

|

1

2

3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

12

13

14

15

16

**Draft Report on**

**Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions**

**(SCAR)**

**Council for International Organizations**

**of Medical Sciences (CIOMS)**

DRAFT

**Copyright © 2024 by the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS)**  
**ISBN: 978-929036107-7**

Some rights reserved. This work is licensed under the Creative Commons Attribution -NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 licence International, <https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/4.0>

Under the terms of this licence, you may copy, redistribute and adapt the work for non-commercial purposes, provided the work is appropriately cited, as indicated below. If you adapt the work, then you must license your work under the same or equivalent Creative Commons licence. If you create a translation of this work, please add the following disclaimer along with the suggested citation: "This translation was not created by the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS). CIOMS is not responsible for the content or accuracy of this translation. The original English version shall be the binding and authentic edition".

**Suggested citation:**

Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions. A consensus by a CIOMS Working Group. Geneva, Switzerland: Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS), 2024. doi:

CIOMS publications may be obtained directly from CIOMS through its publications e-module at <https://cioms.ch/publications/>. Further information can be obtained from CIOMS, P.O. Box 2100, CH-1211 Geneva 2, Switzerland, [www.cioms.ch](http://www.cioms.ch), e-mail: [info@cioms.ch](mailto:info@cioms.ch). This publication is freely available on the CIOMS website at: <https://>

**Third-party materials:**

If you wish to reuse material from this work that is attributed to a third party, such as tables, figures or images, it is your responsibility to determine whether permission is needed for that reuse and to obtain permission from the copyright holder. The risk of claims resulting from infringement of any third-party-owned component in the work rests solely with the user.

**Disclaimer:**

This document reflects the consensus opinion of the CIOMS SCAR Working Group. The group members are alone responsible, in their capacity as experts, for the views expressed in this publication. These views do not necessarily represent the decisions, policies or opinions of a specific organization or agency. It is anticipated that this document will prove useful to all stakeholders involved with medicines safety from pre-clinical development through clinical trials to the clinical use of drugs postmarketing.

74

75

76 *This page is intentionally left blank. It will be completed in the final publication.*

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DRAFT

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

77			
78			
79	<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</b> .....		<b>iii</b>
80	<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....		<b>iv</b>
81	<b>TABLES AND FIGURES</b> .....		<b>vii</b>
82	<b>ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS</b> .....		<b>viii</b>
83	<b>FOREWORD</b> .....		<b>xi</b>
84	<b>EXECUTIVE SUMMARY</b> .....		<b>xiii</b>
85	<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....		<b>xv</b>
86	References .....		xvi
87	<b>CHAPTER 1. WHAT ARE SEVERE CUTANEOUS ADVERSE REACTIONS?</b> .....		<b>1</b>
88	1.1 Introduction .....		1
89	1.2 SCAR and non-SCAR .....		2
90	1.3 Benign cADRs (non-SCAR ADRs) .....		3
91	1.4 Different types of SCAR .....		6
92	1.4.1 SJS/TEN/EMM .....		6
93	1.4.1.1 Epidemiology .....		6
94	1.4.1.2 Common etiology (medicinal products) .....		6
95	1.4.1.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical		
96	manifestations).....		7
97	1.4.1.4 Laboratory features .....		8
98	1.4.1.5 Prognosis and outcome (long-term sequelae) .....		9
99	1.4.2 DRESS/DIHS .....		9
100	1.4.2.1 Epidemiology .....		9
101	1.4.2.2 Common etiology (medicinal products) .....		9
102	1.4.2.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical		
103	manifestations).....		9
104	1.4.2.4 Prognosis and outcome (long-term sequelae) .....		13
105	1.4.3 AGEP .....		13
106	1.4.3.1 Epidemiology .....		13
107	1.4.3.2 Common etiology (medicinal products) .....		13
108	1.4.3.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical		
109	manifestations).....		14
110	1.4.3.4 Laboratory features .....		14
111	1.4.3.5 Prognosis and outcome .....		15
112	1.4.4 GBFDE .....		15
113	1.4.4.1 Epidemiology .....		15
114	1.4.4.2 Common etiology (medicinal products) .....		15

115	1.4.4.3	Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical manifestations).....	15
116			
117	1.4.4.4	Laboratory features.....	16
118	1.4.4.5	Prognosis and outcome.....	16
119	1.5	SJS/TEN/DRESS/AGEP overlap.....	17
120	References.....		17
121	<b>CHAPTER 2. DIAGNOSIS AND IDENTIFICATION OF SCAR CASES .....</b>		<b>20</b>
122	2.1	Introduction .....	20
123	2.2	Patient history .....	21
124	2.3	Assessing severity .....	22
125	2.4	SCAR case definition and diagnosis .....	22
126	2.5	Interactions between patient, family, healthcare professional and regulatory agencies for reporting .....	27
127			
128	References.....		29
129	<b>CHAPTER 3. CASE MANAGEMENT IN CLINICAL CARE .....</b>		<b>31</b>
130	3.1	Introduction .....	31
131	3.2	Special populations .....	36
132	3.3	cADRs induced by targeted therapy[] or immunotherapy .....	37
133	3.4	Guidance and investigation postreaction .....	37
134	References.....		37
135	<b>CHAPTER 4. BIOMARKERS FOR SCAR .....</b>		<b>39</b>
136	4.1	Introduction .....	39
137	4.2	HLA and immune-related genetic biomarkers .....	40
138	4.2.1	SJS/TEN.....	41
139	4.2.2	DRESS.....	43
140	4.2.3	AGEP .....	43
141	4.3	Circulating and tissue specific biomarkers to aid in the clinical evaluation of SCAR.....	45
142			
143	4.4	Developing and implementing biomarker testing recommendations .....	46
144	References .....		47
145	<b>CHAPTER 5. CAUSALITY ASSESSMENT OF SCAR IN PRE- AND POSTAUTHORIZATION SURVEILLANCE .....</b>		<b>50</b>
146			
147	5.1	Introduction .....	50
148	5.2	Global introspection methods .....	51
149	5.3	Tools to support investigation of causality between medicinal product and SCAR.....	69
150			
151	References .....		55
152			

153	<b>CHAPTER 6</b>	<b>PRE-AUTHORIZATION SAFETY DATA COLLECTION AND</b>	
154		<b>ANALYSIS.....</b>	<b>56</b>
155	6.1	Introduction .....	56
156	6.2	Investigator assessment.....	56
157	6.3	Risk factors and confounding factors .....	59
158		References .....	64
159	<b>CHAPTER 7.</b>	<b>POSTAUTHORIZATION SAFETY DATA COLLECTION AND</b>	
160		<b>ASSESSMENT .....</b>	<b>66</b>
161	7.1	Introduction .....	66
162	7.2	Sources of data.....	66
163	7.3	Assessing causality with postauthorization information .....	72
164		References .....	73
165		Additional references for sections 7.3.1 and .7.3.2.....	75
166	<b>CHAPTER 8.</b>	<b>RISK MINIMIZATION.....</b>	<b>76</b>
167	8.1	Introduction .....	76
168	8.2	Risk management.....	77
169	8.3	Routine risk minimization measures.....	78
170	8.4	Additional risk minimization measures .....	80
171	8.5.	Evaluating the effectiveness of risk minimization.....	82
172		References .....	83
173	<b>APPENDIX 1</b>	<b>PRODUCT LABEL EXAMPLES.....</b>	<b>84</b>
174		Medicinal Product A .....	84
175		Medicinal Product B .....	85
176		Medicinal Product C .....	87
177		Medicinal Product D .....	87
178		Patient Information Leaflet (PIL): .....	88
179		Medicinal Product E .....	90
180		Medicinal Product F .....	90
181		References.....	91
182	<b>APPENDIX 2</b>	<b>EXAMPLES OF TARGETED FOLLOW-UP FORMS TO BE USED FOR</b>	
183		<b>ALL SCAR REPORTS.....</b>	<b>92</b>
184	<b>APPENDIX 3</b>	<b>SCAR WORKING GROUP MEMBERS AND MEETINGS .....</b>	<b>95</b>
185	<b>APPENDIX 4</b>	<b>LIST OF COMMENTATORS.....</b>	<b>97</b>
186			
187			

## TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLE 1.	COMPARISON BETWEEN SCAR AND NON-SCAR .....	5
TABLE 2.	J-SCAR DIAGNOSTIC CRITERIA FOR DRUG-INDUCED HYPERSENSITIVITY SYNDROME .....	10
TABLE 3.	REGISCAR SCORING SYSTEM FOR DRESS DIAGNOSIS .....	11
TABLE 4.	EXAMPLE OF INFORMATION TO BE PROVIDED TO THE PATIENT AND THE PATIENT'S FAMILY .....	28
TABLE 5.	HLA ALLELES ASSOCIATED WITH SJS/TEN .....	41
TABLE 6.	HLA ALLELES ASSOCIATED WITH DRESS .....	43
TABLE 7.	POTENTIAL SCAR INITIAL ASSESSMENT IN THE CLINICAL TRIAL SETTING .....	59
TABLE 8.	AGE DISTRIBUTION FOR SCAR.....	61
TABLE 9.	COMORBID MEDICAL CONDITIONS AT THE TIME OF SCAR DIAGNOSIS.....	61
TABLE 10.	KEY HLA ASSOCIATIONS WITH SCAR.....	61
FIGURE 1.	SCAR AND CADRS .....	3
FIGURE 2.	CHARACTERISTIC MORBILIFORM ERUPTION IN A PATIENT WITH DAPSONE- INDUCED REACTION .....	4
FIGURE 3.	EXTENSIVE SKIN DETACHMENT CHARACTERISTIC OF TEN.....	7
FIGURE 4.	TYPICAL ROUND TARGET LESIONS WITH A DARKER CENTRE SURROUNDED BY A LIGHTER, PALE PINK RING AND A BRIGHT RED OUTERMOST RING IN A PATIENT WITH EMM .....	8
FIGURE 5.	NUMEROUS PINPOINT, NONFOLLICULAR PUSTULES AND CONFLUENT PUS LAKES ON OEDEMATOUS ERYTHEMATOUS PLAQUES ON THE INNER THIGH OF A PATIENT WITH AGEP .....	14
FIGURE 6.	MANY WELL-DEMARCATED, DUSKY RED, ROUND OR OVAL PATCHES WITH BLISTERS AND EROSIONS ON THE TRUNK AND LIMBS OF A PATIENT WITH GBFDE .....	16
FIGURE 7.	THE SCAR TIMELINE .....	57

## ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

228		
229		
230	ACLE	Acute Cutaneous Lupus Erythematosus
231	ADR	Adverse Drug Reaction
232	AE	Adverse Event
233	AGEP	Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis
234	AGPP	Acute Generalized Pustular Psoriasis
235	aGVHR	Acute Graft Versus Host Reaction
236	ARDS	Acute Respiratory Distress Syndrome
237	ART	Antiretroviral Therapy
238	BSA	Body Surface Area
239	CBC	Complete Blood Count
240	<a href="#">CHMP</a>	Committee for Medicinal Products for Human Use of the European
241		Medicines Agency
242	CI	Confidence Interval
243	CKD	Chronic Kidney Disease
244	<a href="#">CIOMS</a>	Council for International Organizations of Medical Science
245	CMV	Cytomegalovirus
246	CRP	C-reactive Protein
247	cADR	Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reaction
248	CTCAE	Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse Events
249	CYP	Cytochrome P450
250	CYP2C9	Cytochrome P450 2C9
251	DHCP	Dear Healthcare Provider
252	DHPC	Direct Healthcare Professional Communication
253	DI SCLE	Drug-Induced Subacute Cutaneous Lupus Erythematosus
254	DIHS	Drug-Induced Hypersensitivity Syndrome
255	DPT	Drug Patch Testing
256	DRESS	Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms
257	EBV	Epstein-Barr Virus
258	ECG	Electrocardiogram
259	EHR	Electronic Health Record
260	ELISpot	Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Spot
261	<a href="#">EMA</a>	European Medicines Agency
262	EMM	Erythema multiforme Major
263	EN	Epidermal or Epithelial Necrolysis
264	EU	European Union
265	ExDerm	Exfoliative Dermatitis
266	<a href="#">FDA</a>	U.S. Food and Drug Administration
267	FDE	Fixed Drug Eruptions



268	GBFDE	Generalized Bullous Fixed Drug Eruptions
269	G-CSF	Granulocyte Colony Stimulating Factor
270	GM-CSF	Granulocyte/Macrophage Colony-Stimulating Factor
271	GPP	Generalized Pustular Psoriasis
272	GWAS	Genome-Wide Association Study
273	H&E	Hematoxylin and Eosin
274	HCP	Healthcare Professional
275	HHV	Human Herpes Virus
276	HHV6	Human Herpes Virus 6
277	HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
278	HLA	Human Leukocyte Antigen
279	ICD-CM	International Classification of Diseases - Clinical Modification
280	<a href="#">ICH</a>	International Council for Harmonisation of Technical Requirements for
281		Pharmaceuticals for Human Use
282	ICSR	Individual Case Safety Report
283	ICU	Intensive Care Unit
284	IQR	Interquartile Range
285	IRIS	Immune Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome
286	IVIG	Intravenous Immunoglobulin
287	JAK	Janus Kinase
288	LE	Lupus Erythematosus
289	<a href="#">MedDRA</a>	Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities
290	MHC	Major Histocompatibility Complex
291	MPE	Maculopapular Exanthem
292	NPV	Negative Predictive Value
293	NSAID	Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drugs
294	OR	Odds Ratio
295	PE	Paraneoplastic Erythroderma
296	PGx	Pharmacogenomic
297	PPV	Positive Predictive Value
298	PT	Preferred Term
299	PV	Pharmacovigilance
300	PUVA	Psoralen Combined with Ultraviolet A
301	REMS	Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategies
302	RMP	Risk Management Plan
303	SARS-CoV-2	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2
304	SCAR	Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reaction(s)
305	SCLE	Subacute Cutaneous Lupus Erythematosus
306	SLE	System Lupus Erythematosus
307	SmPC	Summary of Product Characteristics

308	SJS	Stevens-Johnson Syndrome
309	SOC	System Organ Class
310	SSSS	Staphylococcal Scalded Skin Syndrome
311	SUSAR	Suspected unexpected serious adverse reaction
312	TARC	Thymus and Activation-Regulated Chemokine
313	TB	Tuberculosis
314	TBSA	Total Body Surface Area
315	TEN	Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis
316	TEN Like LE	TEN-Like Lupus Erythematosus or Lupus-Associated TEN
317	TNF	Tumour Necrosis Factor
318	UK	United Kingdom
319	US	United States
320	<a href="#">WHO</a>	World Health Organization
321	<a href="#">WHO-UMC</a>	WHO Uppsala Monitoring Centre
322		
323		
324		

## FOREWORD

Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions (SCAR) such as Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis (SJS/TEN) are associated with significant patient morbidity and mortality. These reactions may result in death or life-threatening conditions, inpatient hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization, or significant disability/incapacity.

The SCAR Working Group of the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences consists of a diverse and comprehensive group of major stakeholders, i.e. academia/research organizations, clinicians, medicinal product<sup>1</sup> developers/industry and regulatory authorities, to assist in establishing a balanced, global perspective on the approach for SCAR detection, susceptibility factors, severity, outcome and probability through causality assessment tools, monitoring and risk management during the medicinal product development and postauthorization phases.

The panel of experts encompassed wide participation, with members from several World Health Organization regions, to ensure comprehensiveness, synergies and global impact.

To increase participation and input from individual experts and leading institutions globally, the draft document was posted for public consultation prior to finalization. This report takes into account the comments received as a result of the public consultation.

### **CIOMS SCAR Working Group Objectives**

The intent is to provide a guidance for medicinal product developers, regulatory authorities, healthcare professionals and scientists in academic and research organizations regarding:

- Diagnosis of SCAR in patients.
- Interpretation and management of SCAR safety signals for a medicinal product considering that SCAR assessments differ between clinical practice, clinical trial and observational studies, and that there is a need to enhance safety of medicinal product development and in medicinal product life-cycle management.
- SCAR data analysis of suspected unexpected serious adverse reactions during clinical trials, individual case safety reports in the postauthorization phase, aggregate data from clinical trials and observational studies using this consensus report on the terminology and level of evidence needed to assess safety, data standards, and data acquisition.
- Data capture and analysis of safety signals of a SCAR for a medicinal product during preauthorization clinical trials through adopting standards for data and biospecimen acquisition and management, to allow future biomarkers development and validation.
- Proposed causality assessment process in clinical trials and the postauthorization phase, including assessment of SCAR data for strength of evidence or degrees of uncertainty in causal association.
- Assessment of SCAR safety data for special populations with impaired immune status, such as cancer patients, patients with autoimmune diseases, the elderly, and paediatric patients.

---

<sup>1</sup> [The CIOMS Cumulative Glossary with a Focus on Pharmacovigilance \(version 2.0\)](#) defines “medicinal product” according to the definition below. “Medicinal product” will be used interchangeably with the term “drug” in this report.

Any substance or combination of substances:

□ presented as having properties for treating or preventing disease in humans; or

□ which may be used in or administered to humans either with a view to restoring, correcting or modifying physiological functions by exerting a pharmacological, immunological or metabolic action, or to making a medical diagnosis.

Note: In other jurisdictions, this may be called a medicine, medical product or a drug, and may include biologicals and vaccines.

- |
- 362 • Validation of traditional and new biomarkers, also through combining large SCAR safety  
363 datasets across many clinical trials and postauthorization data in different patient populations  
364 to generate sufficient data for detecting rare SCAR induced by a medicinal product
  - 365 • Prevention and mitigation of SCAR induced by medicinal products. The aim of this report is  
366 to create a global consensus reference for regulators, patient organizations, scientists,  
367 industry and clinicians involved in product life cycle management or clinical practice.

DRAFT

## EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Following is a brief description of each chapter:

### **Chapter 1: What are Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions?**

This chapter describes the differences between cutaneous adverse drug reactions (cADRs) and severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCAR) in terms of epidemiology, etiology, clinical characteristics, prognosis and outcome of the various SCAR conditions.

### **Chapter 2: Diagnosis and identification of SCAR cases**

The first step in analysing a putative SCAR is to make a tentative diagnosis. DRESS, AGEP and some other SCAR conditions have defined diagnostic criteria which may overlap and can hence be challenging to diagnose in the earliest stages. A SCAR diagnosis should consider patient history, visual assessment (appearance, morphology), severity and the presence of systemic symptoms, followed by a clinical investigation of potential causes or causality assessment in the individual patient.

### **Chapter 3: Case management in clinical care**

Withdrawal of the culprit medicinal product is the cornerstone of care for SCAR. Additionally, management and supportive care are elucidated in this chapter.

### **Chapter 4: Biomarkers**

Numerous investigations have uncovered many promising biomarkers to identify individuals at risk of developing SCAR, confirm and diagnosis of SCAR early, and inform prognosis. Human leukocyte antigen (HLA) variants are consistently associated with the risk for SCAR and testing results are clinically actionable for many culprit medicinal products, most significantly for anti-epileptics and allopurinol. Several histopathologic, blister fluid and serum biomarkers have been identified that appear to be specific to SCAR and could enable earlier diagnosis. Some may even represent possible therapeutic targets. However, more research is needed to confirm their utility in the diagnostic workup of SCAR.

### **Chapter 5: Causality assessment of SCAR in pre- and postauthorization surveillance**

Causality assessments aim to determine the procedure to determine the relationship between the medicinal product and the adverse event (AE). Methods such as Bradford Hill criteria, Global Introspection, operational algorithms, probabilistic approaches are presented for SCAR. Also presented are adjudication, targeted follow-up form, and assessment of the aggregate data.

### **Chapter 6: Pre-authorization safety data collection and analysis**

Prompt recognition of SCAR enhances patient safety and enables the assessment of the impact on the clinical trial programme. Risk factors such as patient population, pharmacology, and pharmacogenomics should all be considered when setting up preauthorization surveillance.

### **Chapter 7: Postauthorization safety data collection and assessment**

Data sources for postauthorization surveillance include spontaneous reports, electronic health records (EHRs), registries, clinical trial data and preclinical data.

|

405 **Chapter 8: Risk minimization**

406 Prompt evaluation and discontinuation of the potentially offending medicinal product(s) are the  
407 most appropriate immediate interventions in the management of drug-induced SCAR once  
408 detected, based on the benefit risk balance of the treatment for the given patient. Key  
409 developments in SCAR research include new technologies allowing the identification of genetic  
410 risk factors with improved sensitivity, specificity and efficiency. Routine risk minimization  
411 measures and additional risk minimization measures for SCAR are presented with examples.

412

DRAFT

## INTRODUCTION

An adverse event (AE) is any untoward medical occurrence that may present during treatment with a medicinal product (drug or biological product), but which does not necessarily have a causal relationship with this treatment. An AE therefore can be any unfavourable and unintended sign (for example, an abnormal laboratory finding) symptom or disease that is temporally associated with the use of a medicinal product, whether or not it is related to this medicinal product.

An adverse drug reaction (ADR), as established by regional regulations, guidance, and practices, concern noxious and unintended responses to a medicinal product. The phrase “responses to a medicinal product” means that a causal relationship between a medicinal product and an AE is at least a reasonable possibility.[1]

Skin is the most commonly affected organ by ADRs by not only small molecules in medicinal products, including vaccines and other etiologies. Cutaneous ADRs (cADRs) affect 2% to 3% of all hospitalized patients.[2] cADRs have a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations, are caused by various medicinal products, and result from different pathophysiologic mechanisms. Hence, their diagnosis and management are challenging, but approximately 0.1-1% of patients with medicinal product eruptions are serious ADRs. In regulatory guidelines, a serious AE or adverse reaction to a medicinal product is defined as any untoward medical occurrence that at any dose satisfies any of the following criteria:[1,3]

- results in death,
- is life-threatening,
- requires inpatient hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization,
- results in persistent or significant disability/incapacity,
- is a congenital anomaly/birth defect, or
- other medically important event or reaction.[1,4]

Severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCAR) are rare, idiosyncratic disorders that are most often induced by medicinal products but may also be reactions to other kinds of exposure, and associated with significant morbidity, usually leading to hospitalization. SCAR consist of Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis (SJS/TEN), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS), acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), and generalized bullous fixed drug eruptions (GBFDE). The annual incidence of SJS/TEN is estimated at 1-5 per million person-years. Utilizing spontaneous reports of suspected adverse reactions from healthcare professionals (HCPs) and patients may generate a signal for SCAR as a potential ADR even with a single, well-documented report on an individual patient. This may indicate possible causality with the medicinal product, particularly for serious SCAR that are rare in the general population or SCAR that are rare in the absence of medicinal product exposure.[1,4]

### Future needs

Medicine-induced SCAR are rare serious AEs that pose substantial hurdles to medicine developers, regulators, healthcare professionals and patients as well as patient acceptance of therapeutic options and adherence. Further work is necessary to continue the advancement of science, medicine and regulation to better identify, characterize and mitigate SCAR risks.

455 The following highlight some of the main topics that need further progress:

456 **For healthcare professionals:**

- 457 • The lack of consensus in clinical guidance regarding SCAR in special populations,  
458 especially cancer patients, patients with pre-existing autoimmune diseases, the elderly, and  
459 children;
- 460 • There is mounting concern in relation to the ongoing health burden of SCAR and the  
461 emergence of SCAR related to novel biological medicinal products as well as the  
462 increasing cost of diagnosis and management.

463 **For regulatory authorities and the biopharmaceutical industry:**

- 464 • The need for comprehensive, proactive and systematic workflows for safety data capture and  
465 analysis during medicinal product development;
- 466 • The lack of harmonized case definitions of SCAR types, the need to ensure completeness  
467 of safety assessment and management in medicines development, as well as consensus  
468 guidance on the design of studies to develop and validate new technologies and  
469 biomarkers;
- 470 • The lack of evidence-based practice to promote consistent pharmacovigilance and risk  
471 management of SCAR in clinical trials and postauthorization studies during medicinal  
472 product development and postauthorization phases;
- 473 • The lack of specific information provided in the Summary of Product Characteristics  
474 (SmPC) about SCAR: the information is overall quite similar for all concerned medicinal  
475 products even if they do not carry the same risk of SCAR.

476 Furthermore, the magnitude of attrition of new chemical entities during medicinal product  
477 development that accounts for up to > 80% from phase I to application for marketing  
478 authorization has put an unsurpassable barrier for the clinical translation of new medicinal  
479 products. This has taken the pharmaceutical industry to a point where a revision of current  
480 approaches is necessary.

481 **References**

- 1 ICH Topic E2A Clinical Safety Data Management: definitions and standards for expedited reporting, 1995. [Guidance document](#)  
2 Wolf R, Orion E, Marcos B, Matz H. Life-threatening acute adverse cutaneous drug reactions. Clinics in Dermatology 23:171-181, 2005. [PubMed Abstract](#)  
3 CIOMS. CIOMS IV: [Benefit-Risk Balance for Marketed Drugs: Evaluating Safety Signals](#). 1998  
4 CIOMS ICH Glossary, v3. Serious Adverse Event: [E19 A Selective Approach to Safety Data Collection in Specific Late-Stage Pre-approval or Post-Approval Clinical Trials -- Step 4 \(final\); 27 September 2022 – Glossary](#)

482



## CHAPTER 1.

### WHAT ARE SEVERE CUTANEOUS ADVERSE REACTIONS?

#### Chapter summary

- Severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCAR) comprise Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS), acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) and generalized bullous fixed drug eruptions (GBFDE).
- Clinical phenotypes of cutaneous adverse drug reactions (cADRs) are very diverse and most of them are benign non-life-threatening reactions such as maculopapular exanthema (MEP), urticaria, fixed drug eruptions (FDE), lichenoid eruptions, vasculitis and others. Maculopapular exanthema (MPE) is the most common benign cADR to medicinal products.
- SJS, SJS/TEN-overlap and TEN represent different severity spectra of the same disease, epidermal necrolysis (EN), which needs to be distinguished from erythema multiforme major (EMM) which is exclusively due to infections.
- DRESS is a multi-systemic ADR with a heterogeneous presentation and variable clinical course. Initial symptoms may be prodromal in nature such as fever and malaise. Cutaneous eruptions are extensive and may be polymorphic in presentation, including maculopapular eruptions, infiltrated plaques, pustules, target-like lesions, purpura, eczematous lesions and erythroderma. Facial erythema and swelling are prominent features of DRESS. Various internal organs may be involved including the liver, kidneys, lungs, heart, nervous system and others.
- AGEP is characterized by a sudden onset of numerous pinpoint, non-follicular sterile pustules on oedematous erythematous skin. The most characteristic feature of AGEP is its clinical course. It has a very rapid onset and equally rapid resolution.
- GBFDE is characterized by well-demarcated, round, or oval erythematous, violaceous or dusky red patches with blisters and erosions. Most patients report a positive history of similar eruptions. GBFDE may be confused as SJS/TEN due to the extensive bullous eruption with erosions.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

It is important to distinguish SCAR from cADRs in terms of epidemiology, etiology, clinical characteristics, prognosis and outcomes.

#### 1.1 Introduction

An ADR, as defined by the World Health Organization (WHO), is “any noxious, unintended and undesired effect of a medicinal product, given at normally used dose in man, for the prevention, diagnosis or treatment of any condition or for the modification of physiological function”.[1] Cutaneous adverse drug reactions (cADRs) are common, comprising 10 to 30% of all reported ADRs.[2,3] Among hospitalized patients, the incidence of cADRs has been estimated to be 2 to 3%.[4] Cutaneous manifestations of ADRs range from benign maculopapular eruption to life-threatening toxic epidermal necrolysis and from those localized only to skin to those associated with systemic disease.

Three prospective studies which investigated the epidemiology of dermatologist-diagnosed cADRs in a hospital setting documented prevalence rates of 3.6 to 7 per 1000 hospitalized patients. The first study from France detected 48 cADRs among 13 294 hospitalizations over six months, yielding a prevalence of 3.6 per 1000 hospitalized patients.[5]

Reactions were considered serious in 34% of cases because they were responsible for hospitalization (18%), increased the duration of hospitalization (14%) or were life threatening (2%). The second study from Mexico documented a cADR prevalence of 7 per 1000 inpatients (35/4765 hospital discharges over 10 months) and 17% were severe.[6] The third study from Malaysia identified 43 cADRs among 11017 hospitalized patients over a six month period, yielding a prevalence of 3.9/1000 admissions and 51.2% were SCAR.[7]

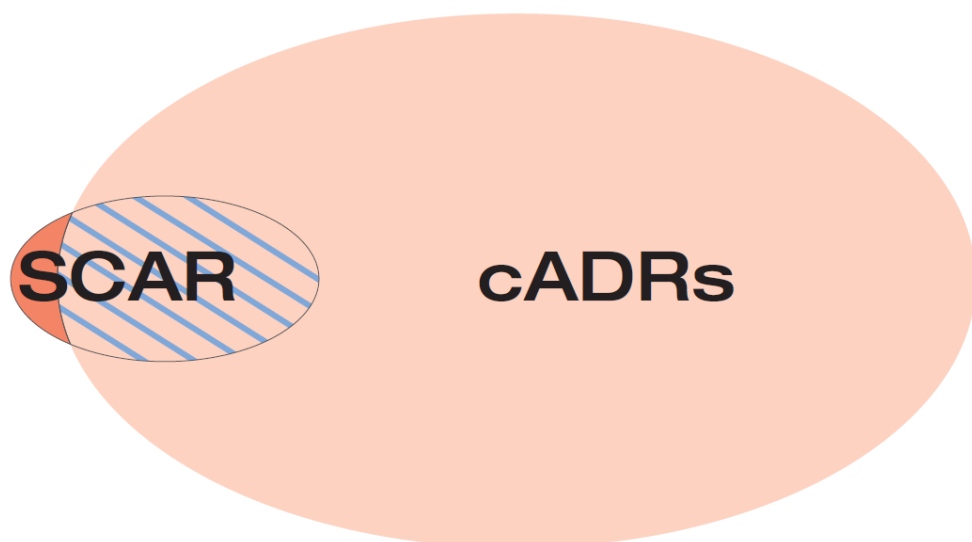
SCAR comprise Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS), acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) and generalized bullous fixed drug eruptions (GBFDE). Medicinal products are responsible for > 85% of SCAR in adults.[8] T-cell-mediated delayed hypersensitivity reactions, triggered by interactions between small-molecule drugs, HLA class I molecules and T-cell receptors, underlie the pathogenesis of most SCAR.

## **1.2 SCAR and non-SCAR**

The majority of cADRs are non-serious and not life-threatening. A serious AE or reaction to a medicinal product is defined as any untoward medical occurrence that at any dose satisfies any of the following criteria:[9,10]

- results in death,
- is life-threatening,
- requires inpatient hospitalization or prolongation of existing hospitalization,
- results in persistent or significant disability/incapacity,
- is a congenital anomaly/birth defect, or
- other medically important event or reaction.[9,11]

SCAR are a heterogeneous group of delayed T-cell-mediated hypersensitivity reactions, which are most frequently triggered by medicinal products.[8] They are life-threatening and therefore, serious reactions with reported case fatality between 5% for SJS and 30% for TEN. However, SCAR are not exclusively caused by medications and can be induced by various non-medicinal product causes including infections.[8-14]



SCAR induced by medicinal products



SCAR induced by causes other than medicinal products

**Note:**

SCAR = 0.1-1% of all cADRs

SCAR induced by causes other than medicinal products = 5-10% of all SCAR

**Figure 1. SCAR and cADRs**

For instance, SJS and TEN which represent different severity spectra of the same disease, now termed epidermal or epithelial necrolysis (EN), are not caused by medications in about 1/3 of cases.[13,14] For effective pharmacovigilance and benefit–risk management of medications, accurate estimates of the incidence of SCAR are important to characterize and quantify SCAR risk[9,10]. Based on the CIOMS definition, medicinal product-induced SCAR are attributable to any medicine with a causality grading of at least “possible”, which may improve the accuracy of SCAR evaluation in pharmacovigilance.

### 1.3 Benign cADRs (non-SCAR ADRs)

Clinical phenotypes of cADRs are very diverse and most of them are benign non-life-threatening reactions such as maculopapular exanthem (MPE), urticaria, FDE, lichenoid eruptions, vasculitis and others. A summary of differences between SCAR and non-SCAR is provided in [Table 1](#) below. MPE is the most common benign cADR to medicinal products.[7-13] MPE is characterized by a maculopapular/morbilliform eruption which usually appears one to two weeks after medicinal product exposure but may occur up to one week after stopping it. On re-exposure to the causative or related medicinal product, onset of MPE is much shorter, within one to three days after re-exposure. Medicinal products commonly implicated are penicillin, sulfonamides, cephalosporins and anti-epileptics. MPE resolves within one to two weeks on medicinal product withdrawal. It is a generally benign reaction but may be a first sign of DRESS. Factors favouring DRESS are fever, extensive skin involvement affecting more than 50% body surface area (BSA), facial swelling and a delayed onset of two to six weeks. (Figure 2)



**Figure 2 Characteristic morbilliform eruption in a patient with dapsone-induced reaction**

This figure was provided by the Working Group and included in the report with appropriate permission

Morbilliform rashes are a common manifestation of viral infections but unlike medicinal product eruptions which usually first appear on the trunk and then spread to the limbs and neck, a viral exanthem usually starts on the face and exhibits a cephalic-caudal spread. MPE is also a well-known eruption seen in patients with infectious mononucleosis after exposure to aminopenicillins. Another notable benign, non-life-threatening cADR is a FDE which characteristically recurs on the same site or sites each time a culprit medicinal product is consumed.[15-17]

Skin lesions are well-demarcated, round, or oval erythematous or violaceous patches which may be surmounted by bullae. FDE typically settled with hyperpigmentation on medicinal product withdrawal. If patient is re-exposed to causative or related medicinal product, the same pigmented patch become red and swollen again and patient may develop more lesions with repeated exposures. The lesions usually develop within 30 minutes to eight hours of taking the medicinal product.

Sites of predilection include hands and feet, lips, eyelids, and genitalia. Blisters and extensive ulceration may occur on mucosal sites (lips, vulva, penis). Medicinal products frequently implicated include non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), antibiotics (namely sulfamethoxazole, tetracyclines, dapsone), barbiturates and paracetamol/acetaminophen.

FDE may be solitary at first, but with repeated exposure to the culprit medicinal product, new lesions appear, and existing ones may increase in size leading to GBFDE. Hence, patients with FDE should be educated to avoid implicated and cross-reacting medicinal products to prevent potentially life-threatening GBFDE, which has a similar prognosis to SJS/TEN.[16]

	SCAR	Non-SCAR cADRs
Frequency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>SJS/TEN: 1–13 cases per million persons per year.[6-8,12,17-33]</li> <li>DRESS: 21.8 cases per million persons.[18]</li> <li>AGEP: 1-5 cases per million persons per year.[19-26]</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>10-30% of all reported ADRs.[2,3]</li> <li>2-3% of all hospitalized patients.[4]</li> <li>0.36-0.7% (dermatologists diagnosed) of hospitalized patients in 3 prospective studies.[5-7]</li> </ul>
Common etiology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Allopurinol</li> <li>Antibiotics</li> <li>Antiepileptic agents</li> <li>Nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs)</li> <li>Sulfonamides</li> </ul>	All medicinal products may cause non-SCAR cADRs
Latency period from medicinal product exposure to onset of skin rash	Variable, but for SJS/TEN and DRESS, it is usually longer than for non-SCAR cADRs <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>SJS/TEN 7-21 days</li> <li>DRESS: 17-31 days</li> <li>AGEP: 1-2 days</li> <li>GBFDE: a few hours</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1-3 days for urticaria or FDEs</li> <li>1-2 weeks for MPE or other non-SCAR cADRs</li> </ul>
General symptoms	Fever, general malaise, and sore throat are common	May have mild fever
Skin manifestations	Widespread lesions, rapid progression <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Blisters</li> <li>Targetoid lesions</li> <li>Pustules</li> <li>Facial swelling</li> <li>Purpuric changes</li> <li>Skin pain (especially in SJS/TEN and GBFDE)</li> <li>Nikolsky sign in SJS/TEN</li> </ul>	Localized or widespread lesions; mainly macular or papular lesions; no blisters/pustules/skin pain/Nikolsky sign
Mucosal involvement	Often	Very rare
Hospitalization for intensive care	Needed	Usually not needed
Laboratory data	Variable, but relatively more common than non-SCAR <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>SJS/TEN and AGEp: Leukocytosis</li> <li>DRESS: leukocytosis, eosinophilia, atypical lymphocytosis, abnormal liver/renal function tests</li> </ul>	Uncommon, except mild eosinophilia
Visceral organ involvement	Variable, but relatively more common than non-SCAR <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Very common in DRESS</li> </ul>	Rare
Outcome	Life threatening <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>SJS/TEN: case fatality 5-30%</li> <li>DRESS: 2-10%</li> <li>AGEP: &lt; 5%</li> <li>GBFDE: ~10%</li> </ul>	Benign, non-life threatening

**Table 1. Comparison between SCAR and non-SCAR**

## 603 1.4 Different types of SCAR

### 604 1.4.1 SJS/TEN/EMM

#### 605 1.4.1.1 Epidemiology

606 SJS, SJS/TEN-overlap and TEN represent different severity spectra of the same disease,  
607 namely epidermal necrolysis (EN). The latter, however, is distinct from erythema multiforme  
608 major (EMM), which is exclusively the result of infections. In the past, EMM was assumed to be  
609 a less severe form of SJS because of similar clinical and histopathologic features, but it is not a  
610 SCAR. A number of studies have explored the incidence of drug-induced epithelial necrolysis.  
611 Hospital-based studies and studies using large electronic databases documented an annual  
612 incidence of 1–13 cases per million persons.[5-33] A prospective population-based study that  
613 used the German SCAR registry estimated the incidence of SJS/TEN in Germany to be one to  
614 two cases/million population/year.[27] A nation-wide population-based study that used a national  
615 health insurance database in South Korea from 2010 to 2013 reported 5.9 cases of  
616 SJS/TEN/million/year.[32]

617 A study conducted in the United Kingdom (UK) using Clinical Practice Research Datalink from  
618 1995 to 2013 validated 551 cases, yielded an incidence of 5.76 SJS/TEN cases/million/year.[33]  
619 The twofold increased risk of SJS/TEN observed among Asians and Blacks in this study  
620 confirmed the finding of an earlier study from the United States (US), which was based on the  
621 Nationwide Inpatient Sample from 2009 to 2012 and documented an incidence of 12.7 cases of  
622 SJS /TEN/million adults/year with an increased risk in nonwhite populations (Asians; OR 3.27,  
623 95% CI 3.02, 3.54 and Blacks; OR 2.01, 95% CI 1.92, 2.10).[31] SJS and TEN can occur at any  
624 age, but the median age among more than 2200 and 2635 EN incidents in Germany and  
625 France, respectively, was about 50 years old with a slight female preponderance.[17,27]

#### 626 1.4.1.2 Common etiology (medicinal products)

627 Although SJS and TEN are life-threatening SCAR, infections such as mycoplasma pneumonia  
628 and herpes simplex virus were also implicated as causes.[33] No offending agent was identified  
629 in about 15-30% of cases. The EuroSCAR group identified allopurinol, anti-infective  
630 sulfonamides, antiepileptic agents (namely carbamazepine, phenobarbital, phenytoin and  
631 lamotrigine), and NSAIDs of the oxicam type as high-risk drugs for induction of EN based on  
632 two case-controlled studies; first, conducted from 1989 to 1995, included 372 cases and 1720  
633 controls and another between 1997 and 2001 of 379 validated cases and 1505 controls.[12,34]  
634 A study by the Asian SCAR consortium of 1028 validated cases of SJS/TEN treated from 1998  
635 to 2017 showed that anti-epileptics were the most common culprits followed by anti-infectives  
636 and allopurinol.[35] Oxcarbazepine, sulfasalazine, COX-II inhibitors, and strontium ranelate  
637 were identified as potentially new causes in Asia.

