhanced adherence of neutrophils to the gastric vascular endothelium, as the result of an increase in the basal endothelium,^{55,58} Neutrophil adherence, in turn, causes mucosal injury through the release of oxygen-derived free radicals and proteases.¹

CLINICAL SPECTRUM OF INJURY

In the majority of patients, NSAID-induced gas-troduodenal mucosal injury is superficial and self-lim-ited. However, peptic ulcers develop in some patients, and they may lead to gastroduodenal hemorrhage, per-foration, and death. Serious complications of NSAID use that are less commonly recognized include pill excelution and lower the partient methods and hemore the esophagitis, small-bowel ulceration, small-bowel stric tures, colonic strictures, diverticular disease, and ex-acerbations of inflammatory bowel disease.⁹ The spectrum of NSAID-related gastroduodenal

The spectrum of NSAID-related gastroduodenal injury includes a combination of subeptihelial hemor-rhages, erosions, and ulcerations that is often referred to as NSAID gastropathy. The distinction between erosions and ulcerations depends on pathological def-initions, with ulcers defined as lesions that penetrate to the level of the submucosa and erosions defined as lesions confined to the mucosa. For practical purpose, an endoccoria definition is used which is purposes, an endoscopic definition is used, which is based on a subjective assessment of the size, shape, and depth of the lesion. Erosions are likely to be and superficial, whereas ulcers tend to be larg-er (more than 5 mm in diameter) and deeper.⁹ After ingestion of an NSAID, ultrastructural dam

age to the gastric surface epithelium occurs within minutes, and gross, endoscopically detectable hem-orrhages and erosions in the gastroduodenal epithe-lium occur within several hours.⁵⁹ However, mucosal adaptation appears to occur in response to long-term administration of aspirin in most persons.^{60,61} No area of the stomach is resistant to NSAID-induced

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mucosal injury; the most frequently and severely affected site is the gastric antrum.⁵⁹ Although the prevalence and severity of acute injury vary accord-ing to the drug formulation,^{62,64} the acute injury commonly observed during short-term administra-tion of NSAIDs is not closely correlated with the cubecument development of the more divisedly related subsequent development of the more clinically relevant process of mucosal ulcertain^{20,21,65,66} or with serious complications,^{10,67,68} Duodenal mucosal inju-ry occurs less commonly than gastric damage; however, ulcer complications associated with NSAIDs oc-cur with nearly equal frequency in these two sites.^{51,66} Prospective, cross-sectional endoscopic studies have Prospective, cross-sectional endoscopic surfaces have shown that the combined prevalence of gastric and duodenal ulcers is 10 to 25 percent in patients with chronic arthritis treated with NSAIDs,^{10,67} which is 5 to 15 times the expected prevalence in an age-matched healthy population.

TREATMENT OF NSAID-RELATED DYSPEPSIA

At least 10 to 20 percent of patients have dyspep-tic symptoms during NSAID therapy.^{10,11} However, such symptoms are poorly correlated with the endo-scopic appearance and severity of mucosal injury, since up to 40 percent of persons with endoscopic evidence of erosive gastritis are asymptomatic.^{10,68} and conversely, as many as 50 percent of patients with dyspepsia have normal-appearing mucosa.¹⁰

Histamine H.-Receptor Antagonists

Histamine H₂-Receptor Antagonists Several studies using different methods have shown an improvement in dyspeptic symptoms when hista-mine H₂-receptor antagonists are given to patients taking NSAIDLS.⁹⁷⁷³ A recent prospective, observa-tional cohort study by Singh et al.,¹¹ however, found that asymptomatic patients with rheumatoid arthri-tis who were taking H₂-receptor antagonists had a significantly higher risk of gastrointestinal complica-tions than those not taking these drugs. The expla-nation for this surprising observation is unknown, but it might be due to the masking of dyspeptic symptoms associated with mucosal injury. There-fore, although H₂-receptor antagonists are effective use in asymptomatic patients taking NSAIDs cannot be recommended. Patients receiving H₂-receptor an-tagonists for the recattent of dyspepsia must be be recommended. ranents receiving r₂-receptor an-tagonists for the treatment of dyspepsia must be monitored carefully for the development of serious complications. The initial dose should generally be low (e.g., 400 mg of cimetidine, 150 mg of raniti-dine or nizatidine, or 20 mg of famotidine, admin-istered twice daily in each case), and the dose should be tailored to the needs of each patient.

Proton-Pump Inhibito

In two recent studies, the proton-pump inhibitor omeprazole was compared with ranitidine⁷⁴ or mi-

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