638 In addition to sulfa drugs and beta-lactam antibiotics, quinolones were also a common cause  
639 while several medications (e.g. oseltamivir, terbinafine, isotretinoin, and sorafenib) labelled as  
640 carrying a risk of SJS/ TEN by FDA were not found to have caused any of the cases in the  
641 Asian countries investigated in this study.

642

643

644

645

646

#### 1.4.1.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical manifestations)

SJS/TEN are characterized by EN with varying degree of blistering, skin detachment and sloughing. By consensus, SJS, SJS/TEN overlap and TEN are defined as EN with skin detachment affecting < 10%, 10-30% and >30% of the total body surface area (TBSA) respectively. Drug-induced SJS/TEN usually developed 4-28 days after initiation of culprit drugs. Cutaneous manifestation is often preceded by a prodromal period with symptoms such as fever, malaise, sore throat and cough.

Typical cutaneous lesions start as purpuric macules or atypical target lesions on upper torso, proximal limbs and face before spreading to the rest of body including palms and soles. Skin pain is an important early symptom and lesional skin is tender with dusky or vesicular centres that progress to become confluent areas of dusky erythema or flaccid bullae with a positive Nikolsky sign. Extensive necrolysis leads to sheets of denuded epidermis that exude serum, bleed easily and may become secondarily infected (Figure 3).



**Figure 3. Extensive skin detachment characteristic of TEN**

This figure was provided by the Working Group and included in the report with appropriate permission

Mucosal involvement is universal, with two or more mucosal surfaces being involved in up to 80% of cases.[36] Oral involvement is most common, with haemorrhagic mucositis and ulceration occurring in 93-100% of cases.[37,38] Ocular involvement is seen in 60-100% of cases with severity ranging from conjunctival hyperaemia to complete epidermal sloughing of the ocular surface. Early ophthalmologist consultation is essential to prevent long term ocular sequelae. Genital involvement is seen in up to 71% of female patients. SJS/TEN may also involve other organs including pulmonary, hepatic, gastrointestinal, otorhinolaryngologic, genitourinary and renal systems.[5,36]

SJS/TEN may be distinguished from EMM, which is characterized by a typical round target lesion with a darker centre with or without a blister surrounded by a raised, lighter, pale pink ring and a bright red outermost ring (Figure 4), whereas atypical target lesions in SJS are irregular in shape and flat.





**Figure 4. Typical round target lesions with a darker centre surrounded by a lighter, pale pink ring and a bright red outermost ring in a patient with EMM**

This figure was provided by the Working Group and included in the report with appropriate permission

Classic target lesions of EMM are predominantly on the limbs and acral regions whereas EN lesions start on the torso before they become generalized. Additionally, EMM occurs in younger patients and is exclusively associated with infections whereas SJS is predominantly a SCAR which affects older adults. German registry data show that 65% of SJS patients were older than 40 years whereas more than 80% of patients with EMM were younger than 40 years and 45% were under 18 years.[27,38]

GBFDE is an important differential diagnosis of SJS/TEN. The classic, discrete, large and well-defined violaceous or brownish round or oval patches with or without a central blister are very characteristic and can be readily distinguished from the confluent purpuric macules and patches of SJS and the large, denuded epidermis of TEN.

Patients with GBFDE usually do not have fever and the typical haemorrhagic mucosal involvement of SJS/TEN. Patients with GBFDE often have a history of previous eruptions in which the healed hyper-pigmented patches become inflamed again on re-exposure to culprit medicinal products. Staphylococcal scalded skin syndrome (SSSS) is another disease with blisters and skin detachment, but target or haemorrhagic mucosal lesions are not present and SSSS mainly affects children.

#### **1.4.1.4 Laboratory features**

Histopathologically, EN is characterized by variable keratinocytes necrosis and basal layer liquefaction degeneration. With advanced disease, full-thickness epidermal necrosis occurs with sub-epidermal bullae. This is accompanied by mild perivascular mixed infiltrates of predominantly lymphocytes and histiocytes with some eosinophils. SJS/TEN may be distinguished from SSSS by the level of epidermal detachment, which is sub-corneal in SSSS and sub-epidermal in SJS/TEN. Widespread keratinocyte necrosis is characteristic of SJS/TEN. It is difficult to distinguish early stage SJS/TEN from EMM by histology because both diseases are characterized by a vacuolar or lichenoid interface with scattered necrotic keratinocyte and a mixed perivascular infiltrate. As both diseases progress, a sub-epidermal split with increased epidermal necrosis is observed. A heavier lymphocytic infiltrate favours EM while increased eosinophils and confluent epidermal necrosis favours SJS/TEN. Histology is particularly useful to rule out SSSS which is characterized by a superficial sub-corneal blister, lack of epidermal necrosis and minimal inflammatory cells.



#### 712 1.4.1.5 Prognosis and outcome (long-term sequelae)

713 EN is a potentially life-threatening SCAR with an overall case fatality between 10% and  
714 20%.[17-31] Potential prognostic markers associated with death include delayed transfer to a  
715 specialist unit, advancing age, increasing skin detachment, presence of septicaemia and  
716 granulocytopenia. Survivors may have long-term physical sequelae such as cutaneous and  
717 ophthalmologic scarring, dyspigmentation, dental complications, genitourinary symptoms and  
718 pulmonary disease.[39,40] Long-term psychological outcomes include post-traumatic stress  
719 disorder anxiety, depression and decreased health-related quality.[39-42]

720 A recent survey conducted at 11 academic health centres in the U.S. between 1 January 2009,  
721 and 30 September 2019 which included 121 adult survivors of EN showed that the most  
722 common physical sequelae were cutaneous problems (84.3%), followed by ocular problems  
723 (59.5%) and oral mucosal problems (50.8%). Of screened participants, 53.3% of were positive  
724 for depression and 43.3% were positive for anxiety.[40]

#### 725 1.4.2 DRESS/DIHS

##### 726 1.4.2.1 Epidemiology

727 DRESS/DIHS is a rare, multi-systemic SCAR. The epidemiology of DRESS is not well  
728 characterized. However, it is estimated to occur in up to 2 per 100,000 patients based on  
729 EHRs.[18] and accounts for 10-20% of cADRs seen in a hospitalized setting.[43,44]

##### 730 1.4.2.2 Common etiology (medicinal products)

731 Aromatic antiepileptic (such as carbamazepine, phenytoin, lamotrigine, oxcarbazepine,  
732 phenobarbital) are the most common causal drugs, accounting for 35% of cases. Other highly  
733 associated medications include allopurinol, infective sulfonamides and other antibiotics such as  
734 vancomycin, minocycline and amoxicillin.[45] A prolonged latency between drug initiation and  
735 the onset of reaction is characteristic of DRESS with a median latency estimated at 22 days  
736 (IQR 17-31 days).[44] However, shorter latency periods have been reported for cases due to  
737 iodinated contrasts and antibiotics.[46,47]

738 In recent years, various pharmacogenetic associations between certain medicinal products and  
739 ethnicity have been established. These include *HLA-A\*32:01* and vancomycin-induced DRESS  
740 in Europeans; *HLA-A\*31:01* and carbamazepine-induced DRESS in European, Japanese and  
741 Han Chinese; *B\*13:01* and dapsone-induced DRESS in Han Chinese; and *B\*13:01*, *B\*15:01*  
742 and phenytoin-induced DRESS in Han Chinese and Thai.[48,49]

##### 743 1.4.2.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical 744 manifestations)

745 DRESS is a multi-systemic ADR with a heterogeneous presentation and variable clinical  
746 course. Diagnostic criteria based on the Japanese (J-SCAR) and RegiSCAR criteria are shown  
747 in Tables 2 and 3 below. Initial symptoms may be prodromal in nature such as fever and  
748 malaise.

1. Maculopapular rash developing > 3 weeks after starting with a number of drugs<sup>a</sup>
2. Prolonged clinical symptoms 2 weeks after discontinuation of the causative drug
3. Fever > 38° C
4. Liver abnormalities (*alanine aminotransferase* > 100U/L)<sup>b</sup>
5. Leukocyte abnormalities (at least one present)
  - a. Leukocytosis (> 11x10<sup>9</sup>/L)
  - b. Atypical lymphocytosis (> 5%)
  - c. Eosinophilia (> 1.5x10<sup>9</sup>/L)
6. Lymphadenopathy
7. Human herpesvirus 6 reactivation

<sup>a</sup> There are eight drugs to treat the majority of cases in Japan: carbamazepine, phenytoin, phenobarbital, zonisamide, mexiletine, dapsone, salazosulfapyridine and allopurinol.

<sup>b</sup> This can be replaced by other organ involvement, such as renal involvement

749

**Table 2. J-SCAR diagnostic criteria for drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome[50]**

Permission obtained from Oxford University Press

A diagnosis is confirmed by the presence of all seven of the above criteria (typical DIHS) or five of the criteria (1 to 5, atypical DIHS).

Assessment/ Score	-1	0	1	Comment
Fever $\geq 38.5^{\circ}\text{C}$	No/U	Yes		Acute episodes
Enlarged lymph nodes		No/U	Yes	$>1\text{ cm}$ , $\geq 2$ different areas (right side plus left side is not adequate)
Eosinophilia 'Eosinophils $\geq 700/\mu\text{L}$ or ' $\geq 10\%$ if leukocyte $< 4000/\mu\text{L}$		No/U	Yes	<u>Score 2</u> for extreme eosinophilia 'Eosinophils $\geq 1500/\mu\text{L}$ or ' $\geq 20\%$ if leukocyte $< 4000/\mu\text{L}$
Atypical lymphocytes		No/U	Yes	
Skin rash				Onset $< 21$ days before hospitalization
Extent $> 50\%$ body surface area		No/U	Yes	
Rash suggesting DRESS	No	U	Yes	$\geq 2$ symptoms: purpuric change, facial edema, infiltration, psoriasiform desquamation
Biopsy suggesting DRESS	No	Yes/U		<u>Score -1</u> if results fit any other specific dermatopathologic diagnosis
Organ involvement				Excluding other causes, score max. of 2
Liver: any criterion		No/U	Yes	ALT $> 2^* \text{UNL}$ , twice on successive dates D-bil. $> 2^* \text{UNL}$ , twice on successive dates AST, T-bil., ALP all $> 2^* \text{UNL}$ , once
Kidney: any criterion			Yes	Creatinine $> 1.5^*$ patient's baseline Proteinuria above 1g/day
Lung: any criterion			Yes	Evidence of interstitial lung (CT, x-ray) Abnormal bronchoalveolar lavage Abnormal blood gases
Muscle/Heart: any criterion			Yes	Raised creatine kinase Raised troponin T Abnormalities in the echocardiogram
Pancreas			Yes	Amylase $> 2^* \text{UNL}$
Other organs			Yes	Central nervous system, splenomegaly
Rash resolution $\geq 15$ days	No/U	Yes		
Excluding other causes		No/U	Yes	<u>Score 1</u> if $\geq 3$ tests are performed and negative
Hepatitis A, B, C				At least 2 tests are negative and 1 unknown: negative
Mycoplasma/Chlamydia				At least 1 test is negative and 1 unknown: negative
Antinuclear antibody				
Blood culture				Sampling within 3 days of hospitalization
Final Score				
Final scores: $< 2$ : excluded; 2-3: possible; 4-5: probable; $> 5$ : definite				
Abbreviations: ALP, alkaline phosphatase; ALT, alanine transaminase; AST, aspartate transaminase; CT, computed tomography; D-bil., direct bilirubin; max., maximum; T-bil., total bilirubin; U, unknown; UNL: upper normal limit				

750 **Table 3. RegiSCAR scoring system for DRESS diagnosis [51]**

751 Permission obtained from Elsevier

752

753 Cutaneous eruptions are extensive and may be polymorphic in presentation. These include  
754 maculopapular eruptions, infiltrated plaques, pustules, target-like lesions, purpura, eczematous  
755 lesions and erythroderma. Facial erythema and swelling are prominent features of DRESS.  
756 Mucosal involvement is not a prominent feature, unlike SJS/TEN.

757 Various internal organs may be involved including the liver, kidneys, lungs, heart, nervous  
758 system and others. In a prospective multinational registry, RegiSCAR, the most frequently  
759 involved organs are the liver (75%), kidneys (37%) and lungs (32%).[44] Although a cutaneous  
760 eruption is the most striking feature, the onset and clinical course of the internal organ may not  
761 parallel that of the skin.

762 **Liver involvement:** The patterns of liver injury in DRESS can be classified into cholestatic  
763 (37%), hepatocellular (19%) and mixed (27%). Up to 50% of cases may have severe  
764 involvement with liver enzymes being more than 10 times higher than the upper limit of  
765 normal.[52] Acute liver failure is uncommon and transplant is rarely required.

766 **Kidney involvement:** Renal involvement in DRESS occurs in up to 40% of patients and up to  
767 8% of patients may develop acute renal failure.[53] Renal involvement occurs more commonly  
768 in cases associated with allopurinol and vancomycin.[44-54]

769 **Cardiac involvement:** Cardiac involvement occurs in up to 20% of cases and presenting  
770 features include tachycardia, dyspnoea, hypotension, chest pain and electrocardiogram (ECG)  
771 changes. Myocarditis can occur months after the offending medicinal product has been  
772 discontinued and when the cutaneous and laboratory features have abated, leading to its  
773 under-diagnosis.

774 There are two forms of DRESS-associated myocarditis: hypersensitivity myocarditis (acute  
775 eosinophilic myocarditis) and a more severe form, acute necrotizing eosinophilic myocarditis. In  
776 the more severe form, acute necrotizing eosinophilic myocarditis, case fatality approximates  
777 50%.[55]

778 **Pulmonary involvement:** Pulmonary involvement may initially present with dyspnoea, cough or  
779 pleurisy. The manifestation is diverse, ranging from impaired pulmonary function tests,  
780 interstitial pulmonary infiltrates, pneumonia, pulmonary nodules, effusion and acute respiratory  
781 distress syndrome (ARDS). In a systematic review of reported DRESS/DIHS cases with  
782 pulmonary involvement, pneumonitis was the most common (50%), followed by ARDS (31%)  
783 and pleural effusion (23%).[56]

784 **Blood:** Haematologic abnormalities are common in DRESS/DIHS with eosinophilia (95%) and  
785 atypical lymphocytes (70%) being the most common. Other findings include, leukocytosis,  
786 neutrophilia, lymphocytosis, monocytosis, thrombocytosis and thrombocytopenia.[44]

787 Other reported systemic involvements include neurological (e.g. encephalitis, Bell's palsy,  
788 peripheral neuropathy), gastrointestinal (e.g. cholecystitis, pancreatitis, colitis, intestinal  
789 perforation), myositis as well as thyroid dysfunction. The acute phase of the disease is  
790 prolonged. 90% of cases persist beyond 15 days and up to 20% of patients persist beyond 90  
791 days.[57]

792 In addition, the clinical course may be punctuated by relapses and flare-ups. The latter occur in  
793 up to 25% of DRESS and such reactions are typically cutaneous, although organ involvement  
794 may occur as well.[58]

795 Flare-up reactions typically occur in patients treated with systemic corticosteroids that has  
796 undergone rapid dose tapering and this may be related to a viral reaction of human herpes  
797 virus. Relapses can occur with the re-introduction of structurally different drugs, antibiotics in  
798 particular, which were administered during the acute phase of the disease.[59]

#### 799 1.4.2.4 Prognosis and outcome (long-term sequelae)

800 The case fatality in DRESS vary between 2-10%. The presence of cytomegalovirus (CMV)  
801 reactivation is a poor prognostic factor.[60] Long-term sequelae have been reported in up to 12 %  
802 of survivors, such sequelae are typically autoimmune in nature and consist of Grave's disease,  
803 type 1 diabetes mellitus, vitiligo, alopecia areata, autoimmune hemolytic anemia, lupus  
804 erythematosus.[61-63]

#### 805 1.4.3 AGEP

##### 806 1.4.3.1 Epidemiology

807 AGEP was originally classified as a variant of generalized pustular psoriasis (GPP), termed  
808 exanthematic pustular psoriasis. In a comprehensive review of 104 GPP cases in 1968, Baker  
809 & Ryan, identified five cases of exanthematic GPP which were characterized by acute onset of  
810 numerous discrete pustules in patients with no known history of psoriasis. Exanthematic GPP  
811 usually develops after upper respiratory tract infection (URTI) or after ingestion of drugs used to  
812 treat URTI. It is self-limiting and resolved spontaneously in one to two weeks.[64] Without a  
813 prior history of psoriasis and the lack of recurrence, the authors postulated that these skin  
814 eruptions were likely triggered by drugs and/or infections[53,65] Baker and Ryan's description  
815 of exanthematic GPP is reminiscent of AGEP, a term coined by Beylot et al.[65] in 1980 to  
816 describe this distinctive drug-induced eruption.

817 AGEP is a rare SCAR with reported incidence of one to five cases per million per year.[19] A  
818 recent retrospective review of 340 probable or definite cases of AGEP based on EuroSCAR  
819 criteria from 10 academic dermatology departments in the U.S. between January 1, 2000, and  
820 July 30, 2020 showed a female preponderance (62.9%) with a mean age of 57.8 ( $\pm 17.4$ )  
821 years.[20] Female preponderance was also observed in the EuroSCAR study of nine cases[21]  
822 as well as studies from France[22], Israel[23,24], Malaysia[25], Singapore[26] and Taiwan.[66]  
823 Although no gender variation was observed in some studies, a recent literature review of 250  
824 case reports or case series which included 297 AGEP confirmed a female preponderance.[67]

##### 825 1.4.3.2 Common etiology (medicinal products)

826 The majority (>85%) of AGEP cases are drug-induced.[64,65] Infections with Parvovirus B19,  
827 CMV, Coxsackie B4 and Mycoplasma pneumoniae have been implicated. However, the  
828 EuroSCAR case control study of 97 cases of AGEP with 1009 normal controls found no  
829 significant risk for infections.[21] Hypersensitivity to mercury, Rhus (lacquer) and spider bites  
830 have also been reported as triggers for AGEP.[65] Aminopenicillins, pristinamycin,  
831 sulfonamides, quinolones, hydroxychloroquine, terbinafine and diltiazem are frequent causative  
832 drugs, but the list of reported culprit medicinal products is very long. A recent review identified  
833 93 drugs, which caused 259 positive patch tests in 248 patients with AGEP. Beta-lactam  
834 antibiotics caused the highest number of reactions (25.9%), followed by other antibiotics  
835 (20.8%), iodinated contrast media (7.3%), and corticosteroids (5.4%), together accounting for  
836 nearly 60% of all AGEP cases. The highest number of AGEP cases to individual drugs was to  
837 amoxicillin (n = 36), followed by pristinamycin (n = 25), diltiazem (n = 14), amoxicillin-clavulanic  
838 acid (n = 13), clindamycin (n = 11), and iomeprol (n = 8).[68] In the US study of 340 validated  
839 cases, AGEP was attributed to medicinal products (85.6%), intravenous contrast agents (2.1%),  
840 infection (0.9%), or unknown (11.5%) and  $\beta$ -lactam antimicrobials (41.7%) were the most  
841 common drug classes that were implicated, followed by non- $\beta$ -lactam antimicrobials (33.8%),  
842 anticonvulsants (6%) and calcium channel blockers (3.3%).

843

844

### 1.4.3.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical manifestations)

AGEP is characterized by a sudden onset of numerous pinpoint, non-follicular sterile pustules on oedematous erythematous skin. The most characteristic feature of AGEP is its clinical course. It has a very rapid onset and equally rapid resolution.(Figure 5)



**Figure 5. Numerous pinpoint, nonfollicular pustules and confluent pus lakes on oedematous erythematous plaques on the inner thigh of a patient with AGEP**

This figure was provided by the Working Group and included in the report with appropriate permission

Skin lesions appear rapidly within 24-48 hours of medicinal product exposure and resolve as rapidly within five to seven days upon medicinal product withdrawal followed by collarette pinpoint desquamation. Distribution is usually widespread but may be limited, in which case lesions are usually confined to body folds. Flexural predominance and facial involvement are characteristic. Mucosal involvement is uncommon. It is reported in about 20% and usually manifest as nonerosive cheilitis. Skin eruption is usually pruritic. The pinpoint pustules may coalesce to form bigger, but subcentimetre pustules. Atypical presentations such as huge erosions resembling TEN, purpuric and erythema multiforme-like lesions have been reported.

Skin eruptions in AGEP are often accompanied by fever 38.0 °C. AGEP usually resolves fully within 15 days. In a study of 58 patients with AGEP, 17% had internal organ involvement (namely hepatic, renal and pulmonary dysfunction) that resolved on drug withdrawal and supportive treatment with no mortality.[19] Neutrophilia, elevated CRP and re-challenge are identified as risk factors for organ involvement. In a recent U.S. study, 8.4% of 298 patients with AGEP had an acute elevation of aspartate aminotransferase and alanine aminotransferase levels with a peak at 6 (IQR, 3-9) days and 7.8% of 319 patients experienced acute kidney insufficiency, with at 4 (IQR, 2-5) days after onset of AGEP. Reported case fatality of AGEP is 5% mainly due to secondary infections in older patients with comorbidities. All-cause mortality in the study population within 30 days was 3.5%, but none was deemed to be due to AGEP.[64]

### 1.4.3.4 Laboratory features

AGEP is almost always accompanied by absolute neutrophilia (>7000/mL) which was seen in about 85% of 309 cases with available data in the U.S. study.[64] Thirty to 50% of patients had eosinophilia and 65-75% of patients had hypocalcemia.[21,64] Key histopathologic features of AGEP include intra-corneal, sub-corneal and intra-epidermal spongiform pustules containing a mixed infiltrate of neutrophils and eosinophils.[69] Other epidermal features include keratinocyte necrosis, neutrophilic exocytosis and mild psoriasiform hyperplasia. Characteristic dermal findings are papillary oedema, a neutrophil-rich superficial to mid-dermal perivascular and interstitial infiltrates that regularly contain eosinophils. Red blood cell extravasation and mild leukocytoclasia are common, but frank vasculitis is not a feature.

### 883 1.4.3.5 Prognosis and outcome

884 AGEF is a rare distinctive SCAR. It may be associated with systemic complications in a minority  
885 of patients and typically resolves upon withdrawal of culprit medicinal products. Reported case  
886 fatality is <5%.

## 887 1.4.4 GBFDE

### 888 1.4.4.1 Epidemiology

889 GBFDE may be defined as widespread typical FDE with blisters and erosions affecting more  
890 than 10% of BSA on at least three out of six sites:

- 891 1) head and neck,
- 892 2) anterior trunk,
- 893 3) back,
- 894 4) upper limbs,
- 895 5) lower limbs and
- 896 6) genitalia.[17]

897 FDE is most common in adults, but can affect children and the elderly whereas GBFDE mainly  
898 affects elderly patients.[15-17] In a survey of 58 patients with GBFDE, the median age of  
899 patients was 78 years (range 68–84 years).[16]

### 900 1.4.4.2 Common etiology (medicinal products)

901 Since GBFDE may evolve from FDE after repeated exposure to the culprit medicinal product,  
902 implicated medicinal products are similar to those responsible for FDE, namely NSAIDs,  
903 antibiotics (namely sulfamethoxazole, tetracyclines, dapsone), barbiturates and  
904 paracetamol/acetaminophen. Other implicated substances include tartrazine in food and cold  
905 medication, and quinine in alcoholic beverages made with tonic water. GBFDE has been  
906 reported following influenza and COVID-19 vaccination.[70,71]

### 907 1.4.4.3 Clinical characteristics (that assist diagnosis by highlighting key clinical 908 manifestations)

909 GBFDE is characterized by well-demarcated erythematous, violaceous or dusky red round or  
910 oval patches with blisters and erosions. Most patients report a positive history of similar  
911 eruptions. GBFDE may be confused with SJS/TEN due to the extensive bullous eruption with  
912 erosions. Clinical clues which favour a GBFDE diagnosis are (Figure 6):

- 913 1) characteristic well-demarcated erythematous, violaceous or dusky red round or oval  
914 patches, which resolves with typical hyperpigmentation
- 915 2) absence of small spots and targetoid lesions,
- 916 3) lack of or minimal mucosal involvement,
- 917 4) lack of constitutional symptoms such as fever, and
- 918 5) rapid onset of rash within a few hours after drug exposure compared to 1-3 weeks  
919 reported in EN.

920



**Figure 6. Many well-demarcated, dusky red, round or oval patches with blisters and erosions on the trunk and limbs of a patient with GBFDE**

#### **1.4.4.4 Laboratory features**

GBFDE and SJS/TEN share overlapping histopathologic features. Histopathologically, GBFDE is characterized by subepidermal blisters, vacuolar interface dermatitis with variable mild to moderate density of perivascular and interstitial infiltrate, composed of eosinophils and lymphocytes in both the superficial and deep dermis. Pigmentary incontinence is a typical feature and discrete apoptotic/necrotic keratinocytes are scattered throughout the epidermis. In contrast, SJS/TEN, especially TEN, is characterized by a near absence of or sparse inflammatory infiltrate and extensive, confluent full-thickness epidermal necrosis.

#### **1.4.4.5 Prognosis and outcome**

GBFDE is generally associated with a much better prognosis than SJS/TEN based on case reports and small case series. However, a case control study comparing 58 patients with GBFDE to 170 patients with SJS/TEN showed that there was no significant difference in the case fatality between the two groups. This study population was drawn from patients reported to the EuroSCAR group as potential SJS/TEN and diagnosis of GBFDE was validated based on the presence of at least two of the following criteria:

- 1) similar reaction in the past,
- 2) fewer than two mucous membranes involved,
- 3) absence of spots or target lesions,
- 4) large and well-demarcated blisters and erosions, and
- 5) lesions and erosions on at least two different sites of the body regardless of the extent of the lesions.

However, 31% of the 58 patients[16] had at least two affected mucosal sites. A validated international diagnostic criterion for GBFDE is needed to determine the burden of this rare SCAR accurately.



## 948 1.5 SJS/TEN/DRESS/AGEP overlap

949 Because the initial presentation of SCAR may vary, diagnosis is difficult and suggests the  
 950 possibility of overlap among SCAR may occur. AGEP, with a confluence of pustules resulting in  
 951 superficial detachment, may manifest similar to TEN.[72] Cases of “overlap” between DRESS  
 952 and TEN have been reported, suggesting the difficulty in classifying SCAR under certain  
 953 circumstances.[73] Various T-cell - mediated delayed hypersensitivity reactions can be related  
 954 to the preferential activation of medicinal product-specific T cells with distinct functions. These  
 955 complex immune reactions are not exclusive and may be combined. Therefore, an overlap of  
 956 immune reactions is possible, even if one type is often dominant, and could explain clinical  
 957 ambiguities among SCAR.

958 A retrospective study of SCAR cases revealed the frequent occurrence (n = 45; 21%) of SCAR  
 959 cases that were based on different diagnoses (possible, probable or certain), which reflects the  
 960 clinical ambiguity among several SCAR.[74] In such situations, the clinician is confronted with  
 961 an uncertain diagnosis of several disease entities. However, only three “true” overlap SCAR  
 962 were documented, representing 2.1% of the 145 confirmed SCAR cases.[74] The above results  
 963 indicate that overlap of SCAR does exist but is rare, if the retrospective analysis was performed  
 964 using a diagnostic algorithm.

## 965 References

- 1 World Health Organization (1972) International drug monitoring: the role of national centres. Report of a WHO meeting. World Health Organ Tech Rep Ser 498. [Report](#)
- 2 Arulmani R, Rajendran SD, Suresh B. Adverse drug reaction monitoring in a secondary care hospital in South India. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 2008 Feb;65(2):210-6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 3 Naldi L, et al. Cutaneous reactions to drugs. An analysis of spontaneous reports in four Italian regions. Br J Clin Pharmacol. 1999 Dec; 48(6):839-46. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 4 Bigby M, et al. Drug-Induced Cutaneous Reactions: A Report from the Boston Collaborative Drug Surveillance Program on 15 438 Consecutive Inpatients, 1975 to 1982. J Am Med Assoc. 1986; 256(24):3358-3363. [JAMA Abstract](#)
- 5 Fiszenson-Albala F, et al. A 6-month prospective survey of cutaneous drug reactions in a hospital setting. Br J Dermatol. 2003 Nov;149(5):1018–1022. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 6 Hernández-Salazar A, et al. Epidemiology of adverse cutaneous drug reactions. A prospective study in hospitalized patients. Arch Med Res. 2006 Oct;37(7):899–902. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Latha S, Choon SE. Incidence of adverse cutaneous drug reaction among medical inpatients, Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor Bahru. Med J Malaysia. 2017 Jun;72(3):151-156. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Adler NR, et al. Recent advances in the understanding of severe cutaneous adverse reactions. Br J Dermatol. 2017 Nov;177(5):1234-1247. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 9 ICH Topic E2A Clinical Safety Data Management: Definitions and Standards for Expedited Reporting, 1995 [Guidance document](#)
- 10 CIOMS. CIOMS IV: [Benefit-Risk Balance for Marketed Drugs: Evaluating Safety Signals](#). 1998
- 11 CIOMS [CIOMS ICH Glossary\\_v5](#). Feb 2024.
- 12 Roujeau JC, Stern RS. Severe adverse cutaneous reactions to drugs. N Engl J Med. 1994;331:1272-85. No abstract available.
- 13 Shear NH, Dodiuk-Gad RP. (eds.), Advances in Diagnosis and Management of Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reactions.
- 14 Frantz R, et al. Stevens–Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: A review of Diagnosis and management. Medicina, 2021 Aug 28;57(9), 895. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 15 Anderson HJ, Lee JB. A Review of Fixed Drug Eruption with a Special Focus on Generalized Bullous Fixed Drug Eruption. Medicina (Kaunas) 2021 Sep 1;57(9):925. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 16 Lipowicz S, et al. Prognosis of generalized bullous fixed drug eruption: comparison with Stevens–Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. Br J Dermatol. 2013 Apr;168(4):726–32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 Chaby G, et al. Incidence of and mortality from epidermal necrolysis (Stevens–Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis) in France during 2003–16: a four-source capture–recapture estimate. Br J Dermatol. 2020 Mar;182(3):618–624. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 18 Wolfson AR, et al. Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS) Syndrome Identified in the Electronic Health Record Allergy Module. J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract. 2019 Feb;7(2):633-640. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 19 Sidoroff A. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis. Chem. Immunol. Allergy. 2012;97:139–148 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 20 Creadore A, et al. Clinical Characteristics, Disease Course, and Outcomes of Patients With Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis in the US. JAMA Dermatol. 2022 Feb;158(2):176-183. [Key Points, Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 21 Sidoroff A, et al. Risk factors for acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP)-results of a multinational case-control study (EuroSCAR). Br J Dermatol. 2007 Nov;157(5):989-96. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Hotz C, et al. Systemic involvement of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: a retrospective study on 58 patients. Br J Dermatol. 2013 Dec;169(6):1223-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Tamir E, et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: a retrospective analysis showing a clear predilection for Women. Skinmed. 2006 Jul-Aug;5(4):186-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Davidovici B, et al. Profile of Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis in Israel During 2002-2005: Results of the RegiSCAR Study. Isr Med Assoc J. 2008 Jun;10(6):410-2. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Choon SE, et al. Clinical characteristics, culprit drugs and outcome of patients with Acute Generalised Exanthematous Pustulosis seen in Hospital Sultanah Aminah, Johor Bahru. Med J Malaysia 2018 Aug;73(4):220-225. [PubMed Abstract](#)

- 26 Lee HY, et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: analysis of cases managed in a tertiary hospital in Singapore. *Int J Dermatol.* 2010 May;49(5):507-12. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 27 Mockenhaupt M. Epidemiology of cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Allergol Select.* 2017 Aug 4;1(1):96-108. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 28 Velasco-Tirado V, et al. Life-threatening dermatoses: Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. Impact on the Spanish public health system (2010–2015). *PLoS One* 2018 Jun 18;13:e0198582. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 29 Roujeau JC, et al. Toxic epidermal necrolysis (Lyell syndrome). Incidence and drug etiology in France, 1981–1985. *Arch Dermatol.* 1990 Jan;126(1):37–42. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 30 Diphorn J, et al. REACT-Lombardia study group. Incidence, causative factors and mortality rates of Stevens Johnson syndrome (SJS) and toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN) in northern Italy: data from the REACT registry. *John Wiley & Sons Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf* 2016 Feb 1;25:196–203. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 31 Hsu DY, et al. Morbidity and Mortality of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis in United States adults. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2016 Jul;136(7):1387–1397. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 32 Yang MS, et al. Incidence of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: A Nationwide Population-Based Study Using National Health Insurance Database in Korea. *PLoS One* 2016 Nov 11;11(11):e0165933. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 33 Frey N, et al. The Epidemiology of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis in the UK. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2017 Jun;137(6):1240–1247. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 34 Mockenhaupt M, et al. Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: Assessment of Medication Risks with Emphasis on Recently Marketed Drugs. The EuroSCAR study. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2008;128:35–44. [JID Full Text](#)
- 35 Wang YH, et al. The Medication Risk of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis in Asians: The Major Drug Causality and Comparison With the US FDA Label. *Clin. Pharmacol Ther.* 2019 Jan;105(1):112–120. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 36 Frantz R, et al. Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: A Review of Diagnosis and Management. *Medicina* 2021, 57(9), 895. [MDPI Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 37 Shanbhag S, et al. Multidisciplinary care in Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *Ther Adv Chronic Dis.* 2020 Jan-Dec;11. [SAGE Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 38 Auquier-Dunant A, et al. Correlations between clinical patterns and causes of erythema multiforme majus, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, and toxic epidermal necrolysis: results of an international prospective study. *Arch Dermatol.* 2002 Aug;138(8):1019–24. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 39 Schwartz RA, McDonough PH, Lee BW. Toxic epidermal necrolysis: Part II. Prognosis, sequelae, diagnosis, differential diagnosis, prevention, and treatment. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2013 Aug;69(2):187.e1–16. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 40 Hoffman M, et al. Long-term Physical and Psychological Outcomes of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome/Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *JAMA Dermatol.* 2021 Jun 1;157(6):712–715. [JAMA Abstract](#)
- 41 Hefez L, et al. Post-traumatic stress disorder in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: prevalence and risk factors: A prospective study of 31 patients. *Br J Dermatol.* 2019 May;180(5):1206–1213. doi:10.1111/bjd.17267. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 42 Dodiuk-Gad RP, et al. Major psychological complications and decreased health-related quality of life among survivors of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Br J Dermatol.* 2016 Aug;175(2):422–424. No abstract available.
- 43 Lee HY, et al. Cutaneous adverse drug reactions in hospitalized patients. *Singapore Med J.* 2010 Oct;51(10):767–74. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 44 Teo Y, Walsh S, Creamer D. Cutaneous adverse drug reaction referrals to a liaison dermatology service. *Br J Dermatol.* 2017 Oct;177(4):e141–e142. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 45 Kardaun SH, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): an original multisystem adverse drug reaction. Results from the prospective RegiSCAR study. *Br J Dermatol.* 2013 Nov;169(5):1071–80. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 46 Soria A, et al. DRESS and AGEP Reactions to Iodinated Contrast Media: A French Case Series. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract.* 2021 Aug;9(8):3041–3050. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 47 Soria A, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms may occur within 2 weeks of drug exposure: A retrospective study. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2020 Mar;82:606–11. [JAAD Abstract](#)
- 48 Philips EJ, et al. Drug hypersensitivity: Pharmacogenetics and clinical syndromes. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2011 Mar;127(3):S60–S66. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 49 Konvinse KC, et al. HLA-A\*32:01 is strongly associated with vancomycin-induced drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms. *J Allergy Clin Immunol.* 2019 Jul;144(1):183–192. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 50 Shiohara T, et al. The diagnosis of a DRESS syndrome has been sufficiently established on the basis of typical clinical features and viral reactivations. *Br J Dermatol.* 2007 May;156(5):1083–1084. [Extract](#)
- 51 Chen YC, et al. Reply to “Using a diagnostic score when reporting the long-term sequelae of the drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms”. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2013 Dec;69(6):1060–2
- 52 Lin IC, et al. Liver injury in patients with DRESS: A clinical study of 72 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2015 Jun;72(6):984–91. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 53 Chen YC, Chiu HC, Chu CY. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: a retrospective study of 60 cases. *Arch Dermatol.* 2010 Dec;146(12):1373–9. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 54 Madigan LM, Fox LP. Vancomycin-associated drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2019 Jul;81(1):123–128. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 55 Bourgeois GP, et al. A review of DRESS-associated myocarditis. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2012 Jun;66(6):e229–36. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 56 Taweesed PT, et al. Pulmonary Manifestations of Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS) Syndrome: A Systematic Review. *Biomed Res Int.* 2019;2019:Article ID 7863815. [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 57 Tetart F, et al. Prolonged evolution of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: Clinical, Virologic and Biological Features. *JAMA Dermatol.* 2014 Feb;150(2):206–207. [Research Letter](#)
- 58 Picard D, et al. Recurrence of drug-induced reactions in DRESS patients. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol.* 2015 Apr;29(4):801–4. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 59 Santiago L, et al. Hypersensitivity to antibiotics in drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) from other culprits. *Contact Dermatitis.* 2020 May;82(5):290–296. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 60 Mizukawa Y, et al. Drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia, systemic symptoms severity score: A useful tool for assessing disease severity and predicting fatal cytomegalovirus disease. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2019 Mar;80(3):670–678. [JAAD Full Text](#)
- 61 Chen YC, et al. Long-term sequelae of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: a retrospective cohort study from Taiwan. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2013 Mar;68(3):459–65. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 62 Ushigome Y, et al. Short- and long-term outcomes of 34 patients with drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome in a single institution. *J Am Acad Dermatol.* 2013 May;68(5):721–8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

- 63 Kano Y, et al. Sequelae in 145 patients with drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: survey conducted by the Asian Research Committee on Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions (ASCAR). *J Dermatol*. 2015 Mar;42(3):276-282. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 64 Baker H, Ryan TJ. Generalized pustular psoriasis. A clinical and epidemiological study of 104 cases. *Br. J. Dermatol*. 1968 Dec; 80(12):771-793. [BJD Abstract](#)
- 65 Beylot C, Bioulac P, Doutre MS. Acute generalized exanthematic pustuloses (four cases) (author's transl). *Ann Dermatol Venereol*. 1980 Jan-Feb;107(1-2):37-48. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 66 Lee Y, Chung W. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: A retrospective study of 51 cases in Taiwan. *Dermatol Sin*. 2014 Sep;32(3):137-140. [ScienceDirect Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 67 Vallejo-Yagüe E, et al. Drug Triggers and Clinic of Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis (AGEP): A Literature Case Series of 297 Patients. *J Clin Med*. 2022 Jan;11(2):397. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 68 de Groot AC. Results of patch testing in acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP): A literature review. *Contact Dermatitis*. 2022 Aug;87(2):119-141. DOI: 10.1111/cod.14075. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 69 Kardaun SH, et al. The histopathological spectrum of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) and its differentiation from generalized pustular psoriasis. *J Cutan Pathol*. 2010 Dec;37(12):1220-9. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 70 Chikowski Byrd R, et al. Generalized bullous fixed-drug eruption secondary to the influenza vaccine. *JAAD Case Rep*. 2018 Oct;4(9):953-955. [JAAD Case Reports](#)
- 71 Wantavornprasert K, et al. Generalized bullous fixed drug eruption after Oxford-AstraZeneca (ChAdOx1 nCoV-19) vaccination. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 2022 Feb;47(2):428-432. [PubMed Letter to the Editor](#)
- 72 Peermohamed S, Haber RM. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis simulating toxic epidermal necrolysis: a case report and review of the literature. *Arch Dermatol*. 2011 Jun;147(6):697-701. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 73 Wolf R, et al. Drug Rash with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms versus Stevens-Johnson Syndrome-a Case that Indicates a Stumbling Block in the Current Classification. *Int Arch Allergy Immunol*. 2006;141(3):308-310. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 74 Bouvresse S, et al. Toxic epidermal necrolysis, DRESS, AGEP: Do overlap cases exist? *Orphanet Journal of Rare Diseases* 2012;7:72. [Journal Full Text](#)

## CHAPTER 2.

### DIAGNOSIS AND IDENTIFICATION OF SCAR CASES

#### Chapter summary

- The first step in analysing a putative SCAR is to make a diagnosis even if tentative. DRESS, SJS/TEN and some other SCAR conditions have defined diagnostic criteria which may overlap and can hence be challenging to diagnose in the earliest stages.
- The HCP must determine medicinal product exposure (name and dosage) and lag period (the time between initiation of the medicinal product and the onset of the first symptoms of the ADR).
- All medications, especially those taken in the eight weeks prior to the cADR, must be considered as possible causative agents.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

A SCAR diagnosis should consider patient history, visual assessment (appearance, morphology), severity and the presence of systemic symptoms, skin histopathology, followed by a causality assessment in the individual patient.

#### 2.1 Introduction

ADRs have a wide spectrum of clinical manifestations. They are caused by various medicinal products and result from varied pathophysiologic mechanisms. Hence, their diagnosis and management are challenging. cADRs can range in clinical manifestations; from a mild exanthem involving only the skin to a reaction including systemic symptoms in addition to the skin manifestations, which can be fatal such as in the cases of life-threatening ADRs.[1]

Generally, cADRs are either common and mild or rare and severe reactions. However, medicinal products associated with common and severe reactions are typically not approved for clinical use. Rare and mild reactions usually go unnoticed or are not reported by patients. In most cases, cADRs are classified as “simple” or “complex.” A “simple” reaction only involves the skin, while a “complex” reaction includes systemic involvement of organs in addition to involvement of the skin.[2]

##### 2.1.1 Diagnosis

The diagnosis of a cADR is generally based on three key clinical elements:

- 1) Appearance: the morphology of the cADR including four main categories of the primary lesion: maculopapular (exanthem, enanthem), urticarial, bullous and pustular.
- 2) Systemic signs that differentiate between a simple reaction involving only the skin and a complex reaction that comprises systemic involvement in addition to the skin.
- 3) Histology: histopathology and, if relevant, direct immunofluorescence studies of skin biopsies to confirm the clinical impression and to distinguish between a cADR and other skin diseases.

##### 2.1.2 Criteria for diagnosis

If available, validated diagnostic criteria of specific types of cADRs should be used. Currently, only AGEP and DRESS have published validated diagnostic criteria. This chapter provides a practical approach to diagnosing and identifying SCAR cases.[3,4]

1008	<b>2.2</b>	<b>Patient history</b>
1009	<b>2.2.1</b>	<b>Patient history including time to onset</b>
1010		First, the patient's exposure to the medicinal product must be ascertained by the patient, the
1011		patient's family, pharmacists or others who might know which medications the patient was
1012		taking prior to the AE. Second, it is crucial to carefully analyse the lag period of an ADR when
1013		determining the causative agent since different cADRs have different timelines. The lag period
1014		can be defined as the time between initiation of the medicinal product and onset of the first
1015		symptoms of the ADR.
1016		All medications, especially those taken in the eight weeks prior to the cADR, must be
1017		considered as possible causative agents and physicians should ask patients about any over-
1018		the counter medications as well as prescription medicinal products. The physician can
1019		produce a graphic illustration of the medicinal product exposure timeline so as to visualize the
1020		chronology. For each medicinal product, the timeline should include the start date of the
1021		medication, dosage and end date as well as any signs or symptoms present throughout this
1022		period.
1023		Evaluating systemic signs that differentiate between a simple and a complex reaction is
1024		essential. Systemic involvement is determined by assessing the patient's symptoms such as
1025		fever, facial oedema, malaise, chills, dyspnoea, cough, palpitations, nausea, vomiting,
1026		diarrhoea, sore throat and arthralgia. Additional information to be gathered includes known
1027		medicinal product allergies of the patient and his/her family members, and baseline health
1028		status including cutaneous diseases.[5,6]
1029	<b>2.2.2</b>	<b>Morphology description and physical exam findings</b>
1030		It is advisable to assess primary lesion morphology of the cutaneous eruption, which includes
1031		the four following main types: exanthematous, urticarial, pustular, and blistering. Moreover,
1032		diagnosing cADRs involves two major steps, namely determining morphology and examining
1033		systemic involvement.
1034		Physical examination includes:
1035		• Assessment of patient's basic signs: heart rate, blood pressure, oxygen saturation and fever,
1036		• Assessment of the morphology of primary and secondary skin lesions,
1037		• Assessment of mucous membrane involvement: ocular, oral and genital,
1038		• Additional assessments: facial oedema perianal area, nails and hair, palpation of lymph nodes.
1039		
1040	<b>2.2.3</b>	<b>Additional clinical information</b>
1041	<b>2.2.3.1</b>	<b>Skin biopsy (hematoxylin and eosin stain (H&amp;E), immunofluorescence studies)</b>
1042		Skin biopsy for histology must be conducted, and, if relevant, direct immunofluorescence studies as
1043		well.
1044	<b>2.2.3.2</b>	<b>Specialty consultation</b>
1045		In patients with a suspected complex cADR (systemic involvement), it is prudent to conduct a
1046		multidisciplinary assessment based on the clinical signs and symptoms in both the acute
1047		stage and follow-up period subsequent to recovery.[7-9]

### 1048 **2.2.3.3 Assessing systemic involvement**

1049 We recommend that patients with cADRs be assessed for systemic involvement because the  
1050 severity of skin manifestations does not always mirror the severity of the systemic  
1051 involvement. In addition to assessing systemic involvement based on the patient's signs and  
1052 symptoms, basic laboratory screening is advised, which includes a full blood count, liver and  
1053 renal function tests, and urine analysis.

### 1054 **2.3 Assessing severity**

1055 The severity of SCAR depends mostly on the haemodynamic status and the extent of  
1056 cutaneous and systemic involvement. The following clinical and histopathological findings  
1057 were found to be validated values for determination of severity in various types of SCAR.

#### 1058 SCORTEN

1059 This scoring system was developed to assess illness severity and predict mortality in patients  
1060 with TEN. To optimize the predictive value of this tool, SCORTEN is to be performed on days  
1061 1 and 3[10] postadmission.[11]

#### 1062 Drug-Induced Hypersensitivity Syndrome and Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic 1063 Symptoms Severity Score

1064 This scoring system is based on a variety of factors including age, allopurinol exposure, need  
1065 for pulsed prednisone, duration of medicinal product exposure after symptom onset, fever  
1066 duration, percent BSA, appetite loss, liver involvement, renal dysfunction and C-reactive  
1067 protein (CRP). Higher scores ( $\geq 4$ ) were associated with CMV reactivation and CMV-related  
1068 complications, higher steroids doses, longer hospitalizations and higher risk of fatal  
1069 outcomes.[12]

### 1070 **2.4 SCAR case definition and diagnosis**

#### 1071 **2.4.1 SJS and TEN**

##### 1072 **2.4.1.1 Criteria for diagnosis**

1073 SJS and TEN can be defined as different degrees of a severe, acute and life-threatening  
1074 mucocutaneous reaction. Therefore, SJS/TEN can be referred to as a single entity on this  
1075 disease spectrum. The SJS/ TEN classification as defined by Bastuji-Garin et al., is based on  
1076 the extent of epidermal detachment and the presence of characteristic skin lesions.

1077 When evaluating the extent of epidermal detachment, only necrotic skin that is already  
1078 detached (e.g. blisters, erosions), or detachable skin (positive Nikolsky sign whereby slight  
1079 rubbing of the skin results in exfoliation of the outermost layer) should be considered.  
1080 Diagnostic criteria based on clinical characteristics of skin and mucous membranes, histology  
1081 assessment, lag period and systemic signs remain to be defined.[13]

##### 1082 **2.4.1.2 Histology**

1083 Among the typical histopathologic characteristics are extensive keratinocyte destruction and  
1084 apoptosis with separation of the epidermis from the dermis at the dermo-epidermal junction. In  
1085 addition, a pauci-cellular, dermal mononuclear infiltrate has been commonly described as well  
1086 as lymphocytes that cross the dermo-epidermal junction with moderate infiltration of the  
1087 epidermis.[14]

1088

### 1089 **2.4.1.3 Genetics**

1090 In the last few decades, progress has been made in understanding the pathogenic  
1091 mechanisms of SJS/TEN, in particular, the important role of HLA alleles. Recognition of the  
1092 culprit medicinal products by specific HLA molecules contributes to the pathogenesis of  
1093 inducing cytotoxic responses in SJS/TEN.

1094 Although association with a specific HLA risk allele might be necessary, it is not sufficient for  
1095 SJS/TEN to develop. Individual differences in medicinal product metabolism or clearance may  
1096 also be significant in SJS/TEN development, recovery or prognosis.[15]

### 1097 **2.4.1.4 Biomarkers<sup>2</sup>**

1098 A rapid immunochromatographic test for serum granulysin was found to be useful in predicting  
1099 SJS/TEN.[16]

### 1100 **2.4.1.5 Skin testing**

1101 The value of medicinal product skin tests in SJS/TEN:

- 1102 • patch tests can be done but are rarely positive;
- 1103 • prick tests add no value and intradermal medicinal product tests are forbidden since it  
1104 may induce a flare up reaction.[17]

### 1105 **2.4.1.6 Pitfalls in diagnosis**

1106 The major differential diagnoses of SJS/TEN include:

- 1107 • Staphylococcal Scalded Skin Syndrome,
- 1108 • GBFDE,
- 1109 • Acute Graft-Versus-Host Reaction,
- 1110 • TEN-Like Lupus Erythematosus or Lupus-Associated TEN
- 1111 • Autoimmune blistering diseases,
- 1112 • Bullous phototoxic reactions,
- 1113 • AGEP,
- 1114 • DRESS, and
- 1115 • Erythema multiforme (minor and major).[18]

---

<sup>2</sup> See also Chapter 4



## 1116 **2.4.2 DRESS and DIHS**

### 1117 **2.4.2.1 Criteria for diagnosis**

1118 DRESS is characterized by stepwise multi-organ involvement that may include skin,  
1119 haematological and solid organs. Cutaneous manifestations of DRESS are diverse. There are  
1120 two diagnostic criteria: the Japanese consensus group criteria (2006) and the RegiSCAR  
1121 group criteria (2007).

1122 An important distinction between the two scoring systems is the requirement of human herpes  
1123 virus-6 (HHV6) reactivation for typical DIHS in the Japanese scoring system.[19,4]

### 1124 **2.4.2.2 Histology**

1125 Histopathological characteristics of patients with DRESS are generally non-specific. No single  
1126 finding can be used to distinguish DRESS from other cADRs or inflammatory skin disorders.  
1127 Several commonly encountered histopathological patterns were identified in skin specimens of  
1128 patients with DRESS such as spongiosis, interface dermatitis, vascular damage and  
1129 superficial perivascular infiltration.

1130 A retrospective analysis of patients with DRESS found that spongiosis and keratinocyte  
1131 damage were the most common epidermal changes. Spongiosis was associated with non-  
1132 serious DRESS whereas confluent keratinocyte necrosis correlated with serious DRESS and  
1133 frequent vascular changes.

1134 A moderate, dermal perivascular lymphocytic infiltrate was invariably present, containing  
1135 eosinophils, neutrophils and/or atypical lymphocytes in most cases.[20] Another study found  
1136 that the histopathology of DRESS features various associated inflammatory patterns in a  
1137 single biopsy.[21] Although differentiated histopathological features of patients with DRESS  
1138 cannot be identified, there are characteristics that might provide clues for diagnosis or indicate  
1139 severity. The most important of these observations is the co-existence of the aforementioned  
1140 patterns in a single skin specimen.

1141 Approximately 50–60% of patients with DRESS have at least two of the above-mentioned  
1142 patterns in a single specimen.[21,22] In addition, patients with three histopathological patterns  
1143 (spongiosis, interface dermatitis and vascular damage) that co-exist in a single specimen have  
1144 a considerably higher likelihood of having a definite case of DRESS.[22]

### 1145 **2.4.2.3 Genetics**

1146 It is generally believed that DRESS is the result of a complex interaction between exposure to  
1147 a medicinal product, genetic predisposition and viral reactivation. HLA alleles are among the  
1148 most important risk factors for DRESS.

1149 Since certain high risk alleles are more present in some ethnicities than in others, ethnicity is a  
1150 significant predisposing factor for DRESS. More specifically, the culprit medicinal product is  
1151 believed to interact with a particular HLA to form a complex-hapten which is then presented to  
1152 naive T cells via the T-cell receptor, thereby stimulating an immune response.[23]



#### 1153 **2.4.2.4 Biomarkers<sup>3</sup>**

1154 Thymus and activation-regulated chemokine (TARC) recruits Th2-polarized T cells into local  
1155 inflammation sites, leading to a Th2-type immune reaction. TARC levels were found to be  
1156 markedly higher in patients with DRESS than in patients with other cADRs. Hence, the  
1157 baseline serum TARC level can be used as a marker for the early diagnosis of the DRESS in  
1158 patients presenting with a maculopapular rash.[24]

#### 1159 **2.4.2.5 Skin testing**

1160 The value of medicinal product skin tests in DRESS:

- 1161 • patch tests can be useful and must be performed at least six months after the  
1162 disappearance of the rash and biological disturbances,
- 1163 • prick tests may add value only in some cases with delayed reactions and intradermal  
1164 medicinal product tests have to be cautiously applied.[17]

#### 1165 **2.4.2.6 Pitfalls in diagnosis**

1166 There are many conditions that mimic DRESS. Differential diagnoses include viral infections  
1167 such as Epstein-Barr virus (EBV), Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-  
1168 CoV-2), CMV and Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) as well as bacterial sepsis, toxic  
1169 shock syndrome, Kawasaki disease, Still disease, lymphoma, mycosis fungoides,  
1170 hypereosinophilic syndrome, connective tissue diseases, hemophagocytic syndrome, and  
1171 angio-immunoblastic lymphadenopathy and other cADRs.[25]

### 1172 **2.4.3 AGEP**

#### 1173 **2.4.3.1 Criteria for diagnosis**

1174 AGEP is defined as a severe acute pustular cutaneous reaction characterized by a rapid  
1175 clinical course. Generally, the morphology of AGEP is an acute oedematous erythema with a  
1176 burning sensation and/or itch, which leads to the development of dozens to hundreds of small  
1177 (pinhead sized) non-follicular sterile pustules with a tendency toward large folds or widespread  
1178 distribution. Fever and leukocytosis with neutrophilia are almost always present.

1179 The AGEP validation score developed by the Euro-SCAR study group is a standardized  
1180 scoring system comprising data about clinical features (morphology and clinical course) and  
1181 histopathology. Based on this score, AGEP cases can be placed into the following categories:  
1182 no AGEP, possible AGEP, probable AGEP and definite AGEP.[3]

#### 1183 **2.4.3.2 Histology**

1184 The histopathological features of AGEP consist of sub-/intra-corneal and/or intra-epidermal  
1185 pustules or a combination thereof. The primary epidermal features are necrotic keratinocytes  
1186 such as incidental segmental necrosis and spongiosis with neutrophil exocytosis. The primary  
1187 dermal features are papillary oedema with mixed superficial interstitial and mid/deep-dermal  
1188 infiltrates containing neutrophils and eosinophils.[26]

#### 1189 **2.4.3.3 Genetics**

1190 Genetic predisposition plays an important part in the pathogenesis of AGEP. Specific HLAs  
1191 were found to be more common in AGEP patients than in the general population.[27] Also,  
1192 mutations in the IL36RN gene were found in some patients with AGEP.[28]

---

<sup>3</sup> See also Chapter 4

#### 1193 **2.4.3.4 Biomarkers<sup>4</sup>**

1194 A recent publication stated that IL17E, inducible nitric oxide synthase and arginase1 may  
1195 serve as new biomarkers in the identification of neutrophilic dermatoses including AGEP.[29]

#### 1196 **2.4.3.5 Skin testing**

1197 The value of medicinal product skin tests in AGEP:

- 1198 • patch tests are useful,
- 1199 • prick tests and intradermal medicinal product tests add no value.[17]

#### 1200 **2.4.3.6 Pitfalls in diagnosis**

1201 Differential diagnoses of AGEP include a variety of rashes and skin diseases with pustules,  
1202 mainly pustular psoriasis; subcorneal pustular dermatosis (Sneddon-Wilkinson); pustular  
1203 vasculitis and DRESS.[30]

### 1204 **2.4.4 GBFDE**

#### 1205 **2.4.4.1 Criteria for diagnosis**

1206 The diagnosis of GBFDE can often be made on clinical grounds based on distinctive  
1207 appearance and history of a similar eruption with medicinal product exposure. Skin biopsy  
1208 may be performed to confirm the diagnosis when the clinical presentation is ambiguous. No  
1209 diagnostic criteria exist.

#### 1210 **2.4.4.2 Histology**

1211 Characteristic histopathologic findings of GBFDE consist of a sub-epidermal blister or vacuolar  
1212 alterations at the dermo-epidermal junction and a variable number of necrotic keratinocytes  
1213 within lesional intact epidermis. Though the infiltrate of inflammatory cells is variable, there is  
1214 usually a brisk, moderately dense perivascular infiltrate of lymphocytes and interstitial  
1215 eosinophils. GBFDE shows increased inflammation with eosinophils, fewer necrotic  
1216 keratinocytes and more melanin-containing dermal macrophages compared with SJS/TEN.  
1217 Nevertheless, GBFDE may have full-thickness epidermal necrosis, which histologically  
1218 strongly resembles and may be almost indistinguishable from SJS/TEN.[31]

#### 1219 **2.4.4.3 Genetics**

1220 In GBFDE, CD8+ T cells play a critical inflammatory role by recognizing certain medicinal  
1221 products in association with specific major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class I molecules  
1222 found on keratinocytes. There are several examples of HLA-A or HLA-B associated with  
1223 GBFDE.[32]

#### 1224 **2.4.4.4 Biomarkers<sup>5</sup>**

1225 Serum granulysin levels have been found to be significantly lower in GBFDE compared to  
1226 SJS/TEN, leading some authors to advocate the use of a serum granulysin test as a method  
1227 to rapidly diagnose SJS/TEN.[33]

---

<sup>4</sup> See also Chapter 4

<sup>5</sup> See also Chapter 4

#### 1228 **2.4.4.5 Skin testing**

1229 Patch testing is the best confirmation method. Patch testing is conducted on a hyper-  
1230 pigmented site in an area of previous FDE, exploiting normal skin as a control. Patch testing  
1231 should be performed a few weeks after the lesions resolve to avoid a false negative result due  
1232 to a refractory period.[34] An additional method of FDE confirmation is performed using the  
1233 lymphocyte transformation test, which aims to measure a sensitized T-cell reaction in  
1234 response to the in vitro addition of the medicinal product.[35]

#### 1235 **2.4.4.6 Pitfalls in diagnosis**

1236 The most important differential diagnosis is between GBFDE and SJS/TEN. Patients with  
1237 GBFDE tend to be older and less likely to have constitutional symptoms than patients with  
1238 SJS/TEN. Mucosal involvement is less frequent and less severe in GBFDE. GBFDE always  
1239 presents within one to two weeks (but most frequently within 48 hours) of ingestion of the  
1240 causative medicinal product, while latency between medicinal product exposure and clinical  
1241 presentation of SJS/TEN is most commonly one to three weeks. SJS/TEN skin lesions tend to  
1242 coalesce and may have atypical targets, while GBFDE patches and bullae tend to be well-  
1243 demarcated and have larger areas of normal skin between lesions. GBFDE heals with  
1244 hyperpigmentation but no scarring, whereas SJS/TEN is associated with scarring. A history of  
1245 a similar less severe skin eruption induced by the culprit medicinal product can often be  
1246 elicited in cases of GBFDE.[36]

### 1247 **2.5 Interactions between patient, family, healthcare professional and** 1248 **regulatory agencies for reporting**

#### 1249 **2.5.1 Patient and family**

1250 Good communication strategies will aid in the interactions with a patient and their family  
1251 following a suspected SCAR. Physicians are recommended to:

- 1252 1) Listen to the patient in a respectful and empathetic manner in order to characterize their  
1253 experience. This is part of the diagnostic process.
- 1254 2) Acknowledge the reality of the experience for the patient.
- 1255 3) Offer the patient clear information on his/her suspected SCAR (see Table 4 below), the  
1256 name of the suspected offending medicinal product if it is known, potential cross-  
1257 reacting medicinal products, and medicinal product, which can be safely taken as a  
1258 substitute. In addition, advise the patient to wear a medic-alert bracelet.
- 1259 4) Include family counselling in the management plan given that the predisposition to some  
1260 SCAR may be genetic.

1261 **2.5.2 Healthcare professionals**

1262 Healthcare professional (HCPs) should obtain information about a SCAR such as type and  
 1263 culprit medicinal product(s) and incorporate the information into the patient's medical records..  
 1264 At a minimum, the HCP should inform the patient and family of which SCAR was experienced  
 1265 using appropriate patient-focused language and the culprit medicinal product(s), if identified.

Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions	A group of hypersensitivity reactions with a variety of clinical signs and symptoms that are typically triggered by taking medications.
Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis	A hypersensitivity reaction which can involve the skin and mucous membranes (such as the eyes, mouth/throat, genital areas) and cause widespread redness of the skin and blistering with burn-like lesions from large areas of detached skin.
Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms and drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome	A hypersensitivity reaction which can include fever, widespread skin rash, multiple organ involvement (such as liver, heart, and lung), and an increase of eosinophils in the blood.
Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis	A hypersensitivity reaction that presents with fever, increased white blood cells, and widespread redness of the skin with small pustules. The small pustules can merge and lead to large areas of detached skin.
Generalized bullous fixed drug eruption	A hypersensitivity reaction that typically starts with round red/purple or hyperpigmented lesions that can have blistering within the lesions. With repeated occurrence, more lesions appear and can be widespread and appear similar to Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis.

1266 **Table 4. Example of information to be provided to the patient and the patient's family**

### 1267 2.5.3 Regulatory agencies

1268 If a SCAR has occurred subsequent to treatment with a medicinal product, patients and  
1269 healthcare professionals should report it to the manufacturer and appropriate regulatory  
1270 agencies, using the applicable regional pharmacovigilance reporting system. Manufacturers  
1271 are required by law to report suspected ADRs to regulatory agencies and some regulatory  
1272 agencies are required to report ADRs that have occurred outside their jurisdictions, which has  
1273 led to the creation of global databases, e.g. MedWatch, the FDA Safety Information and  
1274 Adverse Event Reporting Program[37] and EudraVigilance maintained by European Medicines  
1275 Agency (EMA)[38] for the European Union (EU) regulatory network. Many countries are  
1276 members of the WHO Programme for International Drug Monitoring and in this context provide  
1277 their national suspected ADR reports to the WHO Collaborating Centre Uppsala Monitoring  
1278 Centre (UMC) which maintains the global database VigiBase for collecting and analysing the  
1279 reports.[39]

1280

1281

1282

1283

1284

1285

### 1286 References

- 1 Chung W-H, Wang C-W, Dao R-L. Severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *J Dermatol* 2016 Jul;43(7):758–66. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Naldi L, Crotti S. Epidemiology of cutaneous drug-induced reactions. *G Ital Dermatol Venereol*. 2014;149(2):207–218. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 3 Sidoroff A, et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP)—a clinical reaction pattern *J Cutan Pathol*. 2001;28(3):113–19. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 4 Kardaun SH, et al. Variability in the clinical pattern of cutaneous side-effects of drugs with systemic symptoms: does a DRESS syndrome really exist? *Br J Dermatol*. 2007;156: 609–11. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 5 Nigen S, Knowles SR, Shear NH. Drug eruptions: approaching the diagnosis of drug induced skin diseases. *J Drugs Dermatol*. 2003;Jun;2(3):278–299. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 6 Dodiuk-Gad RP, Chung W-H, Shear NH. Adverse Medication Reactions. In: *Clinical and basic immunodermatology*. 2017;Springer. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 7 Brügger MC, et al. Supportive care in the acute phase of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: an international, multidisciplinary Delphi-based consensus. *Br J Dermatol*. 2021 Sep;185(3):616-626. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Dodiuk-Gad RP, et al. Major psychological complications and decreased health-related quality of life among survivors of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Br J Dermatol*. 2016 Aug;175(2):422–4. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 9 Olteanu C, et al. Severe Physical Complications among Survivors of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *Drug Saf*. 2018 Mar;41(3):277-284. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 Guégan S, et al. Performance of the SCORTEN during the first five days of hospitalization to predict the prognosis of epidermal necrolysis. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2006 Feb;126(2):272-6. doi: 10.1038/sj.jid.5700068. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 11 Bastuji-Garin S, et al. SCORTEN: a severity-of-illness score for toxic epidermal necrolysis. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2000;115(2):149–53. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 12 Mizukawa Y, et al. T. Drug-Induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms severity score: A useful tool for assessing disease severity and predicting fatal cytomegalovirus disease. *Journal of the American Academy of Dermatology*. 2019 Mar;80(3), 670-678.e2. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 13 Bastuji-Garin S, et al. Clinical classification of cases of toxic epidermal necrolysis, Stevens-Johnson syndrome, and erythema multiforme. *Arch Dermatol*. 1993 Jan;129(1):92-6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Quinn AM et al. Uncovering histologic criteria with prognostic significance in toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Arch Dermatol*. 2005 Jun;141(6):683-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 15 Chung W-H, et al. Medical genetics: a marker for Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *Nature*. 2004 Apr 1;428 (6982):486. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 16 Fujita Y, et al. Rapid immunochromatographic test for serumgranulysin is useful for the prediction of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2011;65(1):65–8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 Barbaud A. In vitro and In vivo tests in cutaneous adverse drug reactions. In: *Advances in Diagnosis and Management of Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reactions: Current and Future Trends*. 1st edition. Shear NH, Dodiuk-Gad RP (eds.) Springer Nature Singapore. 2018;pp.247-263. [PubMed Abstract](#)

- 18 Dodiuk-Gad RP, et al. Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: an update. *Am J Clin Dermatol*. 2015 Dec 16(6):475-493. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 19 Shiohara T, Inaoka M, Kano Y. Drug-induced hypersensitivity syndrome (DIHS): a reaction induced by a complex interplay among herpes viruses and antiviral and antidrug immune responses. *Allergol Int*. 2006;55(1): p. 1-8. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 20 Skowron F, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): clinicopathological study of 45 cases. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2015 Nov;29(11):2199-205. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 21 Ortonne N, et al. Histopathology of drug rash with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms syndrome: a morphological and phenotypical study. *Br J Dermatol*. 2015 Jul;173(1):50-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Cho Y-T, et al. Co-existence of histopathological features is characteristic in drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms and correlates with high grades of cutaneous abnormalities. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2016 Dec;30(12): 2077-2084. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Deshpande P, et al. Immunopharmacogenomics: Mechanisms of HLA-Associated Drug Reactions. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2021 Sep;110(3): 607–615. [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 24 Choudhary R, et al. Clinical, biochemical, and serologic predictors of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms syndrome: A prospective case–control study. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2021 Oct;85(4):901–909. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Kardaun SH. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms. In: *Advances in Diagnosis and Management of Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reactions: Current and Future Trends*. 1st edition. Shear NH, Dodiuk-Gad RP (eds.) Springer Nature Singapore. 2018;pp. 87-104. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 26 Halevy S, et al. The spectrum of histopathological features in acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: a study of 102 cases. *Br J Dermatol*. 2010 Dec;163(6):1245–52. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 27 Jantararoungtong T, et al. Genotyping *HLA* alleles to predict the development of severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions (SCARs): state-of-the-art. *Expert Opin Drug Metab Toxicol*. 2021 Sep;17(9):1049-1064. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 28 Onoufriadi A, et al. Mutations in *IL36RN/IL1F5* are associated with the severe episodic inflammatory skin disease known as generalized pustular psoriasis. *Am J Hum Genet* 2011 Sep 9;89:432–7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 29 Stalder R, et al. Interleukin-17E, inducible nitric oxide synthase and arginase1 as new biomarkers in the identification of neutrophilic dermatoses. *Clin Exp Dermatol*. 2022 Apr;47(4):675-683. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 30 Halevy S. Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis. In: *Advances in Diagnosis and Management of Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reactions: Current and Future Trends*. 1st edition. Shear NH, Dodiuk-Gad RP. (eds.). Springer Nature Singapore. 2018; pp. 105-122. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 31 Patel S, et al. Fixed Drug Eruptions: An Update, Emphasizing the Potentially Lethal Generalized Bullous Fixed Drug Eruption. *Am J Clin Dermatol*. 2020 Jun;21(3):393-399. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 32 Pirmohamed M. Genetic factors in the predisposition to drug-induced hypersensitivity reactions. *AAPS J*. 2006 Feb 3;8(1):E20–6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 33 Cho Y-T, et al. Generalized bullous fixed drug eruption is distinct from Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis by immunohistopathological features. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2014 Mar;70(3):539–48. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 34 Andrade P, Brinca A, Gonalo M. Patch testing in fixed drug eruptions-- a 20-year review. *Contact Dermatitis*. 2011 Oct;65(4):195–201. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 35 Demir S, et al. Generalized Fixed Drug Eruption Induced by Fluconazole Without Cross-Reactivity to Itraconazole: Lymphocyte Transformation Test Confirms the Diagnosis. *Drug Saf Case Rep*. 2018 Jan 2;5(1):2. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 36 Anderson HJ, Lee JB. A Review of Fixed Drug Eruption with a Special Focus on Generalized Bullous Fixed Drug Eruption. *Medicina (Kaunas)* 2021 Sep 1;57(9):925. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 37 [FDA Safety Information and Adverse Event Reporting Program](#)
- 38 [EMA. EudraVigilance](#)
- 39 [WHO Uppsala Monitoring Centre](#)

## CHAPTER 3.

### CASE MANAGEMENT IN CLINICAL CARE

#### Chapter summary

- Treatment goals in the management of SCAR include withdrawal of the culprit medicinal product, symptom management, avoidance of acute morbidity and fatal outcomes as well as the long-term monitoring and treatment of chronic sequelae.
- The culprit medicinal product that is responsible for the SCAR should be identified and withdrawn immediately. SCAR cases should be managed in reference centres.
- Supportive care is the cornerstone of treatment and involves fluid and nutrition optimization, skin care and dressings, thermoregulation, pain management as well as the monitoring and treatment of organ complications and infections.
- Various systemic treatments have been proposed for SJS/TEN, DRESS and AGEP, but the level of evidence remains low.
- Long-term follow up of SCAR cases is required in order to prevent and mitigate long-term sequelae.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

Early diagnosis and transfer of SCAR to a reference centre is vital. Key management principles include the withdrawal of the culprit medicinal product and supportive care. The use of specific immunomodulatory treatments requires further validation.

#### 3.1 Introduction

In all cADRs, identification and withdrawal of the culprit medicinal product is the cornerstone of care. Withdrawal of drugs, particularly those with a short half-life, has been shown to improve outcomes in SJS/TEN.[1]

In some cases, the decision to “treat-through” the reaction can be made if the benefits outweigh the risks such as in the context of life-sustaining treatments for which there are no alternative medicinal products, the disease phenotype is benign and there are no features of progression to SCAR. Investigations, supportive care and specific therapy are tailored according to phenotype, severity and clinical course.

##### 3.1.1 Management of benign cADRs (non-SCAR)

Exanthematous drug eruptions (also known as morbilliform drug eruptions, maculopapular rash) are the most common cADRs, accounting for up to 80% of cases.[2] However, an exanthematous reaction may be the initial presentation of SCAR as such, serial examination and follow-up is warranted.

Exanthematous drug eruptions are self-limiting. Emollients and antihistamines may provide symptomatic relief of pruritus. Potent topical corticosteroids are often prescribed to reduce the inflammation and symptoms associated with the rash. However, clinical evidence for such an approach is lacking. Systemic corticosteroids are rarely required.[2]

### 3.1.2 Management of SCAR

The treatment goals in SCAR include symptom management, avoidance of short-term morbidity, prevention of death as well as prevention and treatment of long-term sequelae. It involves both supportive care and specific treatment for each disease entity. It is recommended that SJS/TEN cases should be managed in reference centres. These are usually specialized dermatological centres, burn or intensive care units (ICU) with significant experience and protocols in place for the management for such rare conditions. It has been shown that delayed transfer to such units is associated with poorer outcomes.[3] Similarly, prognosis is improved when care is delivered in centres with higher volumes.[4]

### 3.1.3 Supportive care

The extensive involvement of the skin in SCAR impairs its physiological function, resulting in increased fluid loss, hypovolemia, hypothermia, protein loss, risk of bacteraemia and multi-organ failure. The aim of supportive care is to restore homeostatic function and manage the complications associated with skin failure.

Components of supportive care include the following:

#### 3.1.3.1 Fluids and nutrition

SCAR are catabolic states and there is also increased transepidermal water loss, particularly in SJS/TEN. This is compounded by decreased oral intake in many patients with severe oropharyngeal involvement, particularly in SJS/TEN. Strict monitoring of fluid intake and output is essential. Fluid resuscitation and replacement is necessary.

Fluid and electrolyte derangements are most marked in SJS/TEN, and an initial resuscitation of 2ml/kg/% TBSA detached has been proposed and subsequent fluid requirements should achieve urinary output of 0.5 to 1ml/kg/h.[5] Enteral feeding is preferred. However, oral intake of food may be limited by pain, and a nasogastric tube may be required in order to achieve nutritional demands. Estimated caloric requirements is at 20-25 cal/kg/d during the initial catabolic state of SJS/TEN and 25-30 cal/kg/d during the period of anabolic recovery.[5]

#### 3.1.3.2 Thermoregulation

The ambient temperature should be maintained at 28°C to prevent hypothermia.

#### 3.1.3.3 Skin, mucosal and wound care

In a SCAR without epidermal detachment (DRESS, AGEP), liberal application of emollients and potent/ultrapotent corticosteroids has been advocated. Patients with SJS/TEN should be nursed in single rooms with reverse barrier nursing, if available. The ideal wound care strategy in SJS/TEN has not been established and remains variable across centres. Generally, it may involve either a surgical approach whereby the detached epidermis is removed operatively and replaced with either biologic membranes or dressings or a conservative approach whereby the detached/detachable skin is left in situ as a biological dressing.

In the conservative approach, minimal manipulation of the skin is advocated. Saline or antiseptic baths can be used, followed by petrolatum jelly and non-adhesive dressing. Secondary dressings may be applied to absorb the exudate. To date, there have been no controlled studies that evaluate these two approaches. However, a conservative approach may result in less severe postinflammatory skin changes and avoid the risks associated with sedation and anaesthesia in the surgical approach.[6,7]



During the acute phase of a SCAR, mucosal surfaces can be involved, particular in SJS/TEN. The use of emollients and topical corticosteroids are recommended to reduce mucosal adhesions and long-term scarring. Oral mouthwash and topical oral analgesia may be helpful in reducing the mucosal discomfort. Similarly, urogenital involvement can affect up to 70% of patients. Early assessment by urologists/gynaecologists may be necessary to avoid long-term scarring.[8] In addition, the use of non-adhesive dressings, topical corticosteroids and vaginal moulds/dilators can be used to reduce strictures.

#### **3.1.3.4 Pain management**

In general, most SCAR are not painful with the exception of SJS/TEN. SJS/TEN is an intensely painful disease and the pain is aggravated by movement and wound manipulation. Pain severity should be monitored via a visual analogue scale of 0-10. Appropriate analgesia (paracetamol/acetaminophen, opioids) should be administered with the aim of reducing the pain score to two or below.

#### **3.1.3.5 Monitoring of internal organ complications**

SCAR are systemic conditions and the degree and characteristic of internal organ involvement vary according to the specific type of SCAR. Serial monitoring of routine investigations such as complete blood count (CBC), liver function tests, renal panel, cardiac and muscle enzymes may be required. In some setting, imaging studies such as radiographs, ultrasound, computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging may be required. Due to the systemic nature of SCAR, a collaborative, multi-disciplinary approach is necessary.

##### **3.1.3.5.1 AGEP**

Systemic complications occur in about 15% of cases of AGEP, with the liver being the most commonly affected organ. Other affected organs include kidneys, lungs and bone marrow. These complications are generally mild and typically improve subsequent to medicinal product withdrawal.[9,10]

##### **3.1.3.5.2 DRESS/DIHS**

Systemic complications occur in at least 90% of patients and up to 20% of patients may have more than two organs involved.[11] The onset and clinical course of visceral involvement may not parallel skin involvement, hence, systematic follow-up and monitoring are needed. The liver is the most common visceral complication, occurring in up to 50-90% of cases.

Other organs involved include the kidneys, lungs, cardiac, bone marrow, and central and peripheral nervous system involvement. Multiple organ involvement, such as pulmonary and cardiac involvement, and human herpes viral reactivation may confer a poorer prognosis.[12,13]

##### **3.1.3.5.3 SJS/TEN**

Systemic complications are common in SJS/TEN and may be renal, pulmonary, gastrointestinal, or haematologic in nature though can arise in other organs as well. Pulmonary complications occur in up to 40% of patients and include specific changes such as trachea/bronchial mucosal sloughing as well as non-specific presentation of infection, pulmonary oedema and atelectasis.[14] Pulmonary involvement is a poor prognostic factor for mechanical ventilation and death. Acute renal failure occurs in up to 20% of patients with SJS/TEN. Risk factors for acute renal failure include sepsis, allopurinol, NSAIDs and antibiotics as culprit drugs as well as hypoalbuminemia and chronic kidney disease.[15]

1417 Disseminated intravascular coagulation occurs in up to 20% of cases, and blood component  
1418 transfusion may be necessary.[16] Leukopenia can occur during the acute phase of the  
1419 disease and granulocyte-colony stimulating factor (G-CSF) may be required.[17] In view of  
1420 multi-organ involvement, facilities and expertise for mechanical ventilation, organ support  
1421 and ICU care should be made available.

### 1422 **3.1.3.6 Management of bacteraemia**

1423 Bacteraemia and sepsis can be SCAR complications, particularly in SJS/TEN. Sepsis  
1424 increases the risk of fatal outcomes for SJS/TEN by three- to four-fold and accounts for up to  
1425 50% of all fatal outcomes for SJS/TEN.[18,19] The routine use of prophylactic antibiotics is  
1426 not recommended in SJS/TEN, however, empirical antibiotics should be started once  
1427 infection is suspected. Frequent sampling of the blood and skin may aid in the early  
1428 diagnosis and management of bacteraemia.

1429 Hypothermia and raised procalcitonin may be predictive of positive blood cultures.[17] Skin  
1430 sampling has a good negative predictive value for bacteraemia. If skin cultures are negative  
1431 for *Staphylococcal aureus* or *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, it is unlikely that the blood cultures  
1432 would be positive for such organisms.[20] Antimicrobial therapy should be culture directed,  
1433 and dependent on the institutional microbiogram. Initial empirical therapy should include  
1434 coverage for *Staphylococcal aureus*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and other gram-negative  
1435 bacteria. In burn units and ICUs, coverage for nosocomial organisms should be considered.

### 1436 **3.1.3.7 Management of ocular complications**

1437 Acute eye involvement occurs in up to 80% of patients with SJS/TEN.[21] The presentation  
1438 ranges from conjunctival hyperaemia to extensive corneal ulcerations. As such, ophthalmic  
1439 review and management during the acute and chronic phase of SJS/TEN is mandatory.  
1440 During the acute phase of disease, in addition to topical eye drops such as lubricants,  
1441 corticosteroids and antibiotics, systemic corticosteroids and amniotic membrane  
1442 transplantation may be p.[22]

### 1443 **3.1.3.8 Laboratory tests**

1444 In view of systemic complications and the involvement of internal organs in SCAR, various  
1445 laboratory tests and investigations may be performed, as indicated.

- 1446 • CBC, renal function, LFT, muscle/cardiac enzymes, thyroid function tests, arterial blood  
1447 gases, coagulation profile,
- 1448 • Blood/wound/urine cultures, procalcitonin as indicated,
- 1449 • Hepatitis serology, mycoplasma, chlamydia serology, anti-nuclear antibodies as  
1450 indicated (particularly in DRESS),
- 1451 • Human herpes viral serology (HHV6, EBV, CMV) may be needed to confirm diagnosis  
1452 as well as a prognostic factor in DIHS/DRESS,
- 1453 • Imaging studies: Ultrasound/computed tomography/magnetic resonance imaging may  
1454 be needed to assess for internal organ involvement,
- 1455 • ECG/Echocardiography may be necessary to assess for cardiac involvement.

### 1456 **3.1.4 Specific treatment**

1457 Although specific therapy is dependent on the type of SCAR, treatment recommendations  
1458 are generally limited by the quality of the evidence.

#### 1459 **3.1.4.1 SJS/TEN**

1460 Supportive care remains the cornerstone of management. Current evidence is unable to  
1461 support the routine use of any immunomodulatory agent over another. Various  
1462 immunomodulatory agents have been proposed. These agents include systemic  
1463 corticosteroids, cyclosporine, intravenous immunoglobulins (IVIG) with/without  
1464 corticosteroids, anti-tumour necrosis factor (TNF)-alpha with/without corticosteroids and  
1465 plasmapheresis. There have been two randomized controlled studies evaluating therapy in  
1466 SJS/TEN. The first trial by Wolkenstein et al. evaluated the use of thalidomide, an inhibitor of  
1467 TNF-alpha, was prematurely stopped due to increased mortality in the active arm.[23] The  
1468 second, by Wang et al., evaluated the efficacy of etanercept, also a TNF-inhibitor, versus  
1469 systemic corticosteroids.

1470 There was no significant difference in terms of fatal outcomes, although both interventions  
1471 showed a decrease in case fatality compared to that predicted by SCORTEN.[24] Several  
1472 recent meta-analysis suggested that cyclosporine, etanercept, systemic corticosteroids as  
1473 well as IVIG in combination with corticosteroids may have survival benefits. However, there  
1474 was significant heterogeneity in these studies and study quality was poor.[25-27] Until  
1475 improved evidence emerges, specific immunomodulatory treatments cannot be  
1476 recommended in a routine manner.

#### 1477 **3.1.4.2 DRESS**

1478 There are no randomized trials that evaluate treatment for DRESS. In view of disease  
1479 heterogeneity, a step ladder approach has been proposed.[28] In mild disease (no internal  
1480 organ involvement, or mild liver involvement), systemic corticosteroids may be withheld and  
1481 symptomatic treatment consisting of emollients and potent to ultrapotent topical corticosteroids  
1482 may be sufficient.[29] If systemic corticosteroids are used, a slow taper is required to reduce  
1483 the likelihood of flares. In severe disease (severe organ involvement, e.g. liver, renal,  
1484 pulmonary, neurological, cardiac involvement), systemic corticosteroids are recommended. As  
1485 systemic corticosteroid treatment increases the risk of infections, careful surveillance of  
1486 infective complications are warranted. Various other immunomodulatory agents such as  
1487 cyclosporine, IVIG, janus kinase (JAK) inhibitors have been utilized but evidence remains  
1488 limited. In addition to immunomodulatory agents, organ support and emergent transplantation  
1489 may be required in fulminant cases.

#### 1490 **3.1.4.3 AGEP**

1491 AGEP is generally self-limiting, although in some cases, it may cause fatal outcomes.  
1492 Symptomatic treatment with emollients and topical potent to ultrapotent corticosteroids may  
1493 suffice.[10,11]

#### 1494 **3.1.4.4 GBFDE**

1495 GBFDE is an extensive, bullous variant of FDE and may be challenging to differentiate from  
1496 SJS/TEN. The prognosis of GBFDE is comparable to cases of SJS/TEN matched for age  
1497 and extent of epidermal involvement. As such, similar supportive management principles to  
1498 SJS/TEN should be carried out.[30] Likewise, supportive care is the most important  
1499 component of care. Although the use of various immunomodulators such as corticosteroids  
1500 and cyclosporine has been reported, evidence for such treatments remains anecdotal.

1501

1502

1503

## 1504 3.2 Special populations

### 1505 3.2.1 Paediatric SJS/TEN

1506 The prognosis of paediatric SJS/TEN is better compared to adult cases with an overall case  
1507 fatality of 3% in TEN.[31] Unlike adult cases, which are attributed to medications in close to  
1508 80-90%, medications account for only 50% of paediatric cases with infections and idiopathic  
1509 cases accounting for the rest.[32] As such, investigations evaluating for infective triggers  
1510 such as *Mycoplasma pneumoniae* and *Chlamydia pneumoniae*, as well as appropriate  
1511 antimicrobial treatment is warranted. In addition, recurrences of up to 18% have been  
1512 reported,[33] and this may be due to higher incidence of infections as a trigger and possible  
1513 misclassification of paediatric cases as EMM, which is more frequently recurrent compared  
1514 to TEN.

1515 Similar to the adult population, no immunomodulatory therapy has been shown to confer  
1516 conclusive benefit. Whilst adult cases are recommended to be transferred to SJS/TEN  
1517 reference centres, in paediatric populations, this may need to be balanced with the  
1518 availability of paediatric expertise and facilities.[34]

### 1519 3.2.2 Pregnancy

1520 SJS/TEN is rare in pregnant patients due to the reduced medicinal product intake during  
1521 gestation and younger age. The majority of reports are from HIV-positive patients who  
1522 developed the reaction following the use of nevirapine.[35] Acute uro-gynaecological care in  
1523 such patients is essential to prevent strictures as well as for normal vaginal delivery after the  
1524 initial episode of SJS/TEN. Other specific pregnancy complications include premature labour  
1525 and the need for emergent caesarean section, which accounts for up to 50% of all  
1526 pregnancies in SJS/TEN.

1527 Specific treatment recommendations mirror that for the general adult population. Maternal-  
1528 fetal transmission of SJS/TEN is rare and has been anecdotally reported.[36] In a systematic  
1529 review, maternal and neonatal mortality in SJS/TEN has been reported as 2.1% and 4.9%,  
1530 respectively.[37] Pregnant cases of SJS/TEN should be managed in facilities with access to  
1531 obstetric and neonatal expertise and facilities.

### 1532 3.2.3 Renal failure

1533 In a multi-centre cohort in the U.S., dialysis prior to presentation of SJS/TEN was the  
1534 strongest independent prognostic factor for fatal outcomes (Odds Ratio of 16).[38]

### 1535 3.2.4 Coloured skin

1536 In the U.S., SJS/TEN was associated with skin colour or genetic factors, particularly Asians  
1537 and Blacks with respective odds ratio of 3.3 and 2, respectively.[39] Such differences might  
1538 be due to the inherent pharmacogenetic risks in certain ethnicities and the causal medicinal  
1539 product. The initial presentation of SCAR may be under-recognized in skin of colour and  
1540 may lead to a delay in diagnosis and treat.

### 1541 3.3 cADRs induced by targeted therapy[6] or immunotherapy

1542 The spectrum of cADRs is varied, ranging from common and benign to severe. Such  
1543 reactions are typically classified according to the Common Terminology Criteria for Adverse  
1544 Events (CTCAE) grading and management is grade dependent. Maculopapular rash or MPE  
1545 is the most common presentation, but SCAR such as SJS/TEN have been reported. In  
1546 SCAR, immunotherapy should be permanently discontinued.

1547 Prednisolone/methylprednisolone is recommended based on consensus, however, evidence  
1548 for this or other immunomodulatory agents is lacking. In severe cases, urgent dermatological  
1549 consultation, inpatient care and transfer to reference centres may be necessary.[40]

### 1550 3.4 Guidance and investigation postreaction

1551 Following the acute phase of the reaction, treatment/management goals include:

- 1552 • Permanent discontinuation of culprit medicinal product, medicinal product allergy notification,  
1553 allergy alert/bracelet. Cross-reactive medications to the culprit medicinal product should be  
1554 avoided as well. For example, all oxicam NSAIDs such as meloxicam and piroxicam should  
1555 be avoided in any case of oxicam NSAID-induced SCAR. Similarly, aromatic anticonvulsants  
1556 such as phenytoin, phenobarbital and carbamazepine should be avoided in any aromatic  
1557 anticonvulsant-induced SCAR.
- 1558 • Long-term multi-disciplinary follow up to detect and manage any chronic complications  
1559 from SCAR. (See also [Chapter 1.4.1.5](#) and [Chapter 1.4.2.4](#))  
1560 Additional allergological evaluation to confirm medicinal product causality including both skin tests  
1561 and in vivo tests may be available in specialty/research centres. (See also [Chapter 2.4](#) and [Chapter](#)  
1562 [5.3.1](#))  
1563

### 1564 References

- 1 Garcia-Doval I, et al. Toxic epidermal necrolysis and Stevens-Johnson syndrome: does early withdrawal of causative drugs decrease the risk of death? Arch Dermatol. 2000 Mar;136(3):323-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Stern R. Exanthematous Drug Eruptions. N Engl J Med. 2012 Jun 28;366(26):2492-501. No abstract available
- 3 Clark AE, et al. Delayed admission to a specialist referral center for Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis is associated with increased mortality: A retrospective cohort study. JAAD Int. 2021 May 6;4:10-12. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 4 Traikia C, et al. Individual- and hospital-level factors associated with epidermal necrolysis mortality: a nationwide multilevel study, France, 2012–2016. Br J Dermatol. 2020 Apr;182(4):900-906. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 5 Creamer D, et al. U.K. guidelines for the management of Stevens–Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis in adults 2016. Br J Dermatol. 2016 Jun;174(6):1194-1227. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 6 Dorafshar AH, et al. Antishear therapy for toxic epidermal necrolysis: an alternative treatment approach: Plast Reconstr Surg. 2008 Jul;122(1):154-160. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Haravu PN, Gottlieb LJ, Vrouwe SQ. Antishear Therapy for Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: A Follow-up Study. J Burn Care Res. 2021 Nov/Dec;42(6).p. 1152-1161. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Meneux E, et al. Vulvovaginal involvement in toxic epidermal necrolysis: a retrospective study of 40 cases. Obstet Gynecol 1998 Feb;91(2):283-7 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 9 Hotz C, et al. Systemic involvement of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: a retrospective study of 58 patients. Br J Dermatol 2013;169:1223-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 Oh DAQ, et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: epidemiology, clinical course and treatment outcomes of patients treated in an Asian academic medical center. JAAD Int 2021 Feb14;3:1-6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 11 Kardaun SH, et al. Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS): an original multisystem adverse drug reaction. Results from the prospective RegiSCAR study. Br J Dermatol 2013 Nov;169(5):1071-80. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 12 Eshki M, et al. Twelve-year analysis of severe cases of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: a cause of unpredictable multiorgan failure. Arch Dermatol 2009 Jan;145(1):67-72. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 13 Mizukawa Y, et al. Drug induced hypersensitivity syndrome/drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms severity score: A useful tool for assessing disease severity and predicting fatal cytomegalovirus diseases. J Am Acad Dermatol 2019 Mar;80(3):670-678.e2. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Lebargy F, et al. Pulmonary complications in toxic epidermal necrolysis: a prospective clinical study. Intensive Care Med. 1997 Dec;23(12):1237-44. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 15 Hung C-C, et al. Acute renal failure and its risk factors in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. Am J Nephrol. 2009;29(6):633-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

- 16 Chen CB, et al. Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2021 Jun;84(6):1782-91. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 De Sica-Chapman A, et al. Granulocyte colony-stimulating factor in toxic epidermal necrolysis and Chelsea and Westminster TEN management protocol. *Br J Dermatol*. 2010 Apr;162(4):860-5. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 18 Koh HK, et al. Risk factors and diagnostic markers of bacteremia in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: A cohort study of 176 patients. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2019 Sep;81(3):686-693. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 19 de Prost N, et al. Bacteremia in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: epidemiology, risk factors, and predictive value of skin cultures. *Medicine*. 2010 Jan;89(1):28-36. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 20 Lecadet A, et al. Incidence of bloodstream infections and predictive value of qualitative and quantitative skin cultures of patients with overlap syndrome or toxic epidermal necrolysis: A retrospective observational cohort study of 98 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2019 Aug;81(2):342-347. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 21 Gueudry J, et al. Risk factors for the development of ocular complications of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Arch Dermatol*. 2009 Feb;145(2):157-62. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Kohanim S, et al. Acute and Chronic Ophthalmic Involvement in Stevens-Johnson Syndrome/Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis – A Comprehensive Review and Guide to Therapy. II. Ophthalmic Disease. *Ocul Surf*. 2016 Apr;14(2):168-88. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Wolkenstein P, et al. Randomised comparison of thalidomide versus placebo in toxic epidermal necrolysis. *The Lancet*. 1998;352(9140):1586-9. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Wang CW, et al. Randomized, controlled trial of TNF- $\alpha$  antagonist in CTL-mediated severe cutaneous adverse reactions. *J Clin Invest*. 2018 Mar;128(3):985-996. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Zimmermann S, et al. Systemic Immunomodulating Therapies for Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis. *JAMA Dermatol*. 2017 Jun 1;153(6):514-522. doi:10.1001/jamadermatol.2016.5668. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 26 Torres-Navarro I, de Unamuno-Bustos B, Botella-Estrada R. Systematic review of BRAF/MEK inhibitors-induced Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions (SCARs). *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2021 Mar;35(3):607-614. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 27 Tsai T-Y, et al. Treating toxic epidermal necrolysis with systemic immunomodulating therapies: A systematic review and network meta-analysis. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2021 Feb;84(2):390-397. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 28 Cabañas R, et al. Spanish Guidelines for Diagnosis, Management, Treatment, and Prevention of DRESS Syndrome. *J Investig Allergol Clin Immunol*. 2020; 30(4):229-253. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 29 Funck-Brentano E, et al. Therapeutic management of DRESS: a retrospective study of 38 cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2015 Feb; 72(2):246-52. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 30 Lipowicz S, et al. Prognosis of generalized bullous fixed drug eruption: comparison with Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Br J Dermatol*. 2013 Apr;168(4):726-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 31 Hsu DY, et al. Pediatric Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in the United States. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2017 May;76(5):811-817.e4. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 32 Levi N, et al. Medications as risk factors of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in children: a pooled analysis. *Pediatrics*. 2009 Feb; 123(2): e297-304. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 33 Finkelstein Y, et al. Recurrence and outcomes of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in children. *Pediatrics*. 2011 Oct;128(4):723-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 34 McPherson T, et al. British Association of Dermatologists' guidelines for the management of Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis in children and young people. *Br J Dermatol*. 2019 Jul;181(1):37-54. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 35 Knight L, et al. Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis: Maternal and Foetal outcomes in twenty-two consecutive pregnant HIV infected women. *PLoS ONE*. 2015;10:E0135501. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 36 Rodriguez G, et al. Toxic epidermal necrolysis in a mother and fetus. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2006 Nov;55:S96-S98. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 37 Sharma AN, et al. Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in pregnant patients: A systematic review. *Int J Womens Dermatol*. 2020 Apr;13(4):239-247. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 38 Noe M, et al. Development and Validation of a Risk Prediction Model for In-Hospital Mortality Among Patients With Stevens-Johnson Syndrome/Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis – ABCD-10. *JAMA Dermatol*. 2019 Apr 1;155(4):448-454. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 39 Hsu D, et al. Morbidity and Mortality of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis in United States Adults. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2016 Jul;136(7):1387-1397. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 40 Thompson JA, et al. Management of Immunotherapy-Related Toxicities, Version 1.2019. *J Natl Compr Canc Netw*. 2019 Mar 1;17(3):255-289. [PubMed Abstract](#)



## CHAPTER 4.

### BIOMARKERS FOR SCAR

#### Chapter summary

Life-threatening ADRs should be routinely reported to identify possible biomarkers associated with the reaction, but underreporting is a major limitation in the real world. Additionally, the understanding of all the factors associated with disease progression and the long-term outcomes of ADRs is limited. Therefore, collaborative efforts are needed to improve global surveillance to decrease reporting bias and provide more accurate estimates of disease epidemiology, causes and effects of the disease.[1] In addition, it is critical to collect biospecimens from incident cases at various time points, and follow patients long-term to ascertain outcomes, so that biomarker discovery efforts can take advantage of more complete and comprehensive data to discover and validate biomarker-based approaches to guide care.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

Race and ethnicity have been recognized as a major factor contributing to interindividual variability in response. For example, abacavir hypersensitivity syndrome is more prevalent in white populations due to a higher frequency of the *HLA-B\*57:01* allele in this population, whereas the frequency of carriers of the *HLA-B\*58:01* allele is higher in Asian populations.[2-4] The predictive value of any biomarker depends on the frequencies of that marker and the associated ADR in the study population.[3] For this reason, further research is needed to identify genomic markers for particular demographic clusters in admixed populations that may have increased risk for developing certain ADRs.

Except for *HLA-B\*1502*/carbamazepine in some Asian populations, HLA testing is not yet being routinely performed pre-emptively in clinical practice.[4] Large randomized controlled pharmacogenomic (PGx) trials are often expected to show the clinical utility of HLA testing, but this may not be feasible for such rare ADRs. Additional implementation studies will further characterize barriers to testing and find the best solutions, such as overcoming obstacles in information technology and infrastructure, translating raw genotyping lab results to actionable information to guide prescribing and improving HCP awareness and education.

#### 4.1 Introduction

SCAR such as SJS/TEN, and DRESS are associated with significant patient morbidity and mortality. These ADRs are the result of complex, heterogeneous, and distinct immunological responses following exposure to various medicinal products. Leveraging the knowledge of biomarkers to predict the risk of SCAR or its outcome can greatly improve the safe use of medications. A great deal of progress has been made in understanding the biological underpinnings of SJS/TEN and other forms of SCAR to enable the development of biomarkers that may be used across the continuum of patient care to mitigate risks and improve outcomes.

A biomarker is “a characteristic that is objectively measured as an indicator of normal biological processes, pathogenic processes, or biological responses to an exposure or intervention, including therapeutic interventions.” To that extent, biomarkers may include molecular, histologic, radiographic or physiologic characteristics.[5] Safety biomarkers, a category of biomarkers, are “biomarkers measured before or after an exposure to a medical product or an environmental agent to indicate the likelihood, presence, or extent of toxicity as an adverse effect.”[5]

Safety biomarkers can be used to identify patients in whom initiation of a particular medicinal product may lead to significant risk of ADR, such as different HLA alleles or polymorphisms in medicinal product-metabolizing encoding genes;[6-8] when used in this way, this type of biomarker may also be referred to as a predictive biomarker. Safety biomarkers also may be used to detect or monitor ADRs (e.g. when tissue damage occurs, certain proteins may be detectable in the blood like transaminase elevations in the setting of liver injury); when used in this way this type of biomarker may also be referred to as a monitoring biomarker. In addition, biomarkers may be used as part of the diagnostic evaluation to confirm the presence of a particular ADR, and once diagnosed, to evaluate prognosis or the likelihood of a particular outcome. The functions of a biomarker are not mutually exclusive; a biomarker that is used for diagnosis may also predict response to certain therapies.

Overall, biomarkers can play a critical role in 1) identifying patient populations who are more likely to respond to medical treatments and those who are susceptible to ADRs, both of which are major goals of precision medicine, 2) enabling early diagnosis to distinguish SCAR from less critical conditions before significant damage occurs, and 3) characterizing the likely course of progression. Therefore, this chapter provides an overview of biomarkers that have been scientifically validated to predict the risk of SCAR, as well as some areas of continued biomarker development, to maximize the benefits and reduce the risk of harm associated with administering medicinal products.

## **4.2 HLA and immune-related genetic biomarkers**

The most extensively studied biomarkers for SCAR risk are genetic variations in the HLA system. The HLA system is a member of the MHC, a region of the human genome located on the short arm of chromosome 6p21.3. HLA is a highly polymorphic gene system and an important modulator for immune responses and hypersensitivity reactions to specific medicinal products. HLA antigens are expressed on the surface of many cells and play a major role in self-recognition, evoking the immune response to an antigenic stimulus and the orchestration of cellular and humoral immunity.[9]

Because HLA molecules need to present such a wide variety of “self” and “non-self” molecules, the HLA genes are both numerous and highly polymorphic. More than 9000 HLA-B alleles have been identified and could play a significant role in the pathogenesis of many immunologic ADRs.[10] For example, HLA-B variants have been associated with severe hypersensitivity reactions to abacavir, allopurinol, carbamazepine and phenytoin.[6,11,12] HLA-B molecules present endogenous or processed exogenous antigens to T cells, thereby eliciting an adaptive immune response. HLA restriction is required for the activation of medicinal product-specific T cells by the culprit medicinal product. The T-cell receptor of the effector T cell is thought to recognize the medicinal product–peptide complex bound by the specific HLA-B molecule on the antigen presenting cell, resulting in the release of immune mediators and leading to robust adaptive immune reactions such as SCAR.[13] The relationships between different HLA alleles and the risk of medicinal product-induced SJS/TEN, DRESS and other skin reactions are well established and guidelines for genetic testing have been developed in some regions of the world with high frequencies of certain HLA alleles.[6-15] The most widely reported HLA genotypes associated with SCARs include *HLA-B\*15:02* for carbamazepine and phenytoin (Han Chinese), *HLA-A\*31:01* for carbamazepine (Europeans and Koreans), *HLA-B\*58:01* for allopurinol (East Asians), *HLA-B\*59:01* for methazolamide (Koreans and Japanese), and *HLA-B\*13:01* for dapsone (Asians).[16,17] The following sections summarize available evidence related to predisposing genetic factors for selected medicinal products and SCAR-related events.



#### 4.2.1 SJS/TEN

The development of SJS/TEN in response to medicinal product exposure is the result of many genetic and non-genetic factors.[13] While the exact immunohistopathology of SJS/TEN is not fully understood, a variety of factors and characteristics are implicated. Medicinal product-specific CD8+ T cells and NK cells have been shown to be the major inducer of keratinocyte apoptosis. Specific T-cell receptors recognize a medicinal product (or its metabolites) presented by specific HLA alleles, which can lead to activation of medicinal product-induced cytotoxic T cells with release of multiple cytokines, chemokines, signals, and soluble cytotoxic mediators, such as Fas-Fas ligand, granulysin, perforin, granzyme B and tumour necrosis factor alpha (TNF- $\alpha$ ).[13] The IL-15 cytokine, a major NK cell priming signal, passes through the JAK-STAT pathway with downstream effects on the PI3K/AKT/mTOR pathway and with effects on NK and CD8+ T cells, playing a vital role in most cellular processes, such as proliferation, adhesion, migration and invasion.[18,19]

Numerous studies have demonstrated a strong association between select HLA alleles and drug-induced SCAR.[20] A sampling of different alleles that have been identified as risk factors for SJS/TEN in different populations are summarized in Table 5.

Drug	Risk alleles	Populations Studied
Allopurinol	A*32:02, B*58:01, C*03:02	European, Korean, Vietnamese, Han Chinese, Japanese, Thai
Carbamazepine	A*24:02, A*31:01, B*15:02, B*15:11, B*15:21, B*57:01	European, Han Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indian, Malaysian, Thai, Taiwanese, Filipino
Lamotrigine	A*31:01, A*68:01, B*58:01, C*07:18, DQB1*06, DRB1*13	Han Chinese, European, Thai, Korean
Methazolamide	B*55:02, B*59:01	Han Chinese, Japanese, Korean
Phenytoin	B*13:01, B*15:02, B*56:02, B*15:13, Cw*08:01, DRB1*1602	East Asian, Han Chinese, Malaysian, Thai
Sulfamethoxazole	A*29, B*38, B*44, DR*07, A*11:01	European, Japanese

**Table 5. HLA alleles associated with SJS/TEN**

Adapted from Gibson, et al. 2023[20]

Permission obtained from Elsevier

Chung, et al. were the first to identify an association between carbamazepine-induced SJS/TEN and HLA genetic polymorphisms, particularly the *HLA-B\*15:02* allele, in Han Chinese patients in Taiwan, with 100% sensitivity and 97% specificity.[21] This finding has been replicated in a large number of populations in Southeast Asia. Even though SJS/TEN is an infrequent AE, the risk is significant among carriers of the *HLA-B\*15:02* allele (OR 26.01; 95% CI 15.88–42.60;  $p < 0.00001$ ) in meta-analyses of data from different populations.[22] While the incidence of SJS/TEN is lower in non-Asian populations, efforts have uncovered additional genetic variants that increase the risk for SJS/TEN in carbamazepine-treated patients. Specifically, *HLA-A\*31:01* was reported to be a significant risk factor in European populations, although the relative risk is much more modest than that observed for *HLA-B\*15:02*. [22] Several similar studies have also demonstrated that *HLA-B\*15:02* is also with a higher risk of SJS/TEN in patients treated with phenytoin. In addition, drugs that are structurally related to carbamazepine such as oxcarbazepine and eslicarbazepine also likely carry the same risk, and experimental studies have identified structural elements that selectively interact with *HLA-B\*15:02*. [23] As such, many anti-epileptics carry some shared HLA-related risk for developing SJS/TEN.

Collectively, these findings represent an opportunity for broader implementation of routine HLA genotyping in clinical practice to prevent medicinal product-induced SCAR and reinforce the need for racial and ethnic diversity in developing and validating novel biomarkers to optimally manage ADRs. Following extensive replication of HLA alleles as a risk factor for SJS/TEN, certain geographical regions have implemented prospective genetic testing prior to administration of carbamazepine. A study including 23 hospitals in Taiwan demonstrated reductions in the incidence of carbamazepine induced SJS/TEN by screening patients for *HLA-B\*15:02* and avoidance of carbamazepine in *HLA-B\*15:02* carriers.[24] Unfortunately, the overall incidence of SJS/TEN was not reduced in part because of a shift to other drugs that also cause SJS/TEN.[25]

Allopurinol, a widely prescribed drug for the management of gout and hyperuricemia, is another major cause of SJS/TEN. Extensive studies have linked SJS/TEN induced by allopurinol to genetic polymorphisms in the HLA system, mainly *HLA-B\*58:01*. [26] For example, a study investigated the relationship between SJS/TEN and *HLA-B\*58:01* in a Thai population that has a high allelic frequency of this allele. Twenty-seven allopurinol-induced SJS/TEN and 54 allopurinol-tolerant patients were enrolled in the study. The presence of *HLA-B\*58:01* and HLA-B genotypes in these patients were analysed. All 27 (100%) allopurinol-induced SJS/TEN patients who were examined carried *HLA-B\*58:01* whereas only seven (12.96%) of the control patients had this allele. The risk of allopurinol-induced SJS/TEN was significantly greater in patients with *HLA-B\*58:01* when compared with those who did not carry this allele, with an odds ratio of 348.3 (95% confidence interval=19.2-6336.9,  $P = 1.6 \times 10^{-13}$ ). The sensitivity and specificity of the *HLA-B\*58:01* allele for prediction of allopurinol-induced SJS/TEN were 100% and 87%, respectively.[27]. This association however is less strong in Japanese where only 36–40% of allopurinol-induced SCAR patients are *HLA-B\*58:01* positive, or in European patients where only 55–64% of patients with SJS/TEN carry this allele. Although the frequency of *HLA-B\*58:01* in different populations varies significantly (up to 20% in Taiwan and less than 2% in Europeans), which consequently influence the frequency of SCAR in the different populations, race and ethnicity also seems to have some influence on the capacity to develop this reaction.[25,28] The percent of *HLA-B\*58:01* negative individuals with allopurinol-induced SCAR is higher in Europeans and Japanese, suggesting other possible risk factors.[29]

To evaluate the use of prospective screening for the *HLA-B\*58:01* allele to identify Taiwanese individuals at risk of SCARs induced by allopurinol treatment, a national cohort study enrolled 2926 people who had an indication for allopurinol treatment but had not previously taken allopurinol.[30] Participants who tested positive for *HLA-B\*58:01* (19.6%,  $n=571$ ) were advised to avoid allopurinol and were referred to an alternate drug treatment or advised to continue with their study treatment. SCAR did not develop in any of the participants receiving allopurinol who screened negative for *HLA-B\*58:01*. [30] By contrast, seven cases of SCAR were expected, based on the estimated historical incidence of allopurinol-induced SCARs nationwide (0.30% per year, 95% confidence interval 0.28-0.31%;  $P=0.0026$ ). [30]

These results suggest that *HLA-B\*58:01* screening of about 110,000 new users of allopurinol in Taiwan each year could prevent about 330 cases of allopurinol-induced SCARs every year.[30] Prospective screening of the *HLA-B\*58:01* allele, coupled with an alternative medicinal product treatment for carriers, could significantly decrease the incidence of allopurinol-induced SCAR in high-risk patients.

From a pathophysiological standpoint, trigger medicinal products are thought to constitute the main target of the immune response. However, the strength of association between medicinal products and SJS/TEN is modulated by interindividual and interethnic variations in the HLA repertoire. In fact, distinct HLA variants might segregate with selected ethnicities and different ancestral population groups. Additional inherited factors may promote altered medicinal product metabolism and variably combine with HLA-related factors to contribute to SJS/TEN susceptibility.[31]

#### 4.2.2 DRESS

In drug hypersensitivity, several models were proposed for recognition of the small drug compounds by T cells with subsequent initiation of the immune response. Traditionally, DRESS is classified as a type IVb reaction that corresponds with CD8+ and CD4+ T-cell responses underlying the production of interferon- $\gamma$ , IL-4, IL-5, and IL-13, resulting in eosinophilia.[32] DRESS is a complex syndrome with a broad spectrum of clinical features.

As with SJS/TEN, several studies have been conducted to identify genetic susceptibilities to DRESS in various populations. *HLA-A\*31:01* has surfaced in a several studies of patients with Chinese, Japanese, European and North African ancestry as a risk factor for carbamazepine-induced DRESS. Other similar studies have been conducted to compare HLA allele frequencies in population or tolerant controls.[20] Selected drugs where multiple loci have been identified are shown in Table 6.

Drug	Risk alleles	Populations studied
Allopurinol	A*32:02, B*58:01, C*03:02	Korean, European, Han Chinese, Thai, Vietnamese
Carbamazepine	A*31:01, B*15:11, B*58:01	Japanese, European, Han Chinese, Korean
Lamotrigine	A*02:07, A*31:01, A*68:01, B*58:01, C*07:18, DQB1*06, DRB1*13	European, Thai, Korean
Nevirapine	C*08:02, B*14:02, CW4, DRB1*01:01	Japanese, European, Han Chinese
Sulfamethoxazole	A*11:01, B*13:01	Japanese, Asian, Han Chinese

**Table 6. HLA alleles associated with DRESS**

Adapted from Gibson, et al. 2023[20]

Permission obtained from Elsevier

For vancomycin, a study was conducted through an EHR-connected biobank that was coupled with prospective case ascertainment, in which 23 cases of DRESS were compared to 46 matched, vancomycin-tolerant controls. *HLA-A\*32:01* was present in 83% of the cases and none of the controls ( $p=1 \times 10^{-8}$ ). In an enzyme linked immunosorbent spot (ELISpot) assay wherein case or control peripheral blood mononuclear cells were incubated with vancomycin showed that almost all ELISpot-positive cases carried *HLA-A\*32:01* (11/12, 92%) but none of 24 controls. In silico molecular docking analysis was used to evaluate interactions between *HLA-A\*32:01* and vancomycin, showing that vancomycin can potentially bind the antigen binding clef of this variant.[33]

#### 4.2.3 AGEF

AGEF is a SCAR characterized by the acute onset of many pinpoint (< 5 mm), non-follicular sterile pustules scattered on edematous and erythematous skin.[34,35] The pathophysiology of AGEF has been classified as an immune T cell-mediated disease.[35] This immune process is initiated upon exposure to an offending agent, leading to formation of a medicinal product epitope by antigen presenting cells. This causes activation and proliferation of medicinal product-specific CD4+ and CD8+ T cells and the subsequent release of cytotoxic proteins such as perforin, granzyme B and Fas ligand.

1782 These cytotoxic proteins induce apoptosis of keratinocytes in the epidermis, resulting in  
1783 tissue destruction and vesical formation. The CD4<sup>+</sup> T cells release an increasing amount of  
1784 C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 8 (CXCL8), INF- $\gamma$ , and granulocyte/macrophage colony-  
1785 stimulating factor (GM-CSF). CXCL8 is a potent neutrophilic chemotactic cytokine that  
1786 recruits neutrophils into the vesicles and transforms the vesicles into sterile pustules.  
1787 Increased levels of INF- $\gamma$  and GM-CSF synergistically enhances viability of neutrophils and  
1788 amplifies formation of sterile pustules.

1789 Very little information is available regarding clinical biomarkers for AGEF. A recent case  
1790 series identified variants in the IL36 receptor antagonist (*IL36RN*) gene that may have  
1791 potential significance in the pathogenesis of AGEF.[36] IL-36 R blocks pro-inflammatory  
1792 cytokines IL-36- $\alpha$ , - $\beta$  and - $\gamma$ . Variants in the *IL36RN* gene results in increased downstream  
1793 production and release of these pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines such as IL-1,  
1794 IL-6, IL-12, IL-23 and IL-17, leading to inflammation and potentially a predisposition to  
1795 AGEF.[36] However, while psoriasis was not documented in any of the cases in this study,  
1796 *IL36RN* variants are also present in generalized pustular psoriasis, which could potentially  
1797 be a confounding factor.

#### 1798 **4.2 Medicinal product metabolism-related genetic biomarkers**

1799 Polymorphisms in the genes encoding medicinal product-metabolizing enzymes or medicinal  
1800 product-transporter proteins can significantly influence systemic concentrations of medicinal  
1801 products, and for many medicinal products variability in systemic exposure can result in  
1802 ADRs. To this end, the inter-individual variability in medicinal product metabolism and the  
1803 formation of active metabolites could modulate this degree of engagement between the  
1804 HLA-B molecule and T cells.

1805 Cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2C9 (CYP2C9) is a drug metabolizing enzyme that is involved in  
1806 the metabolism of numerous drugs, notably phenytoin. A genome-wide association study  
1807 (GWAS) that compared differences in the frequency of nearly one million variants in 48  
1808 SJS/TEN cases and 130 tolerant controls (from Taiwan, Japan and Malaysia), found that the  
1809 *CYP2C9*\*3 variant, which results in an amino acid change (p.Ile359Leu) and decreases  
1810 enzyme activity, was overrepresented in patients who received phenytoin and developed  
1811 SJS/TEN compared to phenytoin-tolerant controls (from Taiwan, Japan and Malaysia).[37]  
1812 Additional studies confirmed this finding, and a subsequent meta-analysis has shown a  
1813 significant association between phenytoin induced SJS/TEN and *CYP2C9*\*3, especially in  
1814 the Thai population.[38] Phenytoin is primarily metabolized to an inactive metabolite by  
1815 CYP2C9, and therefore, reduced CYP2C9 activity leads to higher systemic phenytoin  
1816 concentrations, which may increase the risk of SCAR. Patients who are intermediate or poor  
1817 metabolizers of CYP2C9 (e.g. have variant genotypes such as \*1/\*3, \*2/\*2 or \*3/\*3, which  
1818 reduce CYP2C9 activity) exhibit higher plasma phenytoin concentrations compared to  
1819 patients who are normal metabolizers (e.g. \*1/\*1).[12]

1820 The GWAS also found that patients with SJS/TEN had higher phenytoin concentrations than  
1821 tolerant controls. Thus, patients who are known to be intermediate or poor metabolizers may  
1822 ultimately require lower doses of phenytoin to maintain similar steady-state concentrations  
1823 compared to normal metabolizers, and higher concentrations may increase the risk for  
1824 SCAR.

DRESS is a severe T-cell-mediated hypersensitivity reaction to a medication or its active metabolites, which may be associated with enzymatic defects in drug metabolism.[39] Polymorphisms in genes encoding drug-metabolizing enzymes, such as CYP enzymes, N-acetyltransferase or drug transporter proteins have been associated with several ADRs and may possibly contribute to the pathogenesis of DRESS.[7,13]

The GWAS that identified *CYP2C9*\*3 as a significant risk factor for SJS/TEN also showed that DRESS risk was increased among *CYP2C9*\*3 carriers.[40]

The precise mechanism by which *CYP2C9* variants increase SCAR risk in phenytoin treated patients is not established though it appears to be related to drug or metabolite concentrations. A study involving the immediate reactions to metamizole identified an association between the higher frequency of slow arylamine N-acetyltransferase type 2 (activity (commonly referred to as slow acetylators) and the increased risk of agranulocytosis.[13,41] Impairment of these enzymes causes a reduced degradation of toxic metabolites such as 4-methylaminoantipyrine or 4-aminoantipyrine.[41] As such, other metabolic disturbances that result in the accumulation of immunogenic metabolites could be at play. Other medications including aromatic anticonvulsants are metabolized by the hepatic CYP450 enzymes and oxidation by aromatic hydroxylase may produce the arene oxides, which are the toxic metabolites.[42] Overall, alteration in the activity of drug-metabolizing enzymes leads to the accumulation of toxic metabolites which dysregulate the immune response, stimulating cell necrosis and/or apoptosis.[13]

### **4.3 Circulating and tissue specific biomarkers to aid in the clinical evaluation of SCAR**

Numerous studies have identified potential biomarkers in serum or skin (including blister fluid) that are diagnostic, prognostic or predictive. Granulysin has emerged as a biomarker that is present in various forms of SCAR. Granulysin is a cytotoxic molecule that is released from cytotoxic T lymphocytes and natural killer cells that plays a role in host defenses against pathogens. Granulysin is present in the blister fluid of patients with SJS/TEN and was shown to be toxic to keratinocytes.[43] Histopathology studies have also shown higher skin granulysin expression in various forms of SCAR, including SJS/TEN and DRESS,[44] and it is also found in the serum of patients with SJS/TEN.[45] While granulysin appears to not be specific to SJS/TEN it could be an earlier indicator of SCAR. Similarly, several studies have also shown that various other immune mediators such as soluble Fas ligand[46] granzyme B, and perforin[47] are also consistently elevated among patients with SCAR at various stages following clinical presentation. A body of literature is also available to suggest that various cytokines may be detected. However, the data for most biomarkers are less consistent with respect to correlations with disease severity and prognosis. It is possible that multicomponent biomarkers could be developed to differentiate SCAR from less severe skin reactions, the likelihood of progression to TEN and potentially long-term outcomes.[48,49] Similar studies have also been conducted in DRESS. Biomarkers that have demonstrated promise include granulysin, TARC/CCL17, soluble ST2, sOX40, CCL-27, IL15, galectin-7, RIP-3, and a variety of cytokines, which have been measured in either serum or skin lesions, some of which appear to track with disease onset and severity.[32,48,49]

Beyond the traditional drug specific immune response, DRESS can be also sustained by viral reactivation.[50] Clinical viral reactivation occurs up to two weeks after the onset of DRESS symptoms and is associated with worse prognosis in disease duration, relapse, constitutional symptoms and organ involvement compared with patients with no viral reactivation.[50]

1873 Viral reactivation may take part in DRESS pathogenesis in the following four ways:

- 1874 • direct organ damage,
- 1875 • induction of antiviral immune responses,
- 1876 • enhancement of systemic inflammation reactivation due to immune cell
- 1877 proliferation.[50]

1878 A typical feature of DRESS is the reactivation of latent HHV), namely HHV6, HHV7, EBV,  
1879 and CMV. High viral load and antibody titres are considered poor prognostic markers in  
1880 DRESS treatment outcomes.[13,50] DRESS is the result of complex interplay of genetic  
1881 factors, especially HLA alleles, immunological response (T cell), and abnormality of  
1882 medicinal product metabolizing enzymes and herpesviruses family member reactivation  
1883 (HHV6, HHV7, EBV, CMV).[13,50] Nevertheless, clinical viral reactivation is a probable  
1884 cause of chronic recurrence of DRESS-related skin rash despite cessation of the culprit  
1885 medicinal product.[13,50]

#### 1886 4.4 Developing and implementing biomarker testing recommendations

1887 Prescribing guidelines generated by different national and international working groups for  
1888 translation of HLA-pharmacogenetic testing into clinical practice are operational in many  
1889 countries. The Clinical Pharmacogenomics Implementation Consortium (CPIC) and the  
1890 Dutch Pharmacogenomics Working Group (<https://www.knmp.nl/richtlijnen>) have written  
1891 prescribing guidelines based on HLA genotype for carbamazepine,[51,52]  
1892 oxcarbazepine,[51,52] phenytoin,[12] allopurinol, [6,53] flucloxacillin[52] and lamotrigine.[52]  
1893 Genetic testing coupled with a robust clinical decision support system may enable clinicians  
1894 to optimize medicinal product selection. To this end, these genotype-based treatment  
1895 guidelines may help to facilitate the use of pharmacogenetic tests for patient care. However,  
1896 testing is not routine in many parts of the world primarily because of the rarity of SCAR.  
1897 Alternatively, in regions where the incidence is lower, testing may be targeted to certain  
1898 subsets of patients in which the allele frequency and risk for the ADR is higher. An example  
1899 of this is seen for carbamazepine where regulatory authorities have incorporated testing  
1900 recommendations in medicinal product labelling for patients of Asian ancestry:

*Carbamazepine Boxed Warning (U.S. Prescribing Information):  
SERIOUS AND SOMETIMES FATAL DERMATOLOGIC REACTIONS,  
INCLUDING TOXIC EPIDERMAL NECROLYSIS (TEN) AND STEVENS-  
JOHNSON SYNDROME (SJS), HAVE BEEN REPORTED DURING TREATMENT  
WITH [CARBAMAZEPINE]. THESE REACTIONS ARE ESTIMATED TO OCCUR  
IN 1 TO 6 PER 10,000 NEW USERS IN COUNTRIES WITH MAINLY CAUCASIAN  
POPULATIONS, BUT THE RISK IN SOME ASIAN COUNTRIES IS ESTIMATED  
TO BE ABOUT 10 TIMES HIGHER. STUDIES IN PATIENTS OF CHINESE  
ANCESTRY HAVE FOUND A STRONG ASSOCIATION BETWEEN THE RISK OF  
DEVELOPING SJS/TEN AND THE PRESENCE OF HLA-B\*1502, AN INHERITED  
ALLELIC VARIANT OF THE HLA-B GENE. HLA-B\*1502 IS FOUND ALMOST  
EXCLUSIVELY IN PATIENTS WITH ANCESTRY ACROSS BROAD AREAS OF  
ASIA. PATIENTS WITH ANCESTRY IN GENETICALLY AT-RISK POPULATIONS  
SHOULD BE SCREENED FOR THE PRESENCE OF HLA-B\*1502 PRIOR TO  
INITIATING TREATMENT WITH [CARBAMAZEPINE]. PATIENTS TESTING  
POSITIVE FOR THE ALLELE SHOULD NOT BE TREATED WITH  
[CARBAMAZEPINE] UNLESS THE BENEFIT CLEARLY OUTWEIGHS THE RISK  
(SEE WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS, LABORATORY TESTS).*

1902 Novartis Pharmaceuticals. "Tegretol (Package Insert)." (2023).



Race and ethnicity have been recognized as a major factor contributing to interindividual variability in SCAR. For example, abacavir-hypersensitivity syndrome is more prevalent in white populations due to a higher frequency of the *HLA-B\*57:01* allele in this population, whereas the frequency of carriers of the *HLA-B\*58:01* allele is higher in Asian populations.[54-,55,56] The predictive value of any biomarker depends on the frequencies of that marker and the associated ADR in the study population.[55] For this reason, further research is needed to identify genomic markers for particular demographic clusters in admixed populations that may have increased risk for developing certain ADRs.

Regardless of the approach, biomarker testing recommendations from regulatory authorities or developers of clinical guidelines have to consider many factors including: 1) the extent of evidence to support the association and information on the relevant population, because the rarity of the events makes populations studies difficult to conduct so experimental evidence and replication of findings is critical; 2) allele distributions for genetic factors because the frequency of variants that increase risk may vary widely based on ancestry; 3) screening considerations because the rarity of events tends to make the yield of screening quite low so identification of multiple factors that increase risk can help make testing more efficient; 4) clinical recommendations to guide prescribing because the potential benefits and risks of alternative treatment strategies may influence outcomes; and 5) uncertainty and limitations because any predictor of SJS/TEN or other SCAR is likely to be imperfect and patients may remain at risk despite having negative test results.

Application of HLA genotyping as a screening tool has significant limitations and should never be a substitute for appropriate clinical vigilance and individualized patient management. Clinicians should diligently monitor patients for development of hypersensitivity reactions, regardless of the absence or presence of a biomarker associated with the ADR.

Additionally, other factors can contribute to the risk for development of an ADR, such as medicinal product dose and duration, concomitant medications and the risk for drug-drug interactions, comorbidities, age and environmental factors. Therefore, clinicians should consider the totality of information and manage each patient individually.

The evidence base for other circulating and tissue biomarkers has not yet reached a level to support routine clinical testing yet remain an area of ongoing research.

## References

- 1 Mittmann, N., et al., Evaluation of the extent of under-reporting of serious adverse drug reactions: the case of toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Drug Saf*, 2004. 27(7): p. 477-87. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Mallal, S., et al., Association between presence of HLA-B\*5701, HLA-DR7, and HLA-DQ3 and hypersensitivity to HIV-1 reverse-transcriptase inhibitor abacavir. *Lancet*, 2002. 359(9308): p. 727-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 3 Hetherington, S., et al., Genetic variations in HLA-B region and hypersensitivity reactions to abacavir. *Lancet*, 2002. 359(9312): p. 1121-2. [PubMed Abstract](#)

- 4 Manson, L.E.N., J.J. Swen, and H.J. Guchelaar, Diagnostic Test Criteria for HLA Genotyping to Prevent Drug Hypersensitivity Reactions: A Systematic Review of Actionable HLA Recommendations in CPIC and DPWG Guidelines. *Front Pharmacol*, 2020. 11: p. 567048. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 5 FDA-NIH Biomarker Working Group, in BEST (Biomarkers, EndpointS, and other Tools) Resource. 2016: Silver Spring (MD) Bethesda (MD). [PubMed Excerpt](#)
- 6 Saito, Y., et al., Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium (CPIC) guidelines for human leukocyte antigen B (HLA-B) genotype and allopurinol dosing: 2015 update. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2016. 99(1): p. 36-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Carr, D.F. and M. Pirmohamed, Biomarkers of adverse drug reactions. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)*, 2018. 243(3): p. 291-299. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Ariza, A., et al., Early Biomarkers for Severe Drug Hypersensitivity Reactions. *Curr Pharm Des*, 2019. 25(36): p. 3829-3839. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 9 Dendrou, C.A., et al., HLA variation and disease. *Nat Rev Immunol*, 2018. 18(5): p. 325-339. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 Nomenclature for Factors of the HLA System: HLA Alleles. [Internet] [cited 2023 11/15]. Available from <https://hla.alleles.org/alleles/index.html>
- 11 Martin, M.A., et al., Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium Guidelines for HLA-B Genotype and Abacavir Dosing: 2014 update. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2014. 95(5): p. 499-500. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 12 Karnes, J.H., et al., Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium (CPIC) Guideline for CYP2C9 and HLA-B Genotypes and Phenytoin Dosing: 2020 Update. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2021. 109(2): p. 302-309. [experts.arizona Abstract](#)
- 13 Kloypan, C., et al., A Comprehensive Review of HLA and Severe Cutaneous Adverse Drug Reactions: Implication for Clinical Pharmacogenomics and Precision Medicine. *Pharmaceuticals (Basel)*, 2021. 14(11). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Leckband, S.G., et al., Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium guidelines for HLA-B genotype and carbamazepine dosing. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2013. 94(3): p. 324-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 15 Tassaneeyakul, W., et al., Associations between HLA class I and cytochrome P450 2C9 genetic polymorphisms and phenytoin-related severe cutaneous adverse reactions in a Thai population. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*, 2016. 26(5): p. 225-34. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 16 Jung, J.W., et al., Genetic markers of severe cutaneous adverse reactions. *Korean J Intern Med*, 2018. 33(5): p. 867-875. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 Liu, H., et al., Evaluation of Prospective HLA-B\*13:01 Screening to Prevent Dapsone Hypersensitivity Syndrome in Patients With Leprosy. *JAMA Dermatol*, 2019. 155(6): p. 666-672. [JAMA Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 18 Nandagopal, N., et al., The Critical Role of IL-15-P3K-mTOR Pathway in Natural Killer Cell Effector Functions. *Front Immunol*, 2014. 5: p. 187. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 19 Hu, X., et al., The JAK/STAT signaling pathway: from bench to clinic. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*, 2021. 6(1): p. 402.
- 20 Gibson, A., et al., Updates on the immunopathology and genomics of severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*, 2023. 151(2): p. 289-300 e4. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 21 Chung, W.H., et al., Medical genetics: a marker for Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *Nature*, 2004. 428(6982): p. 486. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Biswas, M., et al., Associations of HLA genetic variants with carbamazepine-induced cutaneous adverse drug reactions: An updated meta-analysis. *Clin Transl Sci*, 2022. 15(8): p. 1887-1905. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Wei, C.Y., et al., Direct interaction between HLA-B and carbamazepine activates T cells in patients with Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*, 2012. 129(6): p. 1562-9 e5. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Chen, P., et al., Carbamazepine-induced toxic effects and HLA-B\*1502 screening in Taiwan. *N Engl J Med*, 2011. 364(12): p. 1126-33. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Zhou, Y., et al., Global Frequencies of Clinically Important HLA Alleles and Their Implications For the Cost-Effectiveness of Preemptive Pharmacogenetic Testing. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2021. 109(1): p. 160-174. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 26 Somkruea, R., et al., Association of HLA-B\*5801 allele and allopurinol-induced Stevens Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Med Genet*, 2011. 12: p. 118. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 27 Tassaneeyakul, W., et al., Strong association between HLA-B\*5801 and allopurinol-induced Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in a Thai population. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*, 2009. 19(9): p. 704-9. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 28 Goncalo, M., HLA-B\*58:01 is not the only risk factor associated with allopurinol-induced severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Ann Transl Med*, 2018. 6(Suppl 1): p. S7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 29 Lonjou, C., et al., A European study of HLA-B in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis related to five high-risk drugs. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*, 2008. 18(2): p. 99-107. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 30 Ko, T.M., et al., Use of HLA-B\*58:01 genotyping to prevent allopurinol induced severe cutaneous adverse reactions in Taiwan: national prospective cohort study. *BMJ*, 2015. 351: p. h4848. [BMJ Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 31 Lerch, M., et al., Current Perspectives on Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *Clin Rev Allergy Immunol*, 2018. 54(1): p. 147-176. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 32 Chen, C.B., et al., Advances in understanding of the pathogenesis and therapeutic implications of drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms: an updated review. *Front Med (Lausanne)*, 2023. 10: p. 1187937. [Frontiers Full Text](#)
- 33 Konvinse, K.C., et al., HLA-A\*32:01 is strongly associated with vancomycin-induced drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*, 2019. 144(1): p. 183-192. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 34 Szaatowski, J. and R.A. Schwartz, Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP): A review and update. *J Am Acad Dermatol*, 2015. 73(5): p. 843-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 35 Sussman, M., et al., Pustular Psoriasis and Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis. *Medicina (Kaunas)*, 2021. 57(10). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 36 Feldmeyer, L., K. Heidmeyer, and N. Yawalkar, Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis: Pathogenesis, Genetic Background, Clinical Variants and Therapy. *Int J Mol Sci*, 2016. 17(8). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 37 Chung, W.H., et al., Genetic variants associated with phenytoin-related severe cutaneous adverse reactions. *JAMA*, 2014. 312(5): p. 525-34. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 38 Wu, X., W. Liu, and W. Zhou, Association of CYP2C9\*3 with phenytoin-induced Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *J Clin Pharm Ther*, 2018. 43(3): p. 408-413. [Wiley Summary](#)
- 39 Choudhary, S., et al., Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS) Syndrome. *J Clin Aesthet Dermatol*, 2013. 6(6): p. 31-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 40 Suvichapanich, S., et al., Association analysis of CYP2C9\*3 and phenytoin-induced severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCARs) in Thai epilepsy children. *J Hum Genet*, 2015. 60(8): p. 413-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 41 Radulovic, I., et al., NAT2 polymorphisms as a cause of metimazole-induced agranulocytosis. *Pharmacogenet Genomics*, 2021. 31(6): p. 140-143. [PubMed Abstract](#)



- 42 Vazquez, M., P. Fagiolino, and E.L. Marino, Concentration-dependent mechanisms of adverse drug reactions in epilepsy. *Curr Pharm Des*, 2013. 19(38): p. 6802-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 43 Chung, W.H., et al., Granulysin is a key mediator for disseminated keratinocyte death in Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Nat Med*, 2008. 14(12): p. 1343-50. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 44 Weinborn, M., et al., Histopathological study of six types of adverse cutaneous drug reactions using granulysin expression. *Int J Dermatol*, 2016. 55(11): p. 1225-1233. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 45 Abe, R., et al., Granulysin as a marker for early diagnosis of the Stevens-Johnson syndrome. *Ann Intern Med*, 2009. 151(7): p. 514-5. No abstract available.
- 46 Murata, J., R. Abe, and H. Shimizu, Increased soluble Fas ligand levels in patients with Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis preceding skin detachment. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*, 2008. 122(5): p. 992-1000. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 47 Posadas, S.J., et al., Delayed reactions to drugs show levels of perforin, granzyme B, and Fas-L to be related to disease severity. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*, 2002. 109(1): p. 155-61. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 48 Copaescu, A., et al., An Updated Review of the Diagnostic Methods in Delayed Drug Hypersensitivity. *Front Pharmacol*, 2020. 11: p. 573573. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 49 Yoshioka, M., Y. Sawada, and M. Nakamura, Diagnostic Tools and Biomarkers for Severe Drug Eruptions. *Int J Mol Sci*, 2021. 22(14). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 50 Ramirez, G.A., et al., Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS): Focus on the Pathophysiological and Diagnostic Role of Viruses. *Microorganisms*, 2023. 11(2). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 51 Phillips, E.J., et al., Clinical Pharmacogenetics Implementation Consortium Guideline for HLA Genotype and Use of Carbamazepine and Oxcarbazepine: 2017 Update. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, 2018. 103(4): p. 574-581. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 52 Dutch Pharmacogenetics Working Group (DPWG). KNMP Pharmacy Organization <https://www.knmp.nl/dossiers/farmacogenetica>.
- 53 van der Pol, K.H., et al., Dutch pharmacogenetics working group guideline for the gene-drug interaction of ABCG2, HLA-B and Allopurinol, and MTHFR, folic acid and methotrexate. *Eur J Hum Genet*, 2022. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 54 Mallal, S., et al., Association between presence of HLA-B\*57:01, HLA-DR7, and HLA-DQ3 and hypersensitivity to HIV-1 reverse-transcriptase inhibitor abacavir. *Lancet*, 2002. 359(9308): p. 727-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 55 Hetherington, S., et al., Genetic variations in HLA-B region and hypersensitivity reactions to abacavir. *Lancet*, 2002. 359(9312): p. 1121-2. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 56 Manson, L.E.N., J.J. Swen, and H.J. Guchelaar, Diagnostic Test Criteria for HLA Genotyping to Prevent Drug Hypersensitivity Reactions: A Systematic Review of Actionable HLA Recommendations in CPIC and DPWG Guidelines. *Front Pharmacol*, 2020. 11: p. 567048. [PubMed Abstract](#)

## CHAPTER 5.

### CAUSALITY ASSESSMENT OF SCAR IN PRE- AND POSTAUTHORIZATION SURVEILLANCE

#### Chapter summary

Causality assessment is the procedure by which the relationship between a product and AE is established. Standard methods such as Bradford Hill criteria, global introspection, operational algorithms, probabilistic approaches are described for SCAR. Adjudication, targeted follow-up forms and assessment of aggregate data are also presented.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

- 1) The standard causality methods may be used to evaluate a potential causal relationship between a product and adverse skin events.
- 2) The Algorithm for Assessment of Drug Causality for Epidermal Necrolysis (ALDEN) was created to assess causality of individual reports of SJS/TEN takes into account the most relevant factors such as latency and medicinal product half-life, class effect and alternative etiologies.
- 3) When possible, additional tools such as patch testing or delayed intradermal testing and expert adjudication of individual cases can further support a causal relationship.
- 4) SCAR-specific targeted questionnaires offer valuable information for a timely and comprehensive assessment of causality.

#### 5.1 Introduction

Causality assessment is a procedure whose purpose is to determine the relationship between an intervention, namely a medicinal product, and an AE. If a causal relationship with the AE is considered at least a reasonable possibility, the event is considered an ADR. The assessment of causality is at the heart of pharmacovigilance, which relies on the information collected from healthcare professionals including clinical trial investigators.

Once a SCAR diagnosis is confirmed, a detailed medical history including all medicinal products and/or supplements will inform the assessment of a causal relationship between the AE and the medicinal product. In general, it is recommended to conduct a review of medical events and exposures, including dates and timelines over an eight-week period prior to the reported onset of the SCAR[1] and the patient's skin risk profile.[2]

In certain circumstances, it may be useful to consider medicinal product exposures over a longer timeline, taking into account factors such as treatment indication, patient population characteristics, and medicinal product mechanism of action. Validated medicinal product causality assessment tools also help to avoid implicating the medicinal product(s) introduced for early symptoms of SCAR and are discussed in this chapter.

In the pre-authorization phase, clinical trial participants benefit from close safety surveillance and any suspected ADR will be investigated, which will include a causality assessment of the individual case. In the postauthorization phase, patients and healthcare professionals are encouraged to report suspected ADRs to their regional reporting schemes. Also, it is important to note that causality assessment of individual cases is not required for reporting purposes.

When a suspected ADR is reported by a healthcare professional or patient, the manufacturer may perform a causality assessment of that reaction, although this is not mandatory. However, even if the causality assessment considers a causal relationship of the AE and the medicinal product as an unlikely cause or is excluded altogether, the company is still required to report the case to the appropriate regulatory bodies. The causality assessment outcome can be part of this submission.

Manufacturers and regulatory bodies are required to perform continuous safety surveillance in the postauthorization phase based on the totality of all available evidence. However, such surveillance does not only include causality assessment of individual cases if this is feasible based on the nature of these cases and available information about them, but more importantly, also includes causality assessment of safety concerns. Whereas causality assessment at case level investigates if an AE in a given patient is caused by a medicinal product, causality assessment conducted on the basis of all evidence examines whether the medicinal product can cause the AE in patients who will receive the medicinal product in the future. Approaches for causality assessment on the basis of all evidence are also discussed in this chapter.

## 5.2 Global introspection methods

Global introspection methods rely on detailed clinical information for individual cases of suspected ADRs. The WHO-UMC for International Drug Monitoring has developed a practical tool which combines the assessment of clinical and pharmacological case information and the quality of this information to assess causality. The [WHO/UMC causality tool](#) takes into account the temporal relationship, laboratory values, dechallenge and rechallenge outcomes, as well as the presence of possible alternative etiologies to classify the likelihood of a causal relationship of a given case into Certain, Probable/Likely, Possible, Unlikely, Conditional/Unclassified, and Unassessable/Unclassifiable.[3] The global introspection method implicitly relates to the diagnosis-making process which remains subjective and demonstrated poor intra- and interrater reproducibility.[4-7]

### 5.2.1 Operational algorithms

The second category of causality assessment methods consists of questionnaire-based operational algorithms for individual cases of suspected ADRs.[3] Algorithms are designed to reduce intra- and interrater variability, increase reliability and validity of causality assessment. The **Naranjo scale** is the commonly used algorithm to assign a probability scale to medicinal product-event relationship.[8] It was originally developed by pharmacologists/physicians and psychiatrists at the University of Toronto for use in controlled trials and registration studies of new drugs.[8,9] The Naranjo approach is simple to apply in the assessment of causality of individual case reports from spontaneous postauthorization reporting[10], or observational studies.[11,12] The Naranjo scale can be used for assessment of adverse skin events.[13] However, the high variability of weighting assigned to each causality criterion can lead to the imprecise expression of the final result.[14] Slight variations of the Naranjo scale, such as the **Liverpool algorithm**, have been shown to reduce interrater variability.[15]

### 5.2.2 Probabilistic methods

Probabilistic methods calculate the probability of causality based on available knowledge of the type of suspected medicinal product, its potential to cause a specific ADR (prior estimate) and specific findings in individual case reports of suspected ADRs, in combination with background information (posterior estimate).[8]

2031 The probabilistic approach derived from Bayes' theorem, offers a formal causal assessment in  
2032 determining the probability of medicinal product causation. While highly reliable, these  
2033 methods remain too complex and time consuming for routine practice.[7,16]

2034 These tools are not specific to an ADR and can be further refined to the type of medicinal  
2035 product-induced injury such as the Roussel Uclaf Causality Assessment Method for drug-  
2036 induced liver injury[17] or the Algorithm for Assessment of Drug Causality for Epidermal  
2037 Necrolysis (ALDEN) that is specific to cases of SJS/TEN.[18]

#### 2038 **5.2.2.1 ALDEN**

2039 ALDEN is a probabilistic method aimed at assessing the causality of individual cases of  
2040 SJS/TEN. ALDEN was developed for use in case-control studies (SCAR and  
2041 EuroSCAR)[19,20] and a case registry (RegiSCAR).

2042 The ALDEN score also takes into account the latency between start of medicinal product  
2043 intake and index day (day of SJS/TEN symptom onset), presence/availability of the  
2044 medicinal product in the body before index day (taking into account the medicinal product's  
2045 half-life and the patient's hepatic and renal function), information on previous and later intake  
2046 as well as the discontinuation of the medicinal product (if available), type of medicinal  
2047 product and its possible induction potential (based on medicinal product lists that have to be  
2048 updated regularly), and alternative reasons.

2049 The ALDEN criteria includes a criterion on medicinal product "notoriety" for SJS/TEN  
2050 assigning no points for medicinal products not previously identified as culprits, 'including  
2051 those newly released to the market"[18] and thus a new medicinal product culprit would not  
2052 contribute to the total score and causality classification. Numeric score values allow the  
2053 causality assessment of every single medicinal product a patient used four weeks before the  
2054 SJS/TEN. The numeric score values are classified as "very improbable", "improbable",  
2055 "possible", "probable", or "very probable". Given that ALDEN is more sensitive than global  
2056 introspection or operational algorithms, it can be considered a reference tool in  
2057 SJS/TEN.[18]

#### 2058 **5.2.3 The Bradford Hill criteria**

2059 The Bradford Hill criteria consist of nine principles that can be useful in establishing a causal  
2060 relationship between an observation at population level and a suspected cause based on all  
2061 available evidence. These criteria have been widely used in epidemiology and public health  
2062 research and include the strength in terms of effect size, consistency across clinical findings,  
2063 specificity, temporal sequence, biological gradient in terms of dose-response relationship,  
2064 biologic plausibility, coherence with non-clinical findings, experimental evidence and  
2065 analogous evidence.[21]

2066 In pharmacovigilance, the Bradford Hill criteria are considered relevant for causality  
2067 assessment[21] and have become the basis for several methods, which have five criteria in  
2068 common: challenge, dechallenge, rechallenge, previous bibliographic description and  
2069 etiologic alternatives.[21]

2070

2071

2072

2073

2074

### 2075 **5.3 Tools to support investigation of causality between medicinal product and SCAR**

#### 2076 **5.3.1 Tests**

2077 Patch or delayed intradermal testing provide evidence to support the assessment of  
2078 causality. In general, diagnostic patch testing (DPT) is performed after but within one year of  
2079 the acute phase of the hypersensitivity reaction.

2080 DPT is generally safe but has been associated with a high incidence of non-life-threatening  
2081 systemic reactions among HIV-infected patients with antituberculosis drug-related cADRs,  
2082 including SJS/TEN.[22,23] For SJS/TEN the optimum time for a diagnostic rechallenge is  
2083 during the acute stage. In DRESS, which formed the majority of the cases, it should be  
2084 performed 5-8 weeks after the initial cADR. Other authors have suggested that rechallenge  
2085 following cADR should be deferred by a period equivalent to over five times the elimination  
2086 half-life of the drug and not earlier than four weeks after the episode. This could be related to  
2087 transient, nonspecific residual reactivity to drugs often induced by persisting viral or immune  
2088 reactivation during the acute stage, causing high background proliferation and activity,  
2089 regardless of stimulus.[22,23]

2090 These tests are of particular interest when several medicinal products are co-administered  
2091 and/or to clarify the phenotype.[24] For abacavir, DPT has helped define the phenotype of  
2092 immunologically-mediated abacavir hypersensitivity with a diagnostic sensitivity of  
2093 87%.[25-27] The in vivo skin testing has shown a negative predictive value (NPV) of  
2094 approximately 90% for skin reactions depending on the drug tested. The negative results  
2095 may support a rechallenge in the absence of safe, alternative treatments.[28]

2096 DPT has also been used to investigate the cross-reactivity to anti-epileptic agents that are  
2097 considered as therapeutic alternatives.[29] A large multi-centre study showed a high degree  
2098 of variability of the DPT results in both drug and clinical phenotype in patients diagnosed  
2099 with DRESS, AGEP or SJS/TEN within one year of event resolution.[30]

2100 In vitro testing, such as lymphocyte proliferation assays and those to identify and characterize  
2101 drug-specific immune cell populations or key cytokines involved in skin reactions are still under  
2102 development and are not used for routine diagnostic testing.[31,32] HLA pharmacogenomic  
2103 testing can be used in a clinical setting to identify if patients are at risk for SCAR.[33]

#### 2104 **5.3.2 Adjudication**

##### 2105 **5.3.2.1 Independent clinical trial review board**

2106 Event adjudication is a process where an independent review board of medical specialists  
2107 assesses relevant events for fulfilment of predefined clinical criteria. It is used in clinical trials  
2108 to manage subjective evaluations and enhance a harmonized approach.

2109 The adjudicator refers to one or more assessors, independent from site investigators, who  
2110 use information collected in the trial to assess the same outcome. In order for relevant  
2111 information to be captured when there is a suspicion of SCAR in a clinical trial, AE-specific  
2112 follow-up forms are developed by sponsors and submitted to investigators for completion.  
2113 This allows the creation of a standardized process for the assessment of AE reports and  
2114 enhanced case documentation to support appropriate diagnosis and causality assessment.

2115 Considering the low frequency of SCAR, a panel of independent experts is rare. More often,  
2116 independent dermatology experts are involved to review and assess a adverse skin event  
2117 that is considered a potential SCAR.

2118 Inclusion of a blinded independent dermatologist or allergist is considered a strength when  
2119 planning for clinical trials where suspected SCAR are foreseen, as it allows for accurate  
2120 monitoring and assessment of adverse skin events.[34]

### 2121 **5.3.2.2 Other clinical tools**

2122 In addition to an independent expert in cADRs, integration of skin biopsy results,  
2123 photographs and investigator trainings and materials may allow for more accurate monitoring  
2124 and evaluation of adverse skin events.[34]

### 2125 **5.3.3 Targeted follow-up forms**

2126 [Targeted Follow-up Forms](#) can be used to document relevant information that will allow  
2127 appropriate SCAR assessment. Certain limitations and difficulties are acknowledged when  
2128 collecting the information proposed on the follow-up forms, such as the paucity of biopsies  
2129 typically performed on cutaneous lesions, incomplete information obtained from the reporter  
2130 on the characteristics of cutaneous lesions or absence (or insufficient quality) of photographs  
2131 of cutaneous lesions under standardized conditions. In addition, there is the potential for  
2132 missing data entry (e.g. subjects who withdraw from studies, lack of follow-up in the  
2133 postauthorization period).

2134 Important elements to be captured on the follow-up forms may include medical history/risk  
2135 factors, AE information (e.g. nature of first symptoms, type of cutaneous event, extent of a  
2136 rash/distribution of cutaneous lesions, associated symptoms, evidence of internal organ  
2137 involvement), evidence of viral infection, whether photosensitivity is suspected, whether  
2138 photographs were taken, if the medicinal product was stopped or dosage reduced and the  
2139 outcome of the event. A systematic approach for assessment of the SCAR signal is key to  
2140 complement the adjudication process. This topic is further discussed in Chapter 6  
2141 ("Preauthorization Safety Data Collection and Analysis"). Scientific adjudication is required to  
2142 assess the causal relationship between the suspect culprit medicinal product and SCAR.

2143 This approach includes the following steps:

- 2144 • Case definition, described in more detail in Chapter 1 "What are Severe Cutaneous  
2145 Adverse Reactions",
- 2146 • Pattern analysis: evaluating the number of cases with a compatible chronology, cases  
2147 without a suggestive chronology, cases with no chronology available and cases where  
2148 the diagnosis of SCAR was not confirmed. In addition, evaluating the number of cases  
2149 with concomitant exposure to medicinal products known to induce SCAR and/or with  
2150 possible underlying conditions that may provide alternative explanations (e.g.  
2151 infections, systemic lupus erythematosus [SLE], T-cell lymphoma),
- 2152 • Literature review: to evaluate whether there are cases of SCAR reported with the  
2153 suspected culprit medicinal product or within the product class in key epidemiological  
2154 studies on SJS/TEN (e.g. EuroSCAR).

2155  
2156  
2157  
2158  
2159  
2160  
2161  
2162



- 1 Hama N, et al. Drug-Induced Hypersensitivity Syndrome (DIHS)/Drug Reaction With Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS): Clinical Features and Pathogenesis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. 2022 Feb 14;10(5):P1155–1167.e5. [JACI Abstract](#)
- 2 Litt's Drug Eruption & Reaction Database [website]. Boca Raton (FL): CRC Press LLC; 2024 (<https://www.drugeruptiondata.com/>, accessed 27 March 2024 [subscription required]).
- 3 World Health Organization (WHO)-Uppsala Monitoring Centre. The use of the WHO-UMC system for standardized case causality assessment. Available from: <https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/WHO-causality-assessment>
- 4 Blanc S, et al. Judgments of trained observers on adverse drug reactions. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 1979 May;25:493-498. [Clin Pharmacol Ther. Abstract](#)
- 5 Karch FE, et al. Adverse drug reactions—a matter of opinion. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1976(5 Pt 1):489-492. [Clin Pharmacol Ther. Abstract](#)
- 6 Koch-Weser J, Sellers EM, Zacest R. The ambiguity of adverse drug reactions. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 1977 Jan 3;11(2):75-78. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Kramer MS. Difficulties in assessing the adverse effects of drugs. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*. 1981;11 Suppl 1:105S-110S. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Naranjo CA, et al. A method for estimating the probability of adverse drug reactions. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 1981 Aug;30(2):239-245. [Clin. Pharmacol Ther. Abstract](#)
- 9 Mashford ML. The Australian method of drug-event assessment. Special workshop—regulatory. *Drug Inf J*. 1984;18(3-4):271-3. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 FDA. [FDA Adverse Event Reporting System](#)
- 11 Davies EC, et al. Adverse drug reactions in hospital in-patients: a prospective analysis of 3695 patient-episodes. *PLoS One* 2009 Feb 11;4:e4439. [PLoS One Open Access Article](#)
- 12 Reis AM, Cassiani SH. Adverse drug events in an intensive care unit of a university hospital. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol*. 2011 Jun;67(6):625-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 13 Copaescu AM, Trubiano JA. The assessment of severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Aust Prescr*. 2022 Apr;45(2):43-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Pere JC, et al. Computerized comparison of six adverse drug reaction assessment procedures. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 1986 Oct;40(4):451-61. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 15 Gallagher RM, et al. Development and Inter-Rater Reliability of the Liverpool Adverse Drug Reaction Causality Assessment Tool. *PLoS One* 2011;6:e28096. [PLoS One Open Access Article](#)
- 16 Lancot KL, Naranjo CA. Computer-assisted evaluation of adverse events using a Bayesian approach. *J Clin Pharmacol*. 1994 Feb;34(2):142-7. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 Danan G, Benichou C. Causality assessment of adverse reactions to drugs—I. A novel method based on the conclusions of international consensus meetings: application to drug-induced liver injuries. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 1993 Nov;46(11):1323-30. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 18 Sassolas B, et al. ALDEN, an algorithm for assessment of drug causality in Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: comparison with case-control analysis. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2010 Jul;88(1):60-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 19 Mockenhaupt M, et al. Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis: assessment of medication risks with emphasis on recently marketed drugs. The EuroSCAR-study. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2008 Jan;128(1):35-44. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 20 Roujeau JC, et al. Medication Use and the Risk of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome or Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;333:1600-1608. [NEJM Full Text](#)
- 21 Hill AB. The environment and disease: association or causation? *J R Soc Med*. 1965;58:295-300. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 22 Lehloenyia RJ, et al. Diagnostic patch testing following tuberculosis-associated cutaneous adverse drug reactions induces systemic reactions in HIV-infected persons. *Br J Dermatol*. 2016 Jul;175(1):150-6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Lochmatter P, Zawodniak A, Pichler WJ. In vitro tests in drug hypersensitivity diagnosis. *Immunol Allergy Clin North Am*. 2009 Aug;29(3):537-54. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Pavlos R, et al. Fever, rash, and systemic symptoms: understanding the role of virus and HLA in severe cutaneous drug allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract* 2014 Jan-Feb;2(1):21-33. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Saag M, et al. High Sensitivity of Human Leukocyte Antigen-B\*5701 as a Marker for Immunologically Confirmed Abacavir Hypersensitivity in White and Black Patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008 Apr;46(7):1111-1118. [Journal Full Text](#)
- 26 Phillips EJ, et al. Clinical and immunogenetic correlates of abacavir hypersensitivity. *AIDS* 2005 Jun 10;19(9):979-81. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 27 Mallal S, et al. HLA-B\*5701 Screening for Hypersensitivity to Abacavir. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Feb 7;358(6):568-79. [NEJM Full Text](#)
- 28 Waton J, et al. Negative predictive value of drug skin tests in investigating cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Br J Dermatol* 2009 Apr;160(4):786-94. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 29 Lin YT, et al. A patch testing and cross-sensitivity study of carbamazepine-induced severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2012 Jan 3;27(3):356-364. [Europe PMC Abstract](#)
- 30 Barbaud A, et al. A multicentre study to determine the value and safety of drug patch tests for the three main classes of severe cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Br J Dermatol*. 2013 Mar;168(3):555-62. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 31 Rive CM, Bourke J, Phillips EJ. Testing for Drug Hypersensitivity Syndromes. *Clin Biochem Rev*. 2013 Feb;34(1):15-38. [PubMed Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 32 Keane NM, et al. HLA Class I restricted CD8+ and Class II restricted CD4+ T cells are implicated in the pathogenesis of nevirapine hypersensitivity. *AIDS* 2014 Aug 24;28(13):1891-1901. [AIDS Abstract](#)
- 33 [FDA BEST \(Biomarkers, EndpointS, and other Tools\) Resource 2016](#)
- 34 Krueger et al. Cutaneous Adverse Events in the Randomized, Double-Blind, Active-Comparator DECIDE Study of Daclizumab High-Yield Process Versus Intramuscular Interferon Beta-1a in Relapsing Remitting Multiple Sclerosis. *Adv Ther*. 2016; 33(7):1231–1245 [PubMed Abstract and Full Text](#)

## CHAPTER 6.

### PRE-AUTHORIZATION SAFETY DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

#### Chapter summary

This chapter provides guidance to investigators about the information to be collected during the initial assessment of a potential SCAR. The chapter also addresses the risk factors associated with the development of SCAR and contains an overview of differential diagnoses that may act as confounding factors when analysing a SCAR.

Subsections contained in this chapter:

- Investigator assessment,
- Risk factors and confounding factors

#### Conclusions or recommendations

When appropriate assessment of a SCAR during clinical development has been conducted, communicating the SCAR to various stakeholders in the clinical trials is important. Timely awareness by stakeholders, including study participants, investigators and regulatory authorities, is necessary to allow prompt identification of these events and rapid intervention, thereby ensuring patient safety. Additionally, sponsors of a clinical trial where a SCAR has been reported may consider implementing protocol changes to allow for continued monitoring and additional characterization of a potential SCAR.

#### 6.1 Introduction

Timely recognition of a potential SCAR case by investigators is of utmost importance for patients' safety and assessing the impact of such a reaction on the clinical programme. Initial steps in this assessment require the acquisition of detailed information about the suspected AE that could suggest and confirm a SCAR diagnosis.

#### 6.2 Investigator assessment

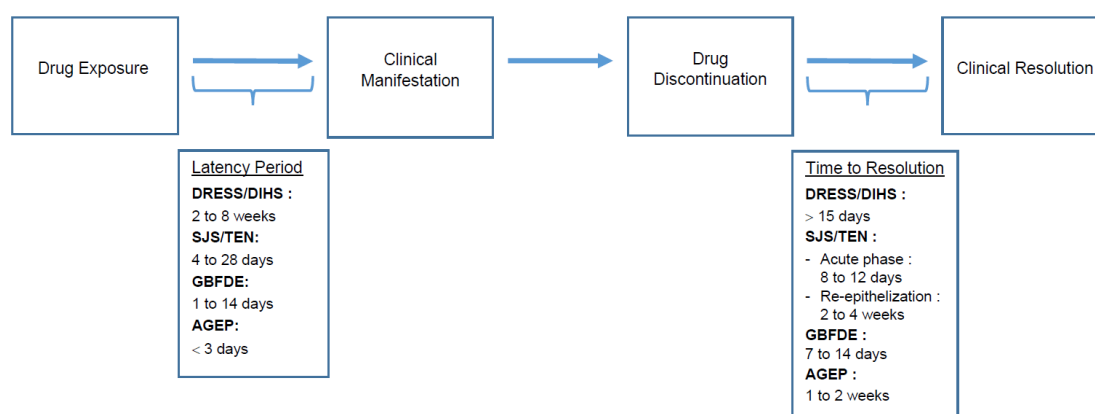
SCAR needs to be promptly recognized because of the associated high morbidity and mortality as well as the potential impact on a clinical programme. A clinical trial participant presenting with a widespread rash temporally associated with a potential culprit medicinal product should trigger an evaluation of a possible SCAR case (SJS, TEN, DRESS/DIHS, AGEP or GBFDE).

Clinical trials whose patient population include high-risk patients for the occurrence of SCAR (e.g. HIV-infected patients, oncology patients, patients with SLE)[1] and/or exposure to medicinal products (either as an investigational medicinal product or concomitant medication) with a known risk of inducing SCAR (e.g. aromatic anticonvulsants, allopurinol, antiretrovirals, oxycams) should lead the sponsor and investigators to consider the occurrence of possible SCAR. Additionally, investigators overseeing clinical trials whose population is comprised of elderly patients should keep in mind that prompt diagnosis is of utmost importance, since higher mortality rates and clinical complications are more frequently observed in older patients.[2-4]



When a SCAR is suspected, the first measure should be to interrupt the treatment with the alleged culprit medicinal product. An assessment of the likelihood that the investigational medicinal product is implicated is required, taking into consideration two main points, namely the information that is available on other medicinal products within the same class and that elicit similar reactions, and time to onset of the reaction.

Additionally, all concomitant medications need to be evaluated and, once a particular SCAR diagnosis is suspected (e.g. DRESS, SJS/TEN), the typical latency period should be compared with the time elapsed since last exposure to the suspected medicinal product.(Figure 7.)



**Figure 7. The SCAR timeline**

References:[5-24]

The pattern of skin involvement and accompanying signs/symptoms can suggest SCAR and certain characteristics might suggest a particular diagnosis. SJS/TEN may present with blisters, skin detachment, exfoliation, positive Nikolsky's sign, oral and genital mucosa involvement, as well as eye involvement (e.g. corneal ulcers, conjunctivitis). The occurrence of a prodromal period is common with SJS/TEN, usually preceding skin manifestations by three days and presenting with fever, myalgia, arthralgia, malaise, photophobia or conjunctival itching or burning.

In DRESS/DIHS, fever, facial oedema and lymph node enlargement are typically present. In addition, a long latency period is typically observed (2-8 weeks) and the clinical resolution usually follows a protracted course (>15 days).[6,7] In a clinical trial setting, a patient with characteristic lesions and systemic symptoms should be evaluated for exposures to new medicinal products, recent dosage changes or use of known high-risk medicinal products, which occurred 2-8 weeks prior to the onset of lesions or systemic symptoms. The investigational medicinal product should also be assessed for a possible contributive role. It is noteworthy to mention that several recently developed medicinal products have been reported as DRESS/DIHS syndrome culprits, such as anti-hepatitis C virus agents (boceprevir and telaprevir), targeted therapies for oncological diseases (sorafenib, vismodegib and vemurafenib), rivaroxaban and febuxostat.[7] The diagnosis of DRESS/DIHS should be guided by a scoring system, such as RegiSCAR and J-SCAR,[6,8] to the extent that clinical and laboratory information is available.

2235 FDE is characterized by the occurrence of erythematous macules/plaques, residual  
 2236 hyperpigmentation, and a history of recurring lesions in the same affected area, after  
 2237 exposure to various medicinal products (NSAIDs, paracetamol/acetaminophen, antibiotics).  
 2238 GBFDE is a rare and more severe form of FDE, presenting with blisters and is clinically  
 2239 similar in appearance to SJS/TEN. The absence of constitutional symptom and internal  
 2240 organ involvement, presence of well-demarcated blisters and erythematous patches,  
 2241 absence or paucity of mucosal erosions, a history of similar eruptions and onset within hours  
 2242 of exposure to the associated medicinal product favour a GBFDE diagnosis.[4]

2243 In a 2013 study, Lipowicz et al. compared GBFDE cases with SJS/TEN cases and found that  
 2244 although the majority of patients with GBFDE had skin detachment of less than 10% of BSA  
 2245 (30/58 patients), the mortality rate was significant and comparable to SJS/TEN (22% versus  
 2246 28%).

2247 The most characteristic feature of AGEP is the presence of widespread sterile pustules, with  
 2248 an initial predilection for flexural areas and subsequent spread to trunk and limbs. Systemic  
 2249 manifestations and laboratory abnormalities can also occur, such as fever, leukocytosis,  
 2250 neutrophilia and eosinophilia,[9] as well as mucous membrane involvement in about 20% of  
 2251 the cases (typically limited to oral mucosa).[10] A rapid onset (hours to a few days) after  
 2252 medicinal product exposure is also observed and can help differentiate from other SCAR.

2253 In all potential SCAR, because appropriate diagnosis considers clinical, histopathologic and  
 2254 laboratory features, a specialist in the management of medicinal product-induced cutaneous  
 2255 lesions should be consulted, such as a dermatologist, allergist or other subject matter expert.  
 2256 A skin biopsy for histopathologic examination may provide useful information for the  
 2257 assessment of the event as well as key information to help distinguish between different  
 2258 SCAR entities (e.g. SJS/TEN versus GBFDE) and other conditions in the SCAR differential  
 2259 (e.g. autoimmune blistering diseases).[11]

2260 Table 7 provides recommended information to be collected by the investigator in case a  
 2261 SCAR diagnosis is suspected. This information may help to confirm the diagnosis and inform  
 2262 causality assessment.

Medicinal product characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Published evidence including notoriety for the known medicinal product: e.g. aromatic anticonvulsants, sulfonamides, oxicam NSAIDs</li> <li>- For medicinal products under investigation, potential pharmacodynamic interactions such as chemical structure, metabolites or mechanisms of action should be considered</li> </ul>
Patient characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Demographics: age, gender, genetic background</li> <li>- Patients with HIV infection, malignancies, SLE or other autoimmune diseases, transplant patients.</li> <li>- Genetic risk factors: presence of medicinal product-specific HLA risk alleles and known exposure to certain agents (e.g. DIHS/DRESS/SJS/TEN induced by dapsone and <i>HLA-B*13:01</i>[12], SJS/TEN induced by carbamazepine and <i>HLA-B*15:02</i>[12], DIHS/DRESS/SJS/TEN induced by allopurinol and <i>HLA-B*58:01</i>[12])</li> </ul>
Skin involvement characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Time to onset of cutaneous lesion</li> <li>- Time to resolution of the event, if reaction is resolved</li> <li>- Description of rash, distribution, location and morphology of cutaneous lesions (e.g. presence of papules, macular papules, exanthema, pustules, urticaria, blisters, bullae, exfoliation, oedematous plaques, hyperpigmentation, target-like lesions, positive Nikolsky's sign)</li> <li>- Approximate body surface area affected: &lt;10%, 10-30%, &gt;30%</li> <li>- History of recurring skin lesions at the same site (GBFDE)</li> <li>- Biopsy and immunofluorescence results, if available</li> <li>- Patch testing, prick testing, lymphocyte stimulation testing, immunophenotyping or HLA genotyping, if available</li> </ul>

Presence of accompanying and/or preceding signs and symptoms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Presence of oral or genital mucosa involvement</li> <li>- Fever (body temperature &gt;38 °C)</li> <li>- Other constitutional signs/symptoms: fatigue, arthralgia</li> <li>- Enlarged lymph nodes (DRESS/DHS)</li> <li>- Facial oedema (DRESS/DIHS)</li> <li>- Eye involvement (conjunctivitis, corneal ulcer), (SJS/TEN)</li> </ul>
Presence of Accompanying Laboratory Abnormalities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Leukocytosis</li> <li>- Lymphocytosis</li> <li>- Lymphopenia</li> <li>- Presence of atypical lymphocytes (DRESS/DIHS)</li> <li>- Eosinophilia</li> <li>- Thrombocytopenia (DRESS/DIHS)</li> <li>- Evidence of internal organ involvement (DRESS/DIHS): AST and/or ALT increase, creatinine increase, proteinuria, haematuria, decreased creatinine clearance, cardiac enzymes elevation, amylase and/or lipase increase.</li> <li>- Evidence of reactivation of herpes viruses (HHV6 - DRESS/DIHS)</li> </ul>

**Table 7. Potential SCAR initial assessment in the clinical trial setting**

## **6.3 Risk factors and confounding factors**

### **6.3.1 Risk factors**

The process for monitoring and identifying potential SCAR cases during preauthorization clinical development and postauthorization depends on the predilection of the medicinal product association with SCAR. The following paragraphs will briefly cover several risk factors that should be considered: patient population (age, comorbidities, genetic background), pharmacology (class and target) of the medicinal product, and pharmacogenomics, when assessing the risk for SCAR in a clinical programme.

#### Patient population

Patient population characteristics including age, comorbidities and genetic background must be considered when determining SCAR risk for the patient and/or patient population. It is uncommon for SJS/TEN to occur in children less than two years of age[13]. Singh et al. published a retrospective study[14] evaluating EHRs of a tertiary hospital in Northern India, in which the majority of SCAR occurred in the older age group (41-65 years old).

Replotting the data (Table 6) shows that approximately 50% (42-59%) of each SCAR (SJS/TEN, DRESS and AGEP) and exfoliative dermatitis (ExDerm) occurred in the 41–65 year old age group and that the youngest age group (0-18 years old) consistently represented the lowest proportion for each SCAR.

In addition to the age of the individual, comorbidities are important risk factors for SCAR. SCAR tend to be more common in immunocompromised patients such as individuals with HIV infection, as well as individuals with malignancy or hepatic disease.[15,16] To understand the comorbidity impact on SCAR risk, Table 7 replots the data from Singh et al. Acute infections were found to be the most common comorbidities for SJS/TEN and DRESS, while seizure disorder and diabetes were the most common comorbidities for AGEP and ExDerm.

Specific genetic associations and HLA alleles may be over or under expressed in different patient populations (Table 8).[9] The linkage between abacavir hypersensitivity and *HLA B\*57:01* is an example that illustrates how over assignment of the clinical syndrome and low allele frequency in certain population groups can wrongly lead to the assumption that a HLA association to a particular drug hypersensitivity is restricted to race.[9,17] A case-control study was able to demonstrate the 100% sensitivity of *HLA-B\*57:01* as a marker for immunologically confirmed abacavir hypersensitivity, in both US white and black patients, demonstrating the clinical utility of allele screening that is generalizable across races.[18]

2296 Pharmacology

2297 The most common compound classes that induce SCAR include antibiotics, anticonvulsants,  
2298 analgesics, antituberculosis agents, antiretroviral and herbal agents.[19,20] In addition to the  
2299 compound classes listed above, immune-modulatory targets and/or modalities may induce  
2300 SCAR.[21,22]

2301 Pharmacogenomics

2302 Associations between SCAR and specific class I and class II HLA alleles are medicinal product-  
2303 specific and can vary across different populations.(Table 8)[9-25] A comprehensive review of  
2304 pharmacogenomic markers in SCAR has recently been published.[24] Currently, there is no  
2305 specific pharmacogenomic marker or panel that will indicate a higher risk of SCAR for an  
2306 investigational new medicinal product or recently authorized product, but the literature  
2307 highlights[25,26,27] the importance of pharmacogenomics in determining SCAR risk factors in the  
2308 postauthorization phase.

age	Percentage of SCAR condition (modified from Singh et al.)			
	SJS-TEN	DReSS	ExDerm	AGEP
0 - 18	17	14	15	23
19 - 40	32	36	26	35
41 - 65	51	50	59	42
Total	100	100	100	100

**Table 8. Age distribution for SCAR**

Adapted from Singh et al.[14]

Permission obtained from John Wiley & Sons

Comorbidities	Percentage per SCAR (modified from Singh et al.)			
	SJS-TEN	DRESS	ExDerm	AGEP
Seizure disorder	23	8	28	30
Diabetes mellitus	9	8	22	30
Connective tissue disorder	8	13	17	20
Malignancy	8	8	0	0
Cardiac disease	6	4	0	10
Acute infection	37	50	22	0
HIV	8	8	6	0
TB	2	0	6	10

**Table 9. Comorbid medical conditions at the time of SCAR diagnosis**

Adapted from Singh et al.[14]

Permission obtained from John Wiley & Sons

Drug and Clinical Presentation	HLA Allele	Population
Abacavir Hypersensitivity Syndrome	<i>B*57:01</i>	5-8% White <1% African <1% Asian
Allopurinol SJS/TEN and DRESS/DIHS	<i>B*58:01</i>	9-11% Han Chinese 1-6% White
Carbamazepine SJS/TEN	<i>B*15:02</i>	10-15% Han Chinese <0.1% White
Carbamazepine DRESS	<i>A*31:01</i>	Chinese Europeans Japanese

**Table 10. Key HLA associations with SCAR**

Adapted from Peter et al.[9]

Permission obtained from Elsevier

## 2321 6.3.2 Confounding factors

2322 Clinical entities that mimic SCAR manifestations and are considered differential diagnoses  
2323 include infections, autoimmune disorders and haematologic malignancies. Cutaneous  
2324 eruptions that are due to an underlying disease (e.g. haematologic malignancies presenting  
2325 with skin changes, autoimmune disease flares) may initially manifest with extensive skin  
2326 involvement. Such eruptions need to be considered and ruled out as required.

2327 On an individual level, there may be additional confounding factors and one must be aware  
2328 that in clinical trials these factors might impact the study outcome if not addressed properly.  
2329 To illustrate the importance of excluding possible confounding factors, RegiSCAR, a scoring  
2330 system for the diagnosis of DRESS, has a criterion for the evaluation of other potential  
2331 causes ([Chapter 1.4.2.3 Clinical characteristics](#)). If three of the following tests are performed  
2332 and negative, one additional point is added to the patient's total score, in favour of DRESS:  
2333 hepatitis A virus, hepatitis B virus, hepatitis C virus, mycoplasma, chlamydia, antinuclear  
2334 antibody, blood culture.

### 2335 6.3.2.1 Skin manifestations of the underlying disease

2336 Paraneoplastic erythroderma (PE) is described in association with haematologic  
2337 malignancies, such as acute myeloid lymphoma and solid tumours (e.g. lung, prostate,  
2338 thyroid, liver, ovaries, breast). Hence, an acute onset of erythroderma in oncology patients  
2339 might be solely related to the underlying disease. PE can manifest as generalized erythema  
2340 (>90% of BSA), scaling, with or without lymphadenopathy. According to Curth's postulates,  
2341 which are criteria used to identify a relationship between an internal malignancy and a  
2342 cutaneous disorder, the malignancy and the skin disease run a parallel course. Successful  
2343 treatment of the tumour leads to regression of the skin disease and, conversely, recurrence  
2344 of the tumour leads to the return of cutaneous signs and symptoms.[28]

2345 Leukaemia cutis is characterized by the infiltration of leukaemic cells into the epidermis,  
2346 dermis or subcutaneous tissue. It may precede, follow, or occur concomitantly with systemic  
2347 leukaemia in 2.1- 30% of patients.[29] Typical manifestations include macules, papules,  
2348 plaques, nodules, ulcers and blisters, but an erythrodermic form has been described in a  
2349 patient with newly diagnosed acute myeloid leukaemia shortly after induction  
2350 chemotherapy.[30]

2351 Patients with HIV infection are prone to syndromes manifesting with fever and rash due to  
2352 the disease itself, infections or ADRs. Importantly, immune reconstitution inflammatory  
2353 syndrome (IRIS) is an entity linked to the introduction of antiretroviral therapy (ART). IRIS  
2354 occurs in 10- 25% of patients who start highly active ART and is dependent on factors such  
2355 as low baseline CD4 cell count.[31] A study with 423 ART-naïve patients with HIV infection  
2356 found a median IRIS onset of 48 days.[32] IRIS-related cutaneous manifestations might  
2357 have several presentations, depending on the eliciting agent and whether it is linked to an  
2358 opportunistic infection. One example of a dermatological manifestation of IRIS is eosinophilic  
2359 folliculitis, which can present with pruritic, erythematous papules or pustules, leukocytosis,  
2360 eosinophilia and mimic AGEP.[33,34] Cutaneous leishmaniasis has also been described in  
2361 the context of IRIS, with disseminated erythematous papules, oral and genital mucosa  
2362 ulcers.[35]

### 2363 6.3.2.2 Infections

2364 Numerous infectious entities can present with clinical manifestations undistinguishable from  
2365 SCAR and this can lead to a delayed interruption of the offending agent and possible  
2366 introduction of ineffective treatments. For DRESS/DIHS, due to concomitant fever and  
2367 lymphadenopathy, viral diseases such as infectious mononucleosis, parvovirus B19  
2368 infection, Coxsackie infection, measles, dengue and viral hepatitis,[7,8] belong to the list of  
2369 differential diagnoses to be considered. A retrospective analysis conducted in 2013 found  
2370 that half of the patients with DRESS were initially diagnosed with infection (13/26 patients),  
2371 which resulted in unnecessary treatment with antibiotics. It is worth mentioning that a rash  
2372 occurring in the setting of infectious mononucleosis and concomitant treatment with a  
2373 penicillin-derived agent (e.g. ampicillin, amoxicillin) is not uncommon and may represent a  
2374 transient virus-mediated immune alteration.[36]

2375 AGEP presents with a combination of fever, leukocytosis and pustules, which can be easily  
2376 confused with an acute infectious event. Pustulosis acuta generalisata is a differential  
2377 diagnosis to be considered, usually occurring in children (although reported in adults as  
2378 well) following a streptococcal infection.[10,37] Similarly, Staphylococcal scalded skin  
2379 syndrome (SSSS) or Ritter disease is another possible differential diagnosis of infectious  
2380 etiology for SJS/TEN and AGEP, more frequently seen in children and in adults with  
2381 immunosuppression. It results from an infection with exotoxin-producing strains of  
2382 Staphylococcal aureus (possible primary sources: impetigo, conjunctivitis, pharyngitis, otitis,  
2383 wound infection) and presents with desquamation, blistering and constitutional symptoms,  
2384 in the absence of mucosal involvement.[38]

### 2385 6.3.2.3 Autoimmunity

2386 Acute cutaneous lupus erythematosus (ACLE) may manifest as an acute onset of  
2387 generalized rash in sun-exposed areas and since it is frequently associated with SLE,  
2388 systemic manifestations and laboratory abnormalities can also be found. A severe subtype  
2389 of ACLE, TEN-like ACLE, has been described, presenting with bullous lesions and epidermal  
2390 detachment.[39,40] Characteristic histopathologic features and presence of elevated  
2391 antinuclear antibody titres and positive anti-dsDNA antibodies can help distinguishing ACLE  
2392 from SCAR.[41-43]

2393 A specific form of subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus (SCLE), drug-induced (DI-  
2394 SCLE), may also have a clinical presentation that can mimic SCAR. It can arise within weeks  
2395 to years of medicinal product exposure, with a median latency of six weeks.[41] The most  
2396 commonly implied drugs are thiazides, terbinafine, calcium channel blockers, angiotensin-  
2397 converting enzyme inhibitors and TNF-inhibitors.[41] DI-SCLE has also been reported to  
2398 occur in patients with prior diagnosis of SLE[44] and can be associated with Ro/SSA  
2399 autoantibodies in > 80% of patients. Histopathology shows lupus erythematosus-specific  
2400 changes and the SCLE lesions may last for weeks to months.[41]

2401 Another autoimmune entity worth highlighting in this section is a subtype of pustular  
2402 psoriasis: acute generalized pustular psoriasis (AGPP), also known as generalized pustular  
2403 psoriasis of von Zumbusch. Medicinal product administration (e.g. lithium, progesterone,  
2404 phenylbutazone, antimalarials, fluoxetine, ustekinumab, infliximab, adalimumab and  
2405 apremilast), medicinal product withdrawal (e.g. systemic corticosteroids) and infections (e.g.  
2406 upper respiratory tract infection) can be precipitating factors for AGPP.[45]



2407 Its clinical presentation resembles AGEP, with a sudden appearance of widespread sterile  
 2408 pustules on painful plaques/erythema and systemic symptoms (fever, malaise, arthralgia).  
 2409 Similar to AGEP, mucosal involvement can occur, but factors such as history of prior  
 2410 episodes, personal or family history of psoriasis and presence of arthritis contribute to an  
 2411 AGEP diagnosis.

### 2412 **6.3.2.4 Peripheral T-cell lymphomas**

2413 Angio-immunoblastic T-cell lymphoma, a mature peripheral T-cell lymphoma, can exhibit a  
 2414 similar clinical presentation to DRESS, with widespread rash, lymphadenopathy, peripheral  
 2415 eosinophilia, atypical lymphocytosis and other internal organ involvement.[46] The occurrence  
 2416 of B-symptoms (fever, malaise and weight loss)[47] prior to the onset of rash can be a clue for  
 2417 the diagnosis and is present in 55-77% of patients, as well as hepatosplenomegaly.[48]  
 2418 Histopathological examination of the skin might not be conclusive for the diagnosis and a  
 2419 lymph node biopsy might be required. Sézary syndrome, an aggressive type of cutaneous T-  
 2420 cell lymphoma, typically presents with erythroderma, pruritus and generalized  
 2421 lymphadenopathy, and can resemble DRESS. Peripheral blood findings such as circulating  
 2422 leukaemic “Sézary cells” (atypical mononuclear cells) and skin biopsy findings can help in the  
 2423 distinction. A patient diagnosed with DRESS with persistent cutaneous alterations and/or  
 2424 constitutional symptoms beyond the expected time for clinical resolution, should prompt the  
 2425 investigator to consider peripheral T-cell lymphomas as possible diagnoses.

2426

2427

2428

2429

2430

### 2431 **References**

- 1 Mittman et al. Incidence of toxic epidermal necrolysis and Stevens-Johnson Syndrome in an HIV cohort: an observational, retrospective case series study. *Am J Clin Dermatol*. 2012 Feb 1;13(1):49-54. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Ezaldein et al. The effect of comorbidities on overall mortality in Stevens-Johnson Syndrome: an analysis of the Nationwide Inpatient Sample. *Dermatol Online J*. 2017 Apr 15;23(4). [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 3 Bastuji-Garin A, et al. SCORTEN. A Severity-of-Illness Score for Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2000 Aug;115(2):149-53. [J Invest Dermatol Full Text](#)
- 4 Lipowicz S, et al. Prognosis of generalized bullous fixed drug eruption: comparison with Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *Br J Dermatol*. 2013 Apr; 168(4):726-732. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 5 Aniemi DT, et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis: clinical characteristics, etiologic associations, treatments, and outcomes in a series of 28 patients at Mayo Clinic, 1996-2013. *Int J Dermatol*. 2017 Apr;56(4):405-414. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 6 Kardaun SH, et al. Variability in the clinical pattern of cutaneous side-effects of drugs with systemic symptoms: does a DRESS syndrome really exist? *Br J Dermatol*. 2007 Mar;156(3):609-11. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Chu C-Y et al. Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS): An Interplay among Drugs, Viruses, and Immune System. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2017 Jun;18(6): 1243. [Int J Mol Sci Full Text](#)
- 8 Shiohara T et al. The diagnosis of a DRESS syndrome has been sufficiently established on the basis of typical clinical features and viral reactivations. *Br J Dermatol*. 2007 May 1;156(5):1083-4. [Br J Dermatol Full Text](#)
- 9 Peter J et al. Severe Delayed Cutaneous and Systemic Reactions to Drugs: A Global Perspective on the Science and Art of Current Practice. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. May-Jun 2017;5(3):547-563. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 Sidoroff et al. Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) – a clinical reaction pattern. *J Cutan Pathol*. 2001 Mar;28(3):113-9. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 11 Chu C Y et al. Generalized bullous fixed drug eruption is distinct from Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis by immunohistopathological features. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2014 Mar;70(3):539-48. [Science Direct Abstract](#)
- 12 Hama N, et al. Drug-Induced Hypersensitivity Syndrome (DIHS)/Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS): Clinical Features and Pathogenesis. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. 2022 Feb 14;10(5):1155-1167. [JACI in Practice Full Text](#)
- 13 Paulmann M, Mockenhaupt M. Fever in Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis in Pediatric Cases: Laboratory Work-up and Antibiotic Therapy. *Pediatr Infect Dis J*. 2017 May;36(5):513–515. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Singh GK, et al. A retrospective, 5-year, clinicoepidemiological study of severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCARs). *Int J Dermatol*. 2021 May;60(5):579-588. [PubMed Abstract](#)



- 15 Peter J, Choshi P, Lehloeny R. Drug hypersensitivity in HIV infection, *Curr Opin Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2019 Aug; 19(4): 272–282. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 16 Sekula P, et al. Comprehensive survival analysis of a cohort of patients with Stevens–Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis. *J. Invest. Dermatol*. 2013 May;133 (5):1197–204. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 17 Pavlos R, Mallal S, Philips E. HLA and pharmacogenetics of drug hypersensitivity. *Pharmacogenomics*. 2012 Aug;13(11):1285-306. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 18 Saag M, et al. High sensitivity of human leukocyte antigen-b\*5701 as a marker for immunologically confirmed abacavir hypersensitivity in white and black patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2008 Apr 1; 46(7) 1111-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 19 Roujeau JC, et al. Medication Use and the Risk of Stevens-Johnson Syndrome or Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis. *N Engl J Med*. 1995;333:1600-1608. [NEJM Full Text](#)
- 20 Mockenhaupt M. Epidemiology of cutaneous adverse drug reactions. *Allergol Select*. 2017 Aug 4;1(1):96-108. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 21 Chen C-B, et al. Severe cutaneous adverse reactions induced by targeted anticancer therapies and immunotherapies. *Cancer Manag Res*. 2018 May 17;10:1259–1273. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Gey A, et al. Severe cutaneous adverse reaction associated with vemurafenib: DRESS, AGEP or overlap reaction? *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2016 Jan;30(1):178-9. Abstract not available
- 23 Su SC, et al. Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions: The Pharmacogenomics from Research to Clinical Implementation. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2016 Nov 15;17(11):1890. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Ahmed AF, et al. Genetic Determinants in *HLA* and Cytochrome P450 Genes in the Risk of Aromatic Antiepileptic-Induced Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions. *J. Pers. Med*. 2021 May 7,11(5):383. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 25 Pavlos R, et al. Fever, rash and systemic symptoms: understanding the role of virus and HLA in severe cutaneous drug allergy. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. 2014 Jan-Feb; 2(1): 21–33. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 26 Dean L, et al., editors. Carbamazepine Therapy and *HLA* Genotype. In: *Medical Genetics Summaries* [Internet]. Bethesda (MD): National Center for Biotechnology Information (US); 2012. 2015 Oct 14 [updated 2018 Aug 1]. [PubMed Excerpt](#)
- 27 Mallal S, et al. HLA-B\*5701 screening for hypersensitivity to abacavir. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Feb 7;358(6):568-79. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 28 Thiers B, et al. Cutaneous Manifestations of Internal Malignancy. *CA Cancer J Clin*. Mar 2009;59(2):73-98 [ASC Journals Full Text](#)
- 29 Wagner G, et al. Leukemia cutis - epidemiology, clinical presentation, and differential diagnoses. *J Dtsch Dermatol Ges*. 2012 Jan;10(1):27-3 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 30 Donaldson M, et al. Rare case of leukemia cutis presenting as erythroderma in a patient with acute myeloid leukemia. *JAAD Case Rep*. 2019 Feb;5(2):121–123. [JAAD Case Reports](#)
- 31 Müller M, et al. Immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome in patients starting antiretroviral therapy for HIV infection: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Infect Dis*. 2010 Apr;10(4):251–61 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 32 Murdoch D, et al. Incidence and risk factors for the immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome in HIV patients in South Africa: a prospective study. *AIDS*. 2008 Mar 12;22(5):601-10. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 33 Huiras E, et al. Cutaneous manifestations of immune reconstitution inflammatory syndrome. *Curr Opin HIV AIDS*. 2008 Jul;3(4):453-60. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 34 Rajendran PM, et al. Eosinophilic folliculitis: before and after the introduction of antiretroviral therapy. *Arch Dermatol*. 2005 Oct;141(10):1227-31 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 35 Vergara MP, et al. Tegumentary Leishmaniasis as a Manifestation of Immune Reconstitution Inflammatory Syndrome in 2 Patients with AIDS. *J Infect Dis*. 2005 Nov 15;192(10):1819-22 [J Infect Dis Full Text](#)
- 36 Thompson DF, et al. Antibiotic-Induced Rash in Patients With Infectious Mononucleosis. *Ann Pharmacother*. 2017 Feb;51(2):154–162 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 37 Tabata N, et al. A Pediatric Case of Acute Generalized Pustular Eruption without Streptococcal Infection. *Case Rep Dermatol*. 2016 Jun 13;8(2):173–178 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 38 Leung A, et al. Staphylococcal-scalded skin syndrome: evaluation, diagnosis, and management. *World J Pediatr*. 2018 Apr;14(2):116-120 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 39 Cetin GY, et al. A case of toxic epidermal necrolysis-like skin lesions with systemic lupus erythematosus and review of the literature. 2013 Jul;22(8):839-46. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 40 Napolitano M, et al. Toxic epidermal necrolysis-like acute cutaneous lupus erythematosus successfully treated with a single dose of etanercept: report of three cases. *J Am Acad Dermatol*. 2013 Dec;69(6):e303-5. No abstract available
- 41 Grönhagen CM, et al. Subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus and its association with drugs: a population-based matched case–control study of 234 patients in Sweden. 2012 Aug;167(2):296-305. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 42 Lowe G, et al. A systematic review of drug-induced subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus. *Br. J. Dermatol*. 2011 Mar;164(3):465-72. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 43 Marzano AV, et al. Drug-induced subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus: evidence for differences from its idiopathic counterpart. *Br. J. Dermatol*. 2011 Aug;165(2):335-41. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 44 Keyes E, et al. Drug-induced subacute cutaneous lupus erythematosus in previously diagnosed systemic lupus erythematosus patients: A case series. *JAAD Case Rep*. 2021 Jun;12:18–21 [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 45 Choon SE, et al. Clinical Course and Characteristics of Generalized Pustular Psoriasis. *Am J Clin Dermatol*. 2022 Jan;23(Suppl 1):21-29. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 46 Mangana J, et al. Angioimmunoblastic T-Cell Lymphoma Mimicking Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS Syndrome). *Case Rep Dermatol*. 2017 Mar 21;9(1):74–79. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 47 NIH National Cancer Institute. B-Symptoms Terms and Properties. [NIH website](#)
- 48 Lunning M, et al. Angioimmunoblastic T-cell lymphoma: the many-faced lymphoma. *Blood*. 2017 Mar 2;129(9):1095–1102. [PubMed Abstract](#)

## CHAPTER 7.

### POSTAUTHORIZATION SAFETY DATA COLLECTION AND ASSESSMENT

#### Chapter summary

Sources for postauthorization surveillance include spontaneous AE reporting systems, EHRs and registries. Analysis of individual case safety reports (ICSRs) and aggregate safety reports are central to the identification of patterns that are suggestive of SCAR.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

- Postauthorization data sources provide valuable insight into the real-world occurrence of rare AEs such as SCAR.
- EHRs, designed for patient care and follow-up, may be used to confirm or reject true reports of SCAR and establish causality.
- SCAR--specific registries and networks bring together comprehensive elements and expertise needed to identify true SCAR and establish a causal relationship.

#### 7.1 Introduction

cADRs are amongst the most common AEs (2-3% of all AEs) reported throughout the lifecycle of medicinal products.[1,2] Since approximately 0.2-29.3% of patients with cADRs become severe and require hospitalization[3-7] it is essential to detect symptoms indicative of severity early during the process. While clinical trials offer precise data on the incidence (in the study population during the observation period of the trial) and severity of common AEs, the reports collected after authorization offer insights into the occurrence and nature of cADRs in the real-world setting. A close evaluation of preauthorization factors has shown that approximately 20% of safety issues leading to marketing withdrawals of a medicinal product or the addition of a boxed warning in its product labelling in the postauthorization phase were related to rare AEs such as serious skin and hypersensitivity reactions that are difficult to detect in preauthorization clinical trials.[8]

#### 7.2 Sources of data

International guidelines, in particular those issued by CIOMS and ICH, outline the sources and analytical approaches for data on AEs arising from the use of medicinal products in the general population.[9,10] Data sources for postauthorization surveillance include spontaneous reports, electronic health records (EHRs), registries, along with clinical trial data and preclinical data.

##### 7.2.1 Spontaneous Adverse Event reporting systems

Spontaneous reporting of AEs suspected to be an adverse reaction to a medicinal product is at the heart of postauthorization safety surveillance. Healthcare professionals and consumers spontaneously report AEs associated with an intervention, i.e. use of a medicinal product in an individual patient or consumer. The resulting ICSRs are designed to capture information that is relevant to the understanding of the AEs. ICSRs are submitted to the pharmaceutical company that is responsible for the medicinal product, and/or the applicable authority, in accordance with the spontaneous reporting system in that jurisdiction. Pharmaceutical companies are required to submit ICSRs to the regulatory authorities as per local regulation.

2476 In ICSRs, cADRs reported as serious, i.e. leading to or prolonging hospitalization or  
2477 disability/incapacity, or are of a life-threatening nature and/or associated with a fatal  
2478 outcome, or are otherwise medically serious[11], are specifically of interest in the detection  
2479 and confirmation of serious SCAR. Medical history, concurrent medication along with start  
2480 and stop dates, and the potential for skin/mucosal reactions (e.g. included in the label) are  
2481 routinely used for assessment of a potential causal relationship to the medicinal products.

2482 Key information for appropriate causality assessment include the percentage of BSA,  
2483 laboratory tests, timing and dose of suspected and/or concurrent medication as well as  
2484 personal and family medical history. Furthermore, follow-up with the reporter of the ICSRs  
2485 may be challenging and the source medical documents are rarely available. Often the AEs  
2486 are not reported in real time[12] and underreporting is a well-recognized phenomenon of  
2487 spontaneous reporting.[13] The aggregate data in large spontaneous reporting datasets are  
2488 monitored and analysed for early identification of safety signals, especially for rare  
2489 AEs.[14,15]

2490 The WHO's Vigibase (over 20 million ICSRs[16], the EMA's EudraVigilance data analysis  
2491 system (EVDAS – 14.5 million ICSRs[17] and the US FDA MedWatch program (US FDA AE  
2492 Reporting System – 2 million ICSRs/year[18] are monitored for events that are  
2493 disproportionately reported for a medicinal product.[12-20] Medicinal product-event pairs of  
2494 disproportionate reporting are reviewed to determine if there is a potential safety signal for  
2495 further investigation of causality and potential need for regulatory action.[21] Patterns of  
2496 spontaneous reporting in large datasets can be used to generate hypotheses on associations  
2497 with specific or class of medicinal products[21-25] and build models to predict factors such as  
2498 chemical structure[26] and/or molecular targets[27] linked to SCAR.

## 2499 **7.2.2 EHRs**

2500 EHRs contain detailed patient-level information collected by healthcare professionals for a  
2501 variety of reasons, e.g. billing and reimbursement, laboratory parameters or medications  
2502 prescribed for a specific event. In EHRs, the standard International Classification of  
2503 Diseases Clinical Modification (ICD-CM) coding systems is used to structure the relevant  
2504 information.[28] EHRs enable the study of common diseases, medicinal product response  
2505 (efficacy or adverse) phenotypes and the genetic profile for several diseases.[29,30]

2506 The ICD-CM-based phenotyping algorithms applied to large insurance claims datasets such  
2507 as US Kaiser Permanente and US FDA Sentinel Initiative and Medical Information Database  
2508 Network can also inform the clinical course of the disease through longitudinal  
2509 records[28,31], detection of rare AEs[32-37] and evaluation of safety signals with  
2510 characterization of emerging safety topics following medicinal product authorization.[38,39]

2511 The correct diagnosis of SCAR is clinically challenging and routinely hindered by the  
2512 circumstance of non-medicinal product related diseases such as EMM, being mistaken with  
2513 SJS/TEN particularly in children.[40] Algorithms that combine clinical expertise, specific ICD  
2514 codes, clinical course (including the duration of hospitalization) and number of medical  
2515 encounters together with biomedical analytics have been used to explore patients with a  
2516 high likelihood of rare AEs such as SJS/TEN.[41-45]

2517 In one study, the ICD-9 codes identified approximately 57 000 cases of potential SJS/TEN  
2518 among approximately 60 million patients in 12 US research units and managed care  
2519 organizations. The potential cases were further adjudicated by board-certified  
2520 dermatologists. Multivariate models were used to detect factors independently associated  
2521 with validated SJS/TEN case status.

2522 Length of hospitalization and application of new ICD codes specific to SJS/TEN increased  
2523 the likelihood of SJS/TEN case status. The positive predictive value (PPV) of ICD-9 codes  
2524 695.12-695.15 was 50% among hospitalized cases and of those hospitalized for three or  
2525 more days, the PPV ranged from 57-92%. These results provide some support via a  
2526 combination of search codes and search terms for identifying cases using EHR data.[41]

2527 A separate study demonstrated that the PPV for ICD codes specific to SJS/TEN was 29%.  
2528 The addition of medicinal product-specific ICD codes with SJS/TEN-specific or erythema  
2529 multiforme codes increased the PPV to 38% and maintained a 99.8% NPV for phenytoin-  
2530 related SJS/TEN.[46]

2531 These exploratory and mining algorithms along with their performance metrics (e.g. PPV and  
2532 NPV) rely on predetermined algorithm definition and selection criteria and need to adapt to  
2533 the evolving clinical definitions of SCAR.[47] Because SJS/TEN is a rare and severe  
2534 reaction, EHR-based algorithms should favour sensitivity over specificity (i.e. high NPV) with  
2535 reasonable PPV. Innovative methodology and technology such as Boolean logic, natural  
2536 language processing, and machine learning can be shown to produce reliable  
2537 algorithms.[47]

2538 Furthermore, innovative technological solutions can be used to leverage the unstructured  
2539 data (e.g. pictures, pathology records, clinical records including percentage of BSA and/or  
2540 mucosal involvements) included in EHRs. Natural language processing and artificial  
2541 intelligence offer the opportunity to automatically recognize and translate the unstructured  
2542 data into specific data points accessible by automated search algorithms. The technology  
2543 can also identify patterns to ascertain medicinal product causality particularly if multiple  
2544 medicinal products were initiated within a short time period.[46]

2545 **7.2.3 Registries and Networks**

2546 In general, registries refer to both programmes that collect and store data and the records  
2547 that are so created.[48] The National Committee on Vital and Health Statistics describes  
2548 registries as “an organized system for the collection, storage, retrieval, analysis, and  
2549 dissemination of information on individual persons who have either a particular disease, a  
2550 condition (e.g. a risk factor) that predisposes [them] to the occurrence of a health-related  
2551 event, or prior exposure to substances (or circumstances) known or suspected to cause  
2552 adverse health effects.”[49] Additionally, EMA describes patient registries as “organised  
2553 systems that use observational methods to collect uniform data on a population defined by a  
2554 particular disease, condition or exposure, and that is followed over time” that can help  
2555 monitor the safety of medicines.[50]

2556 The term patient registry is generally used to distinguish registries focused on health  
2557 information from other record sets. Other terms also used to refer to patient registries include  
2558 clinical registries, clinical data registries, disease registries and outcomes registries.[51,52]  
2559 Coordination between registries to create a network may aid in data collection harmonization  
2560 across different disease areas and interoperability between registries.[53] Registries include  
2561 extensive records of healthcare knowledge beyond specific effects of a medicinal product of  
2562 interest. The historical or contemporaneous control data included in the registries are  
2563 increasingly used to gain insight into the “real world” data.[54]

2564 Registries or registry studies may be required as part of marketing authorization for several  
2565 reasons:

- 2566 1) If the benefits, but more specifically the risks, are not completely understood at the  
2567 time of authorization,
- 2568 2) Address a specific concern about safety or efficacy,
- 2569 3) Generate postauthorization data in more extensive patient populations while providing  
2570 access in a restricted population.[55]

2571 Regulatory authorities may require “new registries” to be developed as well as the use of  
2572 existing disease registries to perform “registry studies”. [54] FDA and EMA have developed  
2573 detailed guidance for industry to address identified and potential safety concerns and how to  
2574 deal with missing data.[56,57]

2575 A retrospective review identified a total of 73 registries for the 116 new drugs – 46 disease  
2576 registries and 27 (exposure to a single) drug registries – approved by the Committee for  
2577 Medicinal Products for Human Use (CHMP) in the EU between January 1, 2007 and December  
2578 31, 2010. For nine drugs, the registry was a specific obligation imposed by the regulators. The  
2579 level of innovation and the orphan status of the drugs were determinants positively predicting  
2580 postauthorization registries (OR 10.3 [95% CI 1.0-103.9] and OR 2.8 [95% CI 1.0-7.5],  
2581 respectively).[58]

2582 Effective coordination of medical, surgical, behavioural and basic scientific disciplines is  
2583 required to efficiently reduce SCAR-related short- and long-term morbidity and mortality, and  
2584 advance clinical care and research. Professional networks bring together SJS/TEN  
2585 phenotype adjudication committees, centralized biological sample collection and repositories  
2586 in platforms to study the pathogenesis and predictors of SCAR. These networks are  
2587 leveraged to rigorously define criteria for clinical diagnosis, causality assessment, estimation  
2588 of risk factors and centralized sample collection to aid the study of the mechanisms and  
2589 search for treatment options.[46] Examples of registries and networks follow.

#### 2590 RegiSCAR

2591 RegiSCAR is a multinational SCAR registry which includes medicinal product and biological  
2592 samples aimed to reduce the medical and economic burden of SCAR on public health and to  
2593 improve the safety of medication use. The objectives of RegiSCAR are:

- 2594 1) build a European Registry of SCAR for continuous surveillance of new medicinal  
2595 products with adequate pharmaco-epidemiologic methodology and for providing  
2596 reference information on SCAR
- 2597 2) organize a centralized collection of biological samples (plasma, lymphocytes, DNA and  
2598 skin) to allow high quality studies on pharmacogenetics and investigations of the  
2599 mechanisms of these reactions
- 2600 3) constitute a cohort of patients in order to study the outcome, prognosis factors,  
2601 sequelae and impact on quality of life of these severe side effects of medicine.

2602 The RegiSCAR study includes all reports of SJS/TEN, AGEP and DRESS in patients  
2603 hospitalized in one of the institutions participating in the network in six countries. In each  
2604 country, a trained investigator interviews each case patient and collects information on  
2605 medication use in the eight weeks prior to disease onset, recent infections, demographic  
2606 information and relevant medical history in a standardized case record form. Each case  
2607 record is ascertained by an international group of experts by means of a strict validation  
2608 process.



2609 Skin biopsies (patients) and blood samples (patients and controls) are sent to a specialized  
2610 tissue bank for separation and conservation of plasma, lymphocytes and DNA. The data  
2611 registry provides estimates of the risks of medicinal products using case-control and case  
2612 cross-over analyses as well as linkage to databases on medicinal product utilization.  
2613 RegiSCAR also provides information on the outcome, allows the validation of prognosis  
2614 indexes and gives insights on the effect of treatments.

2615 Biological samples are used to determine the phenotype, functions and antigenic specificity  
2616 of lymphocytes isolated at the time of the reaction from the blood and skin of patients. In  
2617 addition the samples are used to study the susceptibility genes by an association study  
2618 directed first at candidate genes and second at the full genome by using 1000 single  
2619 nucleotide polymorphisms and determine the serum level of a variety of cytokines that may  
2620 have a prognostic value.[59]

2621 Australian Registry of Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions

2622 The Australian Registry of Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions (AUS-SCAR) is a  
2623 multidisciplinary collaboration utilizing a range of clinical, health services and translational  
2624 research methodologies to address the significant knowledge gaps in SCAR causality,  
2625 prevention, diagnosis and treatment. AUS-SCAR collects prospective clinical data (medicinal  
2626 product causality, treatments and outcomes) and bio-banked samples (DNA, blood and skin)  
2627 from patients at 15 participating Australian sites. The data is subsequently used to examine  
2628 SCAR epidemiology, causality, pharmacogenomic predictors and explore novel ex vivo/in  
2629 vitro diagnostics.[60]

2630 International Registry for Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis

2631 The International Registry for Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis (IRTEN) is an international,  
2632 observational web-based registry for prospective anonymized collection of clinical data and  
2633 biological samples in individuals suffering of SJS/TEN. The IRTEN data is used to enhance  
2634 the understanding of SJS/TEN including its epidemiology, clinical characteristics including  
2635 outcome, short- and long-term complications, real-time data concerning causative medicinal  
2636 products and therapy, with the ultimate aim of fostering improved patient care.[61]

2637 U.S. FDA Sentinel Initiative

2638 The Sentinel Initiative was launched in May 2008[62] in response to the FDA Amendments  
2639 Act of 2007. The Initiative is the largest multisite distributed database in the world dedicated  
2640 to marketed medical product safety. The Sentinel Operation Center leverages organizational  
2641 partnerships in the areas of epidemiology, clinical medicine, pharmacy, statistics, health  
2642 informatics, data sciences and network operations to support postauthorization safety  
2643 analyses.[62] An important aspect of Sentinel's active surveillance is to develop and  
2644 understand the validity of algorithms for identifying health outcomes of interest.[62]

2645 Society of Dermatology Hospitalists SJS/TEN Study Group

2646 The Society of Dermatology Hospitalists (SDH) is a collaborative research effort of 18  
2647 tertiary care centres. Retrospectively, SDH member institutions collected information on  
2648 SJS/TEN patients related to disease course, management and outcomes. The SDH  
2649 database includes 405 SJS/TEN cases in the United States between 2000 and 2015, with  
2650 most treated after 2010. In this cohort, 66% of patients met the definition criteria for TEN  
2651 (>30% BSA denuded) or SJS/TEN overlap (10–30% BSA denuded) at the time of admission.

At the time of admission, the severity of illness score for TEN (SCORTEN)[63] predicted mortality for the cohort to be 20%. Actual mortality of patients in the cohort was 13.7%, yielding a standardized mortality ratio of 0.69 (95% confidence intervals 0.57, 0.78). Medications accounted for 91.3% of cases, predominantly implicating trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (26%).[46]

Canadian Pharmacogenomics Network for Drug Safety

The Canadian Pharmacogenomics Network for Drug Safety (CPNDS) is pan-Canadian active surveillance network that compiles the detailed information collected by trained active surveillance clinicians. The CPNDS database includes detailed clinical information with 93 974 reports of medication use, including 10 475 reports of ADRs[64], which can be used to identify novel predictive genomic markers of severe ADRs in children and adults. The CPNDS was the first group to confirm the role of HLA markers for carbamazepine-related skin reactions in children.[65]

The CPNDS actively investigates both previously identified pharmacogenomic biomarkers and novel genomic variations associated with severe reactions. Collaboration with the EpiPGX Consortium has led to the identification of over 80 SCAR cases related to anticonvulsants. Additionally, the CPNDS has published clinical practice guidelines for carbamazepine-related ADRs[66] and collaborates with several consortia to update guidelines and develop pharmacogenomic panels for commercial use that include ADR pharmacogenomic markers.

International Consortium on Drug Hypersensitivity Network

The International Consortium on Drug Hypersensitivity (ITCH) network was established to recruit patients with SCAR and includes approximately 1500 phenotyped cases from 12 countries with associated genetic data.[67] The ITCH cohort has been used to identify medicinal product-specific genetic predisposing factors and genetic factors predisposing to SJS/TEN regardless of medicinal product etiology. GWASs conducted on 1260 SCAR cases in the cohort included quality control procedures (i.e. controlling for population stratification, imputation using the latest releases of genomic data and validation of imputed genetic variants).

The ITCH database includes 177 SJS/TEN cases from Caucasian patients from three ethnic groups: Spanish, Italian and Northern European. Evaluation of the 177 SJS/TEN cases identified an HLA-B allele that is associated with SJS/TEN irrespective of drug. This HLA-B allele is present at 0.02% of the general Caucasian population (n = 9237 not exposed to drug) but is found at 100-fold higher frequency among SJS/TEN cases.[68] Medicinal product-specific analysis of cases in the ITCH cohort have replicated HLA allele associations previously identified in other populations. In 13 European patients with allopurinol-related SCAR of whom nine had SJS, *HLA-B\*58:01* was identified at a genome-wide significance level with an odds ratio of 36.[68] While the association of *HLA-B\*58:01* with SJS was just below genome-wide significance in this population, the odds ratio was higher at 45,[68] which is consistent with previous data suggesting that *HLA-B\*58:01* is present in approximately 60% of allopurinol-related SJS/TEN patients of European ancestry.

Moreover, the ITCH network includes African recruitment sites. Evaluation of the African cohort has identified the association of *HLA-C\*04:01* with SJS/TEN secondary to nevirapine. Additional analysis of the interaction of *HLA-C\*04:01* with the endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase genes, which influence peptide processing, demonstrated that endoplasmic reticulum aminopeptidase 2 may have a protective effect.[69]

### 2698 **7.3 Assessing causality with postauthorization information**

2699 The causality assessment of a suspected ADR is an essential approach in  
2700 pharmacovigilance, as an attempt to investigate the association between the suspected ADR  
2701 and the use of a certain medicinal product. Safety information collected during the  
2702 postauthorization phase is one of the main sources for identifying SCAR because these  
2703 reactions are usually rare and therefore may only be recognized after a medicinal product  
2704 has been approved and used by a large number of patients.[70]

#### 2705 **7.3.1 Causality assessment for ICSRs**

2706 Given the rare occurrence but high risk of adverse sequelae including fatal outcomes of  
2707 SCAR, spontaneous reporting of suspected SCAR by healthcare professionals is key for the  
2708 assessment and management of SCAR risk in the postauthorization phase. Additionally,  
2709 applicable reporting systems including relevant case details permit a meaningful assessment  
2710 of SCAR subsequent to treatment with a particular medicinal product. (See also [Appendix 2](#)  
2711 [Examples of Targeted Follow Up Forms](#)). The determination of causality for ICSRs, in pre-  
2712 and postauthorization phases alike, refers mainly to medical assessment as well as the use  
2713 of defined algorithms (e.g. ALDEN score for SJS/TEN) ([Chapter 5.2.2.1 Algorithm of drug](#)  
2714 [causality for epidermal necrolysis](#)).

2715 There are different causality classifications available (e.g. WHO-UMC scale, Naranjo scale)  
2716 [71,72], but preferably it is simplified to a binary yes/no causality[73], also in line with  
2717 regulatory reporting requirements. However, to date there is no universally-accepted  
2718 causality assessment scale. When assessing medicinal product causality in a patient with  
2719 SCAR, several factors should be taken into consideration including SCAR type, day of  
2720 symptom onset ("index day"), medicinal product notoriety, time since medicinal product  
2721 intake and onset of reported event, dechallenge/rechallenge information, comorbidities,  
2722 concomitant medications, and plausible or biologic or pharmacologic explanation. In general,  
2723 for assessment of temporal relationship of medicinal product intake to event onset, i.e. five  
2724 times the elimination half-life ("rule of five") can be used. However, since elimination of a  
2725 medicinal product varies from person to person due to factors like age, weight, other  
2726 medications taken, as well as kidney function and/or liver function, the use of the elimination  
2727 half-life can only be an estimate of how long it may take for the medicinal product to be  
2728 removed from the body. Challenges for causality assessment especially in postauthorization  
2729 reporting are incomplete case information, use of multiple medicinal products and inter-  
2730 current or chronic underlying illness.



## 2731 7.3.2 Risk management planning and pharmacovigilance strategies

2732 With the potential for severe and life-threatening outcomes, additional risk management  
 2733 measures, in addition to routine risk minimization measures such as product labelling, may  
 2734 need to be implemented to prevent or reduce the severity of outcomes from SCAR. These  
 2735 risk minimization measures are discussed in Chapter 8.

2736

## 2737 References

- 1 Gruchalla R. Understanding drug allergies. *J Allergy Clin Immunol*. 2000 Jun;105(6 Pt 2):S637-644. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Revuz JR, Allanore LV. Drug Reaction. In: Bologna Jean L, Jorizzo Joseph L, Julie, et al. editors. *Dermatology*. 3rd ed. Elsevier; 2012. p. 335. [\[Google Scholar\]](#).
- 3 Ives TJ, Bentz EJ, Gwyther RE. Drug-Related Admissions to a Family Medicine Inpatient Service. *Arch Intern Med*. 1987;147(6):1117-1120. [JAMA Abstract](#)
- 4 Charli-Joseph Y, Cruz-Fuentes C, Orozco-Topete R. Incidence of adverse cutaneous drug reactions in a Mexican sample: an exploratory study on their association to tumour necrosis factor alpha TNF2 allele. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2009 Jul;23(7):788-792. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 5 Wolf R, Orion E, Marcos B, Matz H. Life-threatening acute adverse cutaneous drug reactions. *Clin Dermatol*. 2005 Mar-Apr;23(2):171-181. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 6 Alanko K, Stubb S, Kauppinen K. Cutaneous drug reactions: clinical types and causative agents. A five-year survey of in-patients (1981-1985). *Acta Derm Venereol*. 1989;69(3):223-6. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 7 Ives TJ, Bentz EJ, Gwyther RE. Dermatologic adverse drug reactions in a family medicine setting. *Arch Fam Med*. 1992 Nov;1(2):241-245. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 8 Schick A, et al. Evaluation of Pre-marketing Factors to Predict Post-marketing Boxed Warnings and Safety Withdrawals. *Drug Saf*. 2017 Jun;40(6):497-503. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 9 Hartford CG, et al. Pharmacovigilance during the pre-approval phases: an evolving pharmaceutical industry model in response to ICH E2E, CIOMS VI, FDA and EMEA/CHMP risk-management guidelines. *Drug Saf*. 2006;29(8):657-673. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 10 CIOMS. Practical Aspects of Signal Detection in Pharmacovigilance Report of CIOMS Working Group VIII, 2010. [Report](#)
- 11 ICH E2D. Post Approval Safety Data Management: Definitions and Standards for Expedited Reporting. 2003. [Guideline](#)
- 12 Brinker A, Beitz J. Use of a spontaneous adverse drug events database for identification of unanticipated drug benefits. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*. 2002 Jan;71(1):99-102. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 13 Hayashi PH, et al. Under-reporting and Poor Adherence to Monitoring Guidelines for Severe Cases of Isoniazid Hepatotoxicity. *Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol*. 2015 Sep;13(9):1676-82 e1. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 14 Raschi E, De Ponti F. Drug- and herb-induced liver injury: Progress, current challenges and emerging signals of post-marketing risk. *World J Hepatol*. 2015 Jul 8;7(13):1761-1771. [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 15 Goldkind L, Laine L. A systematic review of NSAIDs withdrawn from the market due to hepatotoxicity: lessons learned from the bromfenac experience. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*. 2006 Apr;15(4):213-220. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 16 Uppsala Monitoring Centre. Annual report. July 2019 -June 2020. [Annual Report](#)
- 17 European Medicines Agency. 2020 Annual Report on EudraVigilance for the European Parliament, the Council and the Commission (Reporting period: 1 January to 31 December 2020). [Annual Report](#)
- 18 FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS) Public Dashboard (Accessed January 2022). In: Administration UFD, editor. 2022. [FAERS Public Dashboard](#)
- 19 Brinker AD, et al. Profiling cumulative proportional reporting ratios of drug-induced liver injury in the FDA Adverse Event Reporting System (FAERS) database. *Drug Saf*. 2013 Dec;36(12):1169-1178. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 20 Woodcock J, Behrman RE, Dal Pan GJ. Role of postmarketing surveillance in contemporary medicine. *Annu Rev Med*. 2011;62:1-10. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 21 Shukla S, et al. Severe cutaneous adverse reactions in Asians: Trends observed in culprit anti-seizure medicines using VigiBase(R). *Seizure*. 2021 Oct;9(1):332-338. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 22 Motola D, et al. Safety profile of H1-antihistamines in pediatrics: an analysis based on data from VigiBase. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf*. 2017 Oct;26(10):1164-1171. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 23 Xu C, et al. Assessing carbamazepine and oxcarbazepine-associated Stevens-Johnson syndrome/toxic epidermal necrolysis: Data mining the public version of the FDA adverse event reporting system. *Int J Clin Pract*. 2021 Aug;75(8):e14273. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 24 Borrelli EP, et al. Stevens-Johnson Syndrome and Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis with Antiepileptic Drugs: An Analysis of the Food and Drug Administration Adverse Event Reporting System. *Epilepsia*. 2018 Dec;59(12):2318-2324. [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 25 Rosen AC, et al. Life-threatening dermatologic adverse events in oncology. *Anticancer Drugs*. 2014;25(2):225-234. [Northwestern Scholars Abstract](#)
- 26 Low YS, et al. Cheminformatics-aided pharmacovigilance: application to Stevens-Johnson Syndrome. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2016;23:968-978. [Europe PMC Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 27 Burkhart KK, Abernethy D, Jackson D. Data Mining FAERS to Analyze Molecular Targets of Drugs Highly Associated with Stevens-Johnson Syndrome. *J Med Toxicol*. 2015 Jun;11(2):265-273. [PubMed Abstract and Full Text](#)
- 28 Denny JC. Chapter 13: Mining Electronic Health Records in the Genomics Era. *PLoS Comput Biol* 2012 Dec;8(12):e1002823. [PubMed Full Text](#)
- 29 Denny JC, et al. Systematic comparison of phenome-wide association study of electronic medical record data and genome-wide association study data. *Nat Biotechnol*. 2013 Dec;31(12):1102-1110. [Northwestern Scholars Abstract](#)
- 30 Crawford DC, et al. eMERGEing progress in genomics-the first seven years. *Front Genet*. 2014;5(JUN):184. [Penn State Research Abstract](#)
- 31 Kho AN, et al. Electronic Medical Records for Genetic Research: Results of the eMERGE Consortium. *Sci Transl Med*. 2011 Apr 20;3(79):79re1. [PubMed Full Text](#)

32 Hanatani T, et al. A detection algorithm for drug-induced liver injury in medical information databases using the Japanese diagnostic scale and its comparison with the Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences/the Roussel Uclaf Causality Assessment Method scale. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2014 Sep;23(9):984-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

33 Overby CL, et al. A collaborative approach to developing an electronic health record phenotyping algorithm for drug-induced liver injury. *J Am Med Inform Assoc.* 2013 Dec;20(e2):e243-252. [PubMed Full Text](#)

34 Fukasawa T, et al. Risk of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis associated with anticonvulsants in a Japanese population: Matched case-control and cohort studies. *Allergol Int.* 2021 July;70(3):335-342. [ScienceDirect Abstract and Full Text](#)

35 Frey N, et al. The risk of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in new users of antiepileptic drugs. *Epilepsia.* 2017 Dec;58(12):2178-2185. [PubMed Abstract](#)

36 Mockenhaupt M, et al. Risk of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in new users of antiepileptics. *Neurology.* 2005 Apr;64(7):1134-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

37 Lebrun-Vignes B, et al. French Network of Regional Centres of P, the French Investigators for Adverse Skin Reactions to D. Is acetaminophen associated with a risk of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis? Analysis of the French Pharmacovigilance Database. *Br J Clin Pharmacol.* 2018 Feb;84(2):331-338. [PubMed Abstract](#)

38 Cheetham TC, et al. An automated causality assessment algorithm to detect drug-induced liver injury in electronic medical record data. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2014 Jun;23(6):601-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

39 Platt R, et al. The U.S. Food and Drug Administration's Mini-Sentinel program: status and direction. *Pharmacoepidemiol and Drug Saf.* 2012 Jan 19;21(51) Suppl 1:1-8. [PubMed Abstract](#)

40 Frey N, et al. Validation of Stevens-Johnson syndrome or toxic epidermal necrolysis diagnoses in the Clinical Practice Research Datalink. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2016 Nov 20;26(4):429-436. [Wiley Online Abstract](#)

41 Davis RL, et al. Identification of Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in electronic health record databases. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2015 Jul;24(7):684-92.

42 Fukasawa T, et al. Development of an electronic medical record-based algorithm to identify patients with Stevens-Johnson syndrome and toxic epidermal necrolysis in Japan. *PLoS One* 2019 Aug 13;14:e0221130. [PLoS One](#)

43 Denny JC, et al. Variants near FOXE1 are associated with hypothyroidism and other thyroid conditions: using electronic medical records for genome- and phenotype-wide studies. *Am J Hum Genet.* 2011 Oct 7;89(4):529-42. [PubMed Abstract](#)

44 Mosley JD, et al. A genome-wide association study identifies variants in *KCNIP4* associated with ACE inhibitor-induced cough. *Pharmacogenomics J.* 2016;16:231-237. [Journal Full Text](#)

45 Karnes JH, et al. A genome-wide association study of heparin-induced thrombocytopenia using an electronic medical record. *Thromb. Haemost.* 2015;113:772-781. [experts.arizona Abstract](#)

46 White KD, et al. SJS/TEN 2017: Building Multidisciplinary Networks to Drive Science and Translation. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract.* 2018 Jan-Feb;6(1):38-69. [PubMed Full Text](#)

47 Kirby JC, et al. PheKB: a catalog and workflow for creating electronic phenotype algorithms for transportability. *J Am Med Inform Assoc.* 2016 Nov;23(6):1046-1052. [PubMed Abstract](#)

48 Dictionary WsE. In: [Webster's English Dictionary](#).

49 Statistics NCVHS. [Frequently Asked Questions About Medical and Public Health Registries](#). In: NCVHS, editor.

50 EMA. Patient Registries. [Patient registries](#).

51 Dokholyan RS, et al. Regulatory and ethical considerations for linking clinical and administrative databases. *Am Heart J.* Jun 2009;157(6):971-982. [PubMed Abstract](#)

52 Hammill BG, et al. Linking inpatient clinical registry data to Medicare claims data using indirect identifiers. *Am Heart J.* 2009;157:995-1000. [PubMed Abstract](#)

53 EMA. Patient Registry Initiative – [Strategy and Mandate of the Cross-Committee Task Force. 5 May 2017](#).

54 Jonker CJ, et al. Drug Registries and Approval of Drugs: Promises, Placebo, or a Real Success? *Clin Ther.* 2018 May;40(5):768-773. [PubMed Abstract](#)

55 Eichler HG, et al. Adaptive licensing: taking the next step in the evolution of drug approval. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 2012 Mar;91(3):426-37. [PubMed Abstract](#)

56 FDA. [Guidance for Industry. Good Pharmacovigilance Practices and Pharmacoepidemiologic Assessment](#). In: US Department of Health and Human Services, editor; 2005.

57 EMA. [Guideline on good pharmacovigilance practices \(GVP\), module V – risk management systems \(Rev 2\). In. 2017](#).

58 Jonker CJ, et al. Registries supporting new drug applications. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2017 Dec;26(12):1451-1457. [PubMed Abstract](#)

59 RegiSCAR. [The RegiSCAR Project](#). In.

60 (AUS-SCAR) AROSCAR. In; 2019.

61 (IRTen) IRTen. In.

62 Schneider G, et al. A systematic review of validated methods for identifying erythema multiforme major/minor/not otherwise specified, Stevens-Johnson Syndrome, or toxic epidermal necrolysis using administrative and claims data. *Pharmacoepidemiol Drug Saf.* 2012 Jan;21 Suppl 1:236-9. doi: 10.1002/pds.2331. [PubMed Abstract](#)

63 Bastuji-Garin S, et al. SCORTEN: a severity-of-illness score for toxic epidermal necrolysis. *J Invest Dermatol.* 2000 Aug;115(2):149-153. [PubMed Abstract](#)

64 Tanoshima R, et al. Analyses of Adverse Drug Reactions-Nationwide Active Surveillance Network: Canadian Pharmacogenomics Network for Drug Safety Database. *J Clin Pharmacol.* 2019 Mar;59(3):356-363. [PubMed Abstract](#)

65 Amstutz U, et al. HLA-A\*31:01 and HLA-B\*15:02 as genetic markers for carbamazepine hypersensitivity in children. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2013;94:142-149. [PubMed Abstract](#)

66 Amstutz U, et al. Recommendations for HLA-B\*15:02 and HLA-A\*31:01 genetic testing to reduce the risk of carbamazepine-induced hypersensitivity reactions. *Epilepsia.* 2014 Apr;55(4):496-506. [PubMed Abstract](#)

67 Pirmohamed M, et al. Phenotype standardization for immune-mediated drug-induced skin injury. *Clin Pharmacol Ther.* 2011 Jun;89(6):896-901. [PubMed Abstract](#)

68 Yip VL, Pirmohamed M. The HLA-A\*31:01 allele: influence on carbamazepine treatment. *Pharmacogenomics Pers Med.* 2017 Jan 31;10:29-38. [PubMed Abstract](#)

69 Carr DF, et al. Genome-wide association study of nevirapine hypersensitivity in a sub-Saharan African HIV-infected population. *J Antimicrob Chemother.* 2017;72(4):1152-1162. ([Abstract](#) [Journal Full Text](#))

70 Demoly P, et al. International Consensus on drug allergy. *Allergy.* 2014 Apr;69(4):420-37. [PubMed Abstract](#)

71 Naranjo CA, et al. A method for estimating the probability of adverse drug reactions. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.* 1981 Aug;30(2):239-245. [Clin. Pharmacol. Ther. Abstract](#)

72 World Health Organization (WHO)-Uppsala Monitoring Centre. The use of the WHO-UMC system for standardized case causality assessment. Available from: <https://www.who.int/publications/m/item/WHO-causality-assessment>

2738

2739 **Additional references for sections 7.3.1 and 7.3.2**

- 2740 1) EMA Good pharmacovigilance practice (GVP) Module IX, Signal management (Rev 1), 9  
2741 October 2017 EMA/827661/2011
- 2742 2) Management of Safety Information from Clinical Trials, Report of CIOMS Working Group VI, 2005
- 2743 3) Wisniewski AFZ, et al. Good Signal Detection Practices: Evidence from IMI PROTECT. Drug Saf. 2016.
- 2744 4) EMA Good pharmacovigilance practice (GVP) Module VII, Periodic safety update report (Rev 1), 9  
2745 December 2013 EMA/816292/2011
- 2746 5) ICH guideline E2C (R2) Periodic benefit-risk evaluation report
- 2747 6) FDA white paper, Data Mining at FDA, 2018 ([https://www.fda.gov/science-research/data-mining/data-](https://www.fda.gov/science-research/data-mining/data-mining-fda-white)  
2748 [mining-fda-white](https://www.fda.gov/science-research/data-mining/data-mining-fda-white) paper)
- 2749 7) U.S. Food & Drug Administration. ICH guideline E2C (R2) on periodic benefit–risk evaluation report  
2750 (PBRER) Step 5, <https://www.fda.gov/>
- 2751 8) Ibrahim H, et al. Signal Detection in Pharmacovigilance: A Review of Informatics-driven Approaches for the  
2752 Discovery of Drug-Drug Interaction Signals in Different Data Sources, Artificial Intelligence in the Life  
2753 Sciences 1 (2021)
- 2754 9) Sriramakrishnan GV, et al. Pharmacovigilance, signal detection using statistical data mining  
2755 methods, International Journal of Engineering & Technology, 7 (2.31) (2018) 122-126  
2756

2757

## CHAPTER 8.

### RISK MINIMIZATION

#### Chapter summary

Prompt evaluation and discontinuation of the potentially offending medicinal product(s) are the most appropriate immediate interventions in the management of SCAR once detected, based on the benefit-risk balance of the medicinal product for the given patient.

Key developments in SCAR research include new technologies allowing the identification of genetic risk factors with improved sensitivity, specificity and efficiency.

Routine risk minimization measures and additional risk minimization measures for SCAR are presented with examples.

#### Conclusions or recommendations

The recognition and diagnosis of SCAR can be challenging. Awareness of patients, caregivers, and HCPs of the risk of SCAR with medicinal products is paramount to ensure timely discontinuation of the medicinal product and administration of appropriate treatment, given their potential for severe and life-threatening outcomes. Hence, risk management, comprised of routine and additional risk minimization measures, is essential to ensure the safe use of these medications.

The selection of risk minimization tools to inform patients and HCPs of a medication's benefits and risks is vital for patients to make informed treatment decisions. Risk minimization for SCAR ensures awareness of recommendations for screening to identify patients at risk, characterization of the risk for timely recognition and recommended actions to monitor, manage and mitigate these risks to prevent or improve potential clinical adverse outcomes.

#### 8.1 Introduction

Risk is defined as “[t]he probability of developing an undesirable outcome relating to the quality, safety or efficacy of the medicinal product”. [1] Risks are characterized by the following ADR attributes: severity (intensity), frequency, potential for prevention or early detection, extent of reversibility and range of outcomes. The regulatory categorization of AEs relevant to risks as “serious” or “non-serious” had been primarily used to provide guidelines for pharmaceutical companies for AE report submission to regulatory authorities. Seriousness should be distinguished from the severity of an event, which is the intensity of the event. Severity of an event, in addition to other attributes and patient risk factors, could lead to patient clinical outcomes that may need a particular type of intervention to mitigate. Grading of severity (i.e. mild, moderate, severe) may be dependent on medical judgement and patient perspective; however, grading systems for AEs and laboratory abnormalities are currently being utilized (e.g. CTCAE, Drug-Induced Liver Injury Network). The assessment of the severity of an adverse reaction or risk, its frequency, and other attributes and risk factors, are necessary to understand the impact of the adverse reaction on the benefit-risk profile of a product.

2801 Categorical definitions of risks are utilized in regulatory risk management documents. The  
2802 ICH Pharmacovigilance Guidance has provided the following categories of risks:[1]

- 2803 • Identified Risk: an untoward occurrence for which there is adequate evidence of an  
2804 association with the medicinal product of interest,
- 2805 • Potential Risk: an untoward occurrence for which there is some basis for suspicion of  
2806 an association with the medicinal product of interest but where this association has not  
2807 been confirmed,
- 2808 • Important identified risk and important potential risk: an identified or potential risk that  
2809 can impact the benefit-risk profile of the product or have implications for public health.  
2810 What constitutes an important risk will depend on several factors, including the  
2811 seriousness of the risk, and the impact on the individual and public health. Typically,  
2812 any risk that is likely to be included in the Contraindications or Warnings and  
2813 Precautions section of the product information should be considered important.

2814 An additional concept that could constitute a form of risk for a medication and is therefore  
2815 part of risk management activities and documents pertains to missing Information, which are  
2816 gaps in knowledge about the safety of a medicinal product for a certain anticipated use or for  
2817 use in particular patient populations.[2]

## 2818 **8.2 Risk management**

2819 Risk management entails the following reiterative cycle: identification,  
2820 assessment/characterization, prevention/mitigation and measurement of the effectiveness of  
2821 the risk minimization measures.[1,3] Once risks have been identified and assessed for  
2822 clinical relevance, potential patient outcomes and overall impact, risk management strategies  
2823 are then planned and developed. Risk management occurs throughout the medicinal product  
2824 lifecycle.

2825 The primary objective of risk management strategies is to have better patient outcomes. To  
2826 do this, pharmacovigilance activities for data collection and assessment are instituted to  
2827 understand and characterize the risk. Additionally, risk minimization measures to reduce the  
2828 frequency that the risk will occur (termed “risk prevention”) or/and reduce the severity when it  
2829 does occur (termed “risk mitigation”) and reduce undesirable outcomes, may be  
2830 implemented.[1] Although many risks cannot be eliminated, their frequency and/or severity  
2831 may be substantially reduced by putting an appropriate risk minimization plan in place.

2832 Given that SCAR could occur, albeit infrequently, during clinical development, additional  
2833 safety data may be needed either to provide additional evidence to further support the  
2834 causal association between SCAR and an implicated medication or further characterize this  
2835 risk in the postauthorization setting, where increased utilization by the indicated population is  
2836 expected. Beyond routine standardized surveillance for SCAR, additional pharmacovigilance  
2837 activities may also be required.

2838 These additional pharmacovigilance activities may include active and targeted surveillance  
2839 in collaboration with key dermatology stakeholders or organizations that collect safety data  
2840 relevant to SCAR, such as registries, networks and tertiary referral medical centres.  
2841 Importantly, additional pharmacovigilance activities in the form of Postmarketing  
2842 Requirements/Commitments and Post-Authorization Safety Studies may be required as a  
2843 condition of authorization to further characterize the risk of SCAR from a medicinal product  
2844 in the indicated population. The types of safety studies conducted to further characterize  
2845 risks in the postauthorization setting include postauthorization observational studies, non-  
2846 interventional safety studies, postauthorization surveillance safety studies[4] and pharmaco-  
2847 epidemiologic studies utilizing real-world data.

2848 At authorization, risk management activities are described in detail in documents such as the  
2849 Risk Management Plan (RMP) in the EU and the Pharmacovigilance Plan (PV Plan) and  
2850 Approval Letters in the US. These risk management documents describe the activities and  
2851 studies that will be conducted in the postauthorization setting to identify and/or further  
2852 characterize the safety profile of the authorized medicinal product and the measures to  
2853 prevent or minimize the risks associated with the medicinal product.[5]

2854 There are two types of risk minimization measures, routine and additional, which are further  
2855 discussed below.

### 2856 **8.3 Routine risk minimization measures**

2857 Risk minimization measures that relate to standard activities and provide routine information  
2858 on the benefits and risks of a medicinal product to the patient and HCP for all medicinal  
2859 products are classified as routine risk minimization measures.

2860 These include product information, which is proposed by marketing authorization holders  
2861 and agreed by regulatory authorities providing patients and HCPs on the appropriate and  
2862 safe use of a medicinal product[1] (e.g. US Prescribing Information and for specific products,  
2863 the Medication Guide, EU SmPC, the Canadian Product Monograph, the Japanese Product  
2864 Information; patient information brochures; information on medicinal product packaging) as  
2865 well as packaging size appropriate to the typical treatment duration and a risk-appropriate  
2866 legal status of the product (i.e. prescription-only medication).[6]

2867 The information and recommendations outlined in the product information[1] should  
2868 therefore support the optimal and safe use of a medicinal product in clinical practice with the  
2869 goal of providing the appropriate medicine at the correct dose and timing, with an awareness  
2870 of the benefits and risks of the product.

2871 Especially for medicinal products for which a causal association with a severe or potentially  
2872 life-threatening outcome of an ADR has been identified, adequate information and  
2873 recommendations for monitoring and treatment are needed in the medicinal product's patient  
2874 brochure to ensure awareness and the actions that should be taken to manage the risk,  
2875 including reporting specific signs and symptoms to HCPs[1] (e.g. US Patient Package Insert  
2876 and Medication Guide or EU package leaflet).

2877 Information relevant to risks and severe and/or serious ADRs are usually included in specific  
2878 sections of the label, such as "Warnings and Precautions" and "Undesirable Effects/Adverse  
2879 Reactions," and are reflected in the patient brochure.



In addition to information regarding the character, severity, outcome(s) of the risk or ADR, an estimate of the frequency should be provided and expressed in a standard category of frequency.[7] If the frequency cannot be estimated from the clinical trials or postauthorization study data, the term 'not known' may be used. This may be applicable when the ADR has been identified from spontaneous reporting without knowledge of the exposure at population level.

In general, the language used to describe the risks in the product information should be clear and concise. Detailed recommendations from regulatory authorities regarding the description and characterization of the risks, together with actions that may prevent and/or mitigate such risks can be found in regulatory guidance documents, including the EU Guideline on the Summary of Product Characteristics[8] and the U.S. FDA Guidance for Industry for product information.[9,10]

Examples of language used to describe and/or characterize the risk of SCAR in product information of authorized medications can be found in Appendix 1.

For some medicinal products, additional risk minimization measures may be required as part of the marketing authorization terms in addition to the product information, patient brochure, and product container/package information

**8.3.1. Routine risk minimization measures for SCAR**

SCAR, as described in Chapter 1 of this Report, are diverse cADRs that range from common, mild and self-limited cutaneous reactions with an estimated incidence of 0.3% to 8%, to uncommon potentially life-threatening forms of delayed systemic hypersensitivity. Cutaneous clinical manifestations range from maculopapular exanthema, urticaria, FDE, phototoxic and photo-allergic eruptions to erythema-multiforme-like reactions.

At baseline, routine risk minimization measures are necessary to provide prescribers and patients with information relevant to cADRs and SCAR. These include product information, the patient brochure and container/package information, as previously stated. (See examples: [Medicinal Product A](#), [Medicinal Product B](#), [Medicinal Product C](#), [Medicinal Product D](#))

Of note, terminologies used in the product information should be considered carefully to ensure standardization and consistency. Terminologies should be standardized based on Medical Dictionary for Regulatory Activities (MedDRA)[11], as agreed in the ICH framework.

For SCAR, the following MedDRA Preferred Terms (PTs) are available under the MedDRA version 26.1 Preferred Terms: 'Stevens-Johnson syndrome', 'Toxic epidermal necrolysis', 'Acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis', 'Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms', 'Generalized bullous fixed drug eruption', 'SJS-TEN overlap' and 'AGEP-DRESS'.

Because SCAR may potentially be severe and/or serious and possibly life-threatening, risk management of SCAR may necessitate strategies beyond these routine risk minimization measures. These will be addressed in the following sub-section (Additional risk minimization measures).



## 2919 **8.4 Additional risk minimization measures**

2920 In addition to routine measures adopted to address medicinal product risk, additional risk  
2921 minimization measures are “interventions intended to prevent or reduce the probability of an  
2922 undesirable outcome or reduce its severity should it occur”. [3] Additional risk minimization  
2923 measures should be proposed when deemed essential for the safe and effective use of the  
2924 medicinal product.

2925 These measures aim to ensure the following:

- 2926 • Guide appropriate patient selection with the exclusion of patients where use is  
2927 contraindicated,
- 2928 • Support on-treatment monitoring of important risks and/or
- 2929 • Early identification and management of an adverse reaction to limit its  
2930 severity/seriousness and mitigate adverse outcomes. [12]

### 2931 **8.4.1 Additional risk minimization measures for SCAR**

2932 In addition to routine risk minimization (e.g. product information), further risk minimization  
2933 measures have been developed and implemented to expound on information found in the  
2934 product information regarding risks, outcomes, screening, identification of patients at risk,  
2935 monitoring and management. In the context of SCAR, these may include the following  
2936 activities/programmes:

- 2937 • Educational tools/training programmes, used to provide targeted information regarding  
2938 risks to HCPs or patients (e.g. patient alert card), to supplement product information,
- 2939 • Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategies (REMS), a medicinal product safety program  
2940 implemented in the U.S. and required for certain medications to inform, educate and  
2941 reinforce actions to reduce the frequency and/or severity of a safety outcome, such as  
2942 a SCAR. [13] Elements to assure safe use (ETASU) may be a component of a REMS  
2943 programme, in addition to materials distributed to HCPs, pharmacists, and nurses and  
2944 handouts for patients, such as Medication Guides [14]
- 2945 • Other risk minimization measures, such as Direct Healthcare Professional  
2946 Communication (DHPC) or Dear Health Care Provider Letter (DHCP).

2947 An example of an additional risk minimization measure implemented for a SCAR associated  
2948 with a medicinal product ([Medicinal Product E](#)) is provided below. Details can be found in  
2949 [Appendix 1](#).

### 2950 **8.4.2. Educational tools for healthcare professionals**

2951 Educational tools for HCPs provide specific recommendations on the use (what to do), the  
2952 contra-indications (who the product should not be prescribed to), and/or warnings (e.g. how  
2953 to prevent or manage the described risk or adverse reaction) associated with the medicinal  
2954 product and the key risks that require additional minimization measures. [12] These  
2955 educational tools may include guidance on prescribing (including selection of patients,  
2956 testing, monitoring), special administration procedures and details of information to be given  
2957 to patients and other information on managing risk.

2958 The type and format of a particular tool is dependent on the target audience, message and  
2959 modalities of use of the medicinal product. Tools can include HCP training programmes  
2960 featuring websites, brochures, posters and check lists (e.g. if certain actions need to be  
2961 performed prior to prescribing a medication).

For the example in Appendix 1 ([Medicinal Product E](#)), HCP educational programmes were developed to increase HCP awareness and understanding of the risk and expand on information that is included in the medicinal product information. These were published on a website aimed at HCPs. In addition, a slide presentation was included and provides guidance on HLA-B screening, information about diagnosis of hypersensitivity reaction, management and avoidance of rechallenge.

#### **8.4.3. Educational tools for patients and/or caregivers**

Educational tools targeting patients and caretakers aim to increase their awareness of risks associated with a medicinal product to inform their decision to initiate treatment, awareness of signs and symptoms of adverse reactions and/or risks for early recognition and awareness of the course of action to take should any of these sign or symptoms occur.[12] A patient alert card is a tool designed to inform patients of a particular risk.[1] It is used when patients are required to carry on them essential information about their current therapy and the main risks associated with this therapy. The purpose is to alert HCPs of the risks and if needed, ensure medical intervention. In the US, some medicinal products are dispensed to patients with a Medication Guide, as part of authorized product information.

The information contained in the patient alert card should be succinct and be kept to the minimum necessary to convey the key minimization messages and required action.[13] For the example of Medicinal Product E above, the patient alert card contains information about the clinical presentation of the hypersensitivity reaction and guides patients to call their HCPs immediately for guidance in case two or more of the following signs or symptoms occur: fever, skin rash (redness and/or itching), nausea, vomiting, diarrhoea, abdominal pain, severe tiredness, achiness or general ill feeling.

2985 **8.4.4. Other examples of additional risk minimization measures**

2986 Other examples of additional risk minimization measures are the DHPC in the EU, and the  
2987 DHCP Letters and Medication Guide (as part of a REMS programme) in the U.S.

2988 DHPC are communications by which important information is delivered directly to individual  
2989 HCPs by a marketing authorization holder or by a competent authority, to inform them of the  
2990 need to take certain actions or adapt their practices in relation to a medicinal product.[15]

2991 DHCP Letters are correspondences to HCPs that are often in the form of a mass mailing  
2992 from the manufacturer or distributor of a human medicinal product or from the US FDA.

2993 DHCP letters alert HCPs about new or updated information regarding a human medicinal  
2994 product.[16] In the context of SCAR, DHPCs should be considered when there is a need to  
2995 inform HCPs to take immediate action or change current practice in relation to a medicinal  
2996 product. These situations include:

- 2997 • a new warning or precaution of a SCAR risk in the product information,
- 2998 • identification of a new risk of SCAR or change in the frequency or severity of a known  
2999 SCAR risk,
- 3000 • new recommendations for preventing or treating SCAR,
- 3001 • an ongoing assessment of an important potential risk of SCAR, for which the data that  
3002 is available at a particular point in time are insufficient to take regulatory action (in this  
3003 case, the DHPC should encourage close monitoring of the safety concern in clinical  
3004 practice as well as reporting and possibly provide information on how to minimize the  
3005 potential risk).

3006 The content of the proposed DHPC should be agreed between the marketing authorization  
3007 holder and the regulatory authority. An example of a DHPC issued in response to the risk of  
3008 SCAR associated with a medicinal product (Medicinal Product F) is described in [Appendix 1](#).

3009 **8.5. Evaluating the effectiveness of risk minimization**

3010 When an additional risk minimization measure is developed to prevent or mitigate a risk such  
3011 as SCAR, planning is required on evaluating the effectiveness of the risk minimization tools,  
3012 interventions or programmes. This is an integral and critical component of risk management  
3013 to ensure that risk minimization measures change the behaviour of patients and HCPs and  
3014 leads to improved patient outcomes.

3015 Studies have been conducted in which a number of approaches have been applied to  
3016 evaluate the effectiveness of the risk minimization measures, interventions or programmes.  
3017 The objectives of these studies are to identify factors that lead to a desired outcome and  
3018 understand how the proposed tools, interventions or programmes impact these factors and  
3019 outcomes when used in a 'real-world' setting.

3020 The initial step is to develop a study protocol prior to the implementation of the  
3021 tool/intervention/programme that is being evaluated. The study should measure the  
3022 effectiveness of a programme in several different aspects (i.e. domains or dimensions):  
3023 programme coverage, efficacy/effectiveness, adoption, implementation and maintenance.

3024 Next, the study should evaluate the degree to which a proposed risk minimization  
3025 programme is implemented in 'real-world' conditions as intended (implementation fidelity) in  
3026 key areas (exposure, content, frequency, duration). Lastly, to appropriately evaluate the  
3027 effectiveness of a risk minimization tool/intervention/programme, the study should provide a  
3028 detailed analysis plan with prespecified outcome indicators that use clinically-relevant risk  
3029 prevention or mitigation endpoints and thresholds which, in turn, must be met to determine  
3030 success. Considerations include the use of appropriate comparators, performance measures  
3031 and time points for analysis.[1]

3032 Details of the various approaches to consider when developing studies to evaluate the  
3033 effectiveness of risk minimization measures are found in the Report of CIOMS Working  
3034 Group IX: Practical Approaches to Risk Minimisation for Medicinal Products. Given the  
3035 evolving landscape of risk management, the framework and methodologies that guide the  
3036 development of effectiveness studies will continue to change to ensure that evaluations  
3037 remain pragmatic and robust.[1]

## 3038 References

- 1 CIOMS. Practical Approaches to Risk Minimisation for Medicinal Products, [Report of CIOMS Working Group IX: 2014](#)
- 2 EMA. [Guideline on good pharmacovigilance practices \(GVP\) Module V – Risk management systems \(Rev 2\). 2017](#)
- 3 CIOMS. [Cumulative glossary with a focus on pharmacovigilance](#). Geneva, Switzerland: Council for International Organizations of Medical Sciences (CIOMS), 2022.
- 4 FDA. [www.accessdata.fda.gov/drugsatfda\\_docs/applletter/2013/022416Orig1s000ltr.pdf](#)
- 5 EMA. [Guideline on GVP Annex 1 Definitions, 2014.](#)
- 6 EMA. [Guideline on good pharmacovigilance practices \(GVP\) 4 Module XVI – Risk minimisation measures: selection of tools and effectiveness indicators \(Rev 3\), 1 February 2021 EMA/204715/2012](#)
- 7 CIOMS. [Guidelines for Preparing Core Clinical Safety Information on Drugs](#). Report of CIOMS Working Group III. 1995
- 8 European Commission. [A Guideline on Summary of Product Characteristics \(SmPC\). Revision 2](#). 2009.
- 9 FDA. Guidance for Industry Warnings and Precautions, Contraindications, and Boxed Warnings Sections of Labeling for Human Prescription Drug and Biological Products —Content and Format. <https://www.fda.gov/media/71866/download>
- 10 FDA. Guidance for Industry Adverse Reactions Section of Labeling for Human Prescription Drug and Biological Products — Content and Format. <https://www.fda.gov/media/72139/download>
- 11 MedDRA <https://www.meddra.org/>
- 12 EMA. [Guideline on good pharmacovigilance practices \(GVP\) Module XVI – Risk minimisation measures: selection of tools and effectiveness indicators \(Rev 2\)](#)
- 13 FDA. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-safety-and-availability/risk-evaluation-and-mitigation-strategies-rems>
- 14 FDA. <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/risk-evaluation-and-mitigation-strategies-rems/whats-rems>
- 15 FDA <https://www.fda.gov/drugs/drug-safety-and-availability/risk-evaluation-and-mitigation-strategies-rems>
- 16 FDA [Guidance on Dear Health Care Provider Letter: Improving Communication of Important Safety Information](#)

3039

## APPENDIX 1

### PRODUCT LABEL EXAMPLES

#### Medicinal Product A

##### Product Label

#### 4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

##### Hypersensitivity syndrome, SJS and TEN

Medicinal Product A should be withdrawn immediately when a skin rash or other evidence of sensitivity occurs as this could result in more serious hypersensitivity reactions, which can manifest in many different ways, including maculopapular exanthema, hypersensitivity syndrome (also known as DRESS) and SJS/TEN.

These reactions are clinical diagnoses, and their clinical presentations remain the basis for decision making. If such reactions occur at any time during treatment, Medicinal Product A should be withdrawn immediately. Rechallenge should not be undertaken in patients with DRESS and SJS/TEN. Corticosteroids may be beneficial in overcoming hypersensitivity skin reactions. Please see "Undesirable effects" table below.

#### 4.8 Undesirable effects

System Organ Class	Frequency	Adverse Reaction
Immune system disorders	Uncommon	Hypersensitivity reactions
	Common	Rash
	Rare	Stevens-Johnson Syndrome, Toxic Epidermal Necrolysis
	Very rare	Fixed Drug Eruption

2. Serious hypersensitivity reactions, including skin reactions associated with exfoliation, fever, lymphadenopathy, arthralgia and/or eosinophilia including SJS and TEN occur rarely (see above table). Associated vasculitis and tissue response may be manifested in various ways including hepato-splenomegaly, hepatitis, vanishing bile duct syndrome (destruction and disappearance of the intrahepatic bile ducts), renal impairment and, very rarely, seizures. Other organs may also be affected (e.g. liver, lungs, kidneys, pancreas, myocardium, and colon). Very rarely acute anaphylactic shock has been reported. Such reactions may occur at any time during treatment. Medicinal Product A should be withdrawn immediately and permanently.

Rechallenge should not be undertaken in patients with hypersensitivity syndrome and SJS/TEN. Corticosteroids may be beneficial in overcoming hypersensitivity skin reactions. When generalized hypersensitivity reactions have occurred, renal and/or hepatic disorder has usually been present particularly when the outcome has been fatal. Corticosteroids may be beneficial in overcoming hypersensitivity skin reactions.

6. Skin reactions are the most common reactions and may occur at any time during treatment. They may be pruritic, maculopapular, sometimes scaly, sometimes purpuric and rarely exfoliative, such as SJS/TEN. The highest risk for SJS and TEN, or other serious hypersensitivity reactions, is within the first weeks of treatment.

3075 The best results in managing such reactions come from early diagnosis and immediate  
3076 discontinuation of any suspect medicinal product. Medicinal Product A should be withdrawn  
3077 immediately should such reactions occur. After recovery from mild reactions, allopurinol  
3078 may, if desired, be re-introduced at a small dose (e.g. 50 mg/day) and gradually increased. If  
3079 the rash recurs, Medicinal Product A should be permanently withdrawn as more severe  
3080 hypersensitivity may occur.

3081 If SJS/TEN, or other serious hypersensitivity reactions cannot be ruled out, DO NOT re-  
3082 introduce Medicinal Product A due to the potential for a severe or even fatal reaction. The  
3083 clinical diagnosis of SJS/TEN remains the basis for decision making. If such reactions occur  
3084 at any time during treatment, Medicinal Product A should be withdrawn immediately and  
3085 permanently.

## 3086 **Medicinal Product B**

### 3087 Product Label

#### 3088 4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

##### 3089 Warnings

3090 [...]

3091 Patients and their relatives should be made aware of early toxic signs and symptoms  
3092 indicative of a potential haematological problem, as well as symptoms of dermatological or  
3093 hepatic reactions. If reactions such as fever, sore throat, rash, ulcers in the mouth, easy  
3094 bruising, petechial or purpuric haemorrhage appear, the patient should be advised to consult  
3095 the physician immediately.

3096 Serious dermatological reactions, including toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN: also known as  
3097 Lyell's syndrome) and SJS have been reported very rarely with Medicinal Product B.  
3098 Patients with serious dermatological reactions may require hospitalization, as these  
3099 conditions may be life-threatening and fatal. Most SJS/TEN cases appear in the first few  
3100 months of treatment with Medicinal Product B. These reactions are estimated to occur in 1 to  
3101 6 per 10,000 new users in countries with mainly Caucasian populations. If signs and  
3102 symptoms suggestive of severe skin reactions (e.g. SJS, Lyell's syndrome/TEN) appear,  
3103 Medicinal Product B should be withdrawn at once and alternative therapy should be  
3104 considered.

3105 [...]

##### 3106 Cutaneous reactions

3107 Serious and sometimes fatal cutaneous reactions including TEN and SJS have been reported  
3108 during treatment with Medicinal Product B. These reactions are estimated to occur in 1-6 per  
3109 10 000 new users in countries with mainly Caucasian populations, but the risk in some Asian  
3110 countries is estimated to be about 10 times higher.

3111 There is growing evidence of the role of different HLA alleles in predisposing patients to  
3112 immune-mediated adverse reactions.

3113 The *HLA-B\*1502* allele has not been found to predict risk of less severe adverse cutaneous  
3114 reactions from Medicinal Product B, such as anticonvulsant hypersensitivity syndrome or  
3115 non-serious rash (maculopapular eruption).

## 3116 Hypersensitivity

3117 Medicinal Product B may trigger hypersensitivity reactions, including Drug Rash with  
3118 Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS), reactivation of HHV6 associated with  
3119 DRESS, a delayed multi-organ hypersensitivity disorder with fever, rash, vasculitis,  
3120 lymphadenopathy, pseudo lymphoma, arthralgia, leukopenia, eosinophilia, hepato-  
3121 splenomegaly, abnormal liver function tests and vanishing bile duct syndrome (destruction and  
3122 disappearance of the intrahepatic bile ducts), that may occur in various combinations. Other  
3123 organs may also be affected (e.g. lungs, kidneys, pancreas, myocardium, colon).

3124 In general, if signs and symptoms suggestive of hypersensitivity reactions occur, Medicinal  
3125 Product B should be withdrawn immediately. Patients who have exhibited hypersensitivity  
3126 reactions to Medicinal Product B should be informed that 25-30 % of these patients may  
3127 experience hypersensitivity reactions with oxcarbazepine.

3128 Cross-hypersensitivity can occur between Medicinal Product B and aromatic anti-epileptics  
3129 (e.g. phenytoin, primidone and phenobarbital).

## 3130 4.8 Undesirable effects

### 3131 Summary of the safety profile

3132 Particularly at the start of treatment with Medicinal Product B, or if the initial dosage is too  
3133 high, or when treating elderly patients, certain types of adverse reaction occur very  
3134 commonly or commonly, e.g. CNS adverse reactions (dizziness, headache, ataxia,  
3135 drowsiness, fatigue, diplopia), gastrointestinal disturbances (nausea, vomiting), as well as  
3136 allergic skin reactions.

3137 Tabulated summary of ADRs compiled from clinical trials and spontaneous reports

System Organ Class	Frequency	Adverse Reaction
	Not known**	Drug Rash with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS)
	Very rare	Stevens-Johnson syndrome*, toxic epidermal necrolysis
	Not known**	Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis (AGEP)**

3138

3139 \* In some Asian countries also reported as rare. See also section 4.4 Special warnings and  
3140 precautions for use.

3141 \*\*Additional ADRs from spontaneous reports (frequency not known).

3142 [...]

3143 There is increasing evidence regarding the association of genetic markers and the  
3144 occurrence of cutaneous ADRs such as SJS, TEN, DRESS, AGEP and maculopapular rash.  
3145 In Japanese and European patients, these reactions have been reported to be associated  
3146 with the use of Medicinal Product B and the presence of the *HLA-A\*3101* allele. Another  
3147 marker, *HLA-B\*1502* has been shown to be strongly associated with SJS and TEN among  
3148 individuals of Han Chinese, Thai and some other Asian ancestry.



3149 **Medicinal Product C**

3150 Product Label

3151

3152 4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

3153 [...]

3154 Hypersensitivity

3155 Hypersensitivity and allergic reactions, including anaphylaxis and anaphylactoid reactions,  
3156 may occur following a single dose (see section 4.8) and may be life-threatening. If such  
3157 reactions occur, Medicinal Product C should be discontinued and an adequate medical  
3158 treatment is required.

3159 [...]

3160 4.8 Undesirable effects

System Organ Class	Common	Uncommon	Rare	Very Rare	Frequency not known
Skin and Subcutaneous Tissue Disorders				Stevens-Johnson syndrome (potentially life-threatening) Toxic epidermal necrolysis (potentially life-threatening)	Acute Generalized Exanthematous Pustulosis (AGEP) Drug Reaction with Eosinophilia and Systemic Symptoms (DRESS)

3161

3162 **Medicinal Product D**

3163 Product Label and Patient Information Leaflet

3164 Product Label

3165 4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

3166 Life threatening adverse reactions

3167 Fatalities, although very rare, have occurred due to severe reactions including Stevens -  
3168 Johnson syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis, fulminant hepatic necrosis, agranulocytosis,  
3169 aplastic anaemia, other blood dyscrasias and hypersensitivity of the respiratory tract.

- 3170 • Life-threatening cutaneous reactions SJS, TEN and DRESS have been reported with
- 3171 the use of Medicinal Product D.
- 3172 • Patients should be advised of the signs and symptoms and monitored closely for skin
- 3173 reactions. The highest risk for occurrence of SJS or TEN is within the first weeks of treatment.
- 3174 • If symptoms or signs of SJS, TEN (e.g. progressive skin rash often with blisters or
- 3175 mucosal lesions) or DRESS (e.g. fever, eosinophilia) are present, Medicinal Product D
- 3176 treatment should be discontinued.
- 3177 • The best results in managing SJS, TEN and DRESS come from early diagnosis and
- 3178 immediate discontinuation of any suspect medicinal product. Early withdrawal is
- 3179 associated with a better prognosis.

- 3180 • If the patient has developed SJS, TEN and DRESS with the use of Medicinal Product  
3181 D, Medicinal Product D must not be re-started in this patient at any time.
- 3182 • At the start of treatment, the occurrence of a generalized febrile erythema associated with  
3183 pustules, should raise the suspicion of acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis  
3184 (AGEP); it requires cessation of treatment and contraindicates any new administration of  
3185 Medicinal Product D alone or in combination with other medicinal products.  
3186 [...]

#### 3187 4.8 Undesirable effects

System Organ Class	Frequency	Side effects
Skin and subcutaneous tissue disorders*	Very rare	Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS) *, toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN) *. Acute generalised exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP).
	Not known	Acute febrile neutrophilic dermatosis (Sweet's syndrome), Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS)*

3188

#### 3189 Description of selected adverse reactions

##### 3190 Severe cutaneous adverse reactions (SCAR)

3191 Stevens-Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN) and drug reaction with  
3192 eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS) have been reported to be life-threatening.

3193 As with any other medicinal product, allergic reactions such as an itchy rash and hives may  
3194 occur in patients with hypersensitivity to the components of the medicinal product. Very rare  
3195 cases of AGEP have been observed.

#### 3196 Patient Information Leaflet (PIL):

##### 3197 2. What you need to know before you take Medicinal Product D

#### 3198 Warnings and precautions

3199 Talk to your doctor or pharmacist before taking Medicinal Product D:

- 3200 • If you have severe allergies or asthma.
- 3201 • Potentially life-threatening skin rashes (SJS, TEN and DRESS) have been reported  
3202 with the use of Medicinal Product D appearing initially as reddish target-like spots or  
3203 circular patches often with central blisters on the trunk.
- 3204 • At the start of treatment, the occurrence of generalized skin redness with pustules,  
3205 accompanied by fever, should raise the suspicion of a serious reaction called acute  
3206 generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP) (see section 4).
- 3207 • Additional signs to look for include ulcers in the mouth, throat, nose, genitals and  
3208 conjunctivitis (red and swollen eyes).
- 3209 • These potentially life-threatening skin rashes are often accompanied by flu-like  
3210 symptoms. The rash may progress to widespread blistering or peeling of the skin.
- 3211 • The highest risk for occurrence of serious skin reactions is within the first weeks of  
3212 treatment.
- 3213 • If you have developed Stevens-Johnson syndrome, toxic epidermal necrolysis or drug  
3214 reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms with the use of Medicinal Product D,  
3215 you must not be re-started on Medicinal Product D at any time.

- 3216 • If you develop a rash or these skin symptoms, stop taking Medicinal Product D, seek  
3217 urgent advice from a doctor and tell him that you are taking this medicine.
- 3218 4. Possible side effects
- 3219 Like all medicines, Medicinal Product D can cause side effects, although not everybody gets  
3220 them. You may experience the following side effects with this medicine.
- 3221 Stop taking Medicinal Product D and tell your doctor immediately if you have an allergic  
3222 reaction. The chances of an allergic reaction are very rare (fewer than 1 in 10,000 people  
3223 are affected), signs of an allergic reaction include:
- 3224 Allergic reactions
- 3225 • Difficulty breathing
- 3226 • Fainting
- 3227 • Swelling of face
- 3228 • Swelling of mouth, tongue or throat which may be red and painful and/or cause difficulty in  
3229 swallowing
- 3230 • Chest pain
- 3231 • Red patches on the skin
- 3232 Common (less than 1 in 10 people)
- 3233 • Skin rashes
- 3234 Very Rare (less than 1 in 10,000 people)
- 3235 • Potentially life-threatening skin rashes (SJS, TEN) have been reported
- 3236 • Very rare cases of redness generalizing to the whole body (AGEP)
- 3237 • Mouth ulcers, cold sores and ulcers or soreness of your tongue
- 3238 • Skin lumps or hives (raised, red or white, itchy patches of skin)
- 3239 • Blisters on your skin or inside your mouth, nose, vagina or bottom
- 3240 • Inflammation of the eye, which causes pain and redness
- 3241 • The appearance of a rash or sunburn when you have been outside (even on a cloudy day)
- 3242 Not known (frequency cannot be estimated from the available data)
- 3243 • Drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (an allergic type reaction in  
3244 which you may develop fever, skin rash, and abnormalities in blood and liver function  
3245 tests (these may be signs of a multi-organ sensitivity disorder).
- 3246
- 3247 If any of the side effects get serious, or if you notice any side effects not listed in this leaflet,  
3248 please tell your doctor or pharmacist.

3249 **Medicinal Product E**

3250 Additional Risk Minimization Measures: Healthcare Professional Guide and Patient Card

3251 Medicinal Product E hypersensitivity reaction is a delayed hypersensitivity reaction mediated  
3252 via CD8+ T lymphocytes and strongly associated with the presence of the *HLA-B\*57:01*  
3253 allele.[1] This reaction is multi-systemic and typically presents with fever, rash, constitutional  
3254 symptoms and gastrointestinal manifestations,[2] occurring usually within the first six weeks  
3255 of treatment with Medicinal Product E. Upon diagnosis, treatment discontinuation is  
3256 mandatory and subsequent treatment with Medicinal Product E is contraindicated, since it  
3257 can result in a more severe, rapid, and potentially life-threatening reaction.[3]

3258 In 2002, the association between the MHC class I *HLA-B\*57:01* allele and a risk for  
3259 Medicinal Product E hypersensitivity was described for the first time.[1,3] The prevalence of  
3260 this allele varies according to the predominant populations of the geographic location, with  
3261 an estimated prevalence of 5%-8% in predominantly Caucasian populations, 2-3 % in  
3262 African Americans and <1% in Sub-Saharan Africa, Chinese and Japanese  
3263 populations[4,5].Based on this demonstrated association and supported by the test's  
3264 comparatively high PPV for this outcome[3], *HLA-B\*57:01* testing prior to initiating treatment  
3265 with Medicinal Product E, was recommended in the label. Subsequently, this test became  
3266 part of the regulatory terms of marketing authorization and standard of care for HIV patients  
3267 before initiating treatment with Medicinal Product E.

3268 Because of the potential severity, seriousness, outcomes and consequent impact on  
3269 treatment, Medicinal Product E hypersensitivity reaction is classified as an important  
3270 identified risk for the medicinal product.

3271 Both routine risk minimization measures and additional risk minimization measures are in  
3272 place to prevent the risk of Medicinal Product E hypersensitivity in patients who test positive  
3273 for this allele, and subsequently reduce undue exposure. The main guidance around HLA  
3274 screening is provided in the product's label (i.e., "*HLA-B\*5701* status must always be  
3275 documented prior to initiating therapy"), but additional risk minimization measures have also  
3276 been put in place to ensure awareness of the potentially life-threatening risk, and the  
3277 recommended HLA screening to identify patients who may be at risk. These measures  
3278 include a Healthcare Professional Guide for healthcare providers (HCPs) and a patient card  
3279 for patients in the EU. In the US, the manufacturer of Medicinal Product E was required to  
3280 distribute a Medication Guide to patients, as part of a REMS program.

3281 **Medicinal Product F**

3282 Additional Risk Minimization Measure: Direct Healthcare Professional Communication

3283 Cases of SJS and TEN were reported in patients treated with Medicinal Product F. The  
3284 regulatory authority and the manufacturer agreed that a DHPC was necessary to be  
3285 disseminated to for healthcare providers to ensure awareness of the newly identified risk of  
3286 SCAR. The content of the DHPC included a background on the safety concern, summary of  
3287 the findings, recommendations on treatment interruption ("Medicinal Product F should be  
3288 withheld in patients with suspected SJS or TEN") and discontinuation ("in case SJS or TEN  
3289 is confirmed, and for any grade 4 rash/SCAR, treatment with Medicinal Product F should be  
3290 permanently discontinued"). Lastly, the DHPC included instructions on reporting suspected  
3291 adverse reactions to the regulatory authority or the manufacturer.

3292

3293

3294

3295 **References**

- 1 Mallal S, et al. Association between presence of HLA-B\*5701, HLA-DR7, and HLA-DQ3 and hypersensitivity to HIV-1 reverse-transcriptase inhibitor abacavir. *The Lancet*. 2002 Mar 2;359(9308):727-32. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 2 Peter JG, et al. Severe Delayed Cutaneous and Systemic Reactions to Drugs: A Global Perspective on the Science and Art of Current Practice. *J Allergy Clin Immunol Pract*. May-Jun 2017;5(3):547-563 [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 3 Mallal S, et al. HLA-B\*5701 Screening for hypersensitivity to abacavir. *N Engl J Med*. 2008 Feb 7;358(6):568-79. [PubMed Abstract](#)
- 4 Phillips, et al. Genetic Screening to Prevent Abacavir Hypersensitivity Reaction: Are We There Yet?. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2006 Jul 1;43(1):103-5. [Journal Article](#)
- 5 Zhang, et al. Low prevalence of human leukocyte antigen-B\*5701 in HIV-1-infected Chinese subjects: a prospective epidemiological investigation. *AIDS Res Ther*. 2015; 12: 28. [PubMed Abstract](#)

3296

DRAFT

## APPENDIX 2

### EXAMPLES OF TARGETED FOLLOW-UP FORMS TO BE USED FOR ALL SCAR REPORTS

#### Follow-up questionnaires

1. Extent of the rash:
  - ☐ ≥50% of the body surface area
  - ☐ <50% of the body surface area
2. Did the subject undergo skin biopsy?
  - ☐ Yes. If positive, select one option:
    - ☐ Result suggestive of a severe cutaneous adverse reaction (SCAR), such as Stevens Johnson syndrome (SJS), toxic epidermal necrolysis (TEN), acute generalized exanthematous pustulosis (AGEP), drug reaction with eosinophilia and systemic symptoms (DRESS)
    - ☐ Result **not** suggestive of a severe cutaneous adverse reaction (SCAR)
    - ☐ Inconclusive result
  - ☐ No
3. Has the subject had facial swelling? (i.e., facial swelling during the event of rash)
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No
  - ☐ Unknown
4. Has the subject had enlarged lymph nodes? (Presence of either localized [e.g. cervical, axillary, or inguinal lymph nodes] or generalised lymphadenopathy)
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No
  - ☐ Unknown
5. Were atypical lymphocytes detected at some point during the evolution of the hypersensitivity event?
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No
6. Did the subject have eosinophilia ( $>0.5 \times 10^9/l$  or  $500/\mu L$ ) detected at some point during the evolution of the hypersensitivity event?
  - ☐ Yes
  - ☐ No
7. Have infectious causes been excluded? Has an infection screening been conducted due to the events of fever + rash (e.g. blood count, CRP, blood culture, chest X-ray, urinalysis + urine culture)?
  - ☐ Yes
    - ☐ Description of which tests:
  - ☐ No
  - ☐ Unknown
8. Did the subject have evidence of internal organ involvement?  
Select in case there is evidence of other organs being affected concomitantly to the event of rash, resulting in liver, renal, cardiac, or pulmonary function alteration:
  - ☐ Yes. If positive, select all that apply:
    - ☐ AST/ALT increase
    - ☐ Renal involvement (creatinine and/or BUN increase, urinalysis alteration)
    - ☐ Cardiac involvement (clinical, laboratory or echocardiographic evidence of myocarditis)
    - ☐ Lung involvement (clinical or radiological evidence of pneumonitis)
    - ☐ Other
  - ☐ No
  - ☐ Unknown
9. Concomitant medications

93



3359

## APPENDIX 3

### SCAR WORKING GROUP MEMBERS AND MEETINGS

The CIOMS Working Group on Severe Cutaneous Adverse Reactions included the following stakeholder groups: clinicians, international organizations, pharmaceutical industry, regulatory authorities.

#### CLINICIANS

3365	Chia-Yu Chu	National Taiwan University Hospital, Chinese Taipei
3366		Working Group Co-Chair
3367	Siew Eng Choon	Monash University, Malaysia
3368	Roni P. Dodiuk-Gad	Emek Medical Center, Israel
3369	Koji Hashimoto	Ehime Prefectural University of Health Science, Japan
3370	Haur Yueh Lee	Singapore General Hospital, Singapore
3371	Filippa Nyberg	Karolinska University Hospital, Sweden
3372	Neil Shear	Sunnybrook Health Sciences Centre, University of Toronto, Canada

#### INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

3374	Matt Doogue	IUPHAR/University of Otago/Christchurch, New Zealand
------	-------------	--

#### PHARMACEUTICAL INDUSTRY

3376	David Brott	Takeda, USA
3377	Leslie Dondey-Nouvel	Sanofi, France
3378	Alexandre Kiazand	AstraZeneca, USA
3379	Gerd Kullak-Ublick*	Novartis, Switzerland
3380	Ariel R. Porcalla	AbbVie, USA
3381	Violeta Regnier Galvao	Eli Lilly, USA
3382	Sarah Schlieff	Bayer, Germany

#### REGULATORY AUTHORITIES

3384	Melissa Reyes	FDA, USA
3385		Working Group Co-Chair
3386	Priya Bahri	EMA, Netherlands
3387	Michael A. Pacanowski	FDA, USA
3388	Youssef Roman	FDA, USA
3389	Sabine Straus	Medicines Evaluation Board, Netherlands
3390	Tien M. Truong	FDA, USA
3391	Takahiro Ueda	Pharmaceutical and Medical Devices Agency (PMDA), Japan
3392	*Alternate: Sylvia Lesperance, Novartis	

#### CIOMS

3394	Hervé Le Louet	President
3395	Lembit Rägo	Secretary General

3396 The Working Group met in a series of virtual meetings from 2021 to 2023 as follows:

- 3397 1. 2-3 February 2021
- 3398 2. 13 April 2021
- 3399 3. 29 June 2021
- 3400 4. 7 October 2021
- 3401 5. 13 December 2021
- 3402 6. 9 May 2022
- 3403 7. 12 September 2022
- 3404 8. 12 December 2022
- 3405 9. 14 March 2023
- 3406 10. 20 June 2023

3407

3408 The SCAR Working Group Editorial Team met three times in 2023, and included the  
3409 following members:

3410	Siew Eng Choon	Monash University, Malaysia
3411	Chia-Yu Chu	National Taiwan University Hospital, Chinese Taipei
3412	Alexandre Kiazand	Astra Zeneca, USA
3413	Haur Yueh Lee	Singapore General Hospital, Singapore
3414	Sylvia Lesperance	Novartis, Switzerland
3415	Lembit Rägo	CIOMS
3416	Melissa Reyes	FDA, USA

3417

3418

3419

|

**APPENDIX 4**

**LIST OF COMMENTATORS**

3420

3421

3422

3423

3424

DRAFT