
Assessment of Pressor Effects of Drugs Guidance for Industry

DRAFT GUIDANCE

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**U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
Food and Drug Administration
Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER)**

**February 2022
Clinical/Medical
Revision 1**

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Assessment of Pressor Effects of Drugs Guidance for Industry¹

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I. INTRODUCTION

This guidance is intended to advise sponsors on the premarketing assessment of a drug's effect on blood pressure. Elevated blood pressure is known to increase the risk of stroke, heart attack, and death. The effect of a drug on blood pressure is, therefore, an important consideration in risk assessment and product labeling.

The recommendations in the guidance are generally applicable to new drugs with systemic bioavailability and to approved drugs for a new indication/population with a higher cardiovascular risk or when a new dosing regimen results in significantly higher or more prolonged exposure.

This guidance revises the draft guidance for industry *Assessment of Pressor Effects of Drugs* issued in May 2018. This revision provides greater detail about study design, including specific statistical powering recommendations that were not included in the original document. Furthermore, this revision provides recommendations on how to incorporate information about increased blood pressure in the prescribing information of drug product labeling.

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II. BACKGROUND

Data from multiple sources indicate that elevated systolic and diastolic blood pressures increase cardiovascular risk. Epidemiologic evidence demonstrates a monotonically increasing risk of

¹ This guidance has been prepared by the Division of Cardiology and Nephrology in the Center for Drug Evaluation and Research at the Food and Drug Administration.

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44 stroke, heart attack, and death with increasing blood pressure; even a few millimeters of mercury
45 (mmHg) can be clinically relevant. MacMahon et al. (1990) evaluated the relationship between
46 diastolic blood pressure and the rates of stroke and coronary heart disease (CHD) events, defined
47 as nonfatal myocardial infarctions and CHD deaths, in nine major, prospective, observational
48 studies. Diastolic blood pressures that were lower by 5.0, 7.5, and 10 mmHg were associated
49 with 34, 46, and 56 percent fewer strokes, respectively, and 21, 29, and 37 percent fewer CHD.
50 Of note, the relative reduction in risk associated with a particular decrease in diastolic blood
51 pressure was similar within the entire range of diastolic blood pressures evaluated (70 to 110
52 mmHg), including levels that would be considered normal. When the highest risk category of
53 diastolic blood pressure (greater than or equal to 110 mmHg) was compared with the lowest risk
54 category (less than or equal to 79 mmHg), the risk of stroke was about 10 to 12 times higher; the
55 risk of CHD was about 5 to 6 times higher.

56
57 The incremental cardiovascular risk imparted by higher systolic blood pressure is a function of
58 the underlying cardiovascular risk. Equations from pooled cohorts of 10-year atherosclerotic
59 cardiovascular disease (ASCVD) event risk models can be used to describe the effect of a higher
60 systolic blood pressure on the risk of developing an ASCVD event, defined as the occurrence of
61 coronary death or fatal stroke, or the first occurrence of nonfatal myocardial infarction or stroke
62 (Goff et al. 2014). FDA generated Figure 1 (see the Appendix) to show the expected increases in
63 ASCVD events for a chronic elevation in systolic blood pressure (1 to 7 mmHg) in patients
64 whose risks fall within three risk levels (low/borderline, intermediate, and high).

65
66 Results from controlled trials of antihypertensive drugs show that decreases in blood pressure led
67 to decreased rates of stroke and cardiovascular deaths in populations with all levels of risk from
68 other factors, such as elevated low-density lipoprotein cholesterol or smoking status.
69 Maintenance of a reduction in blood pressure with antihypertensive drug regimens consistently
70 reduced rates of stroke and cardiovascular death, with a less consistent effect on nonfatal
71 myocardial infarction (see Table 1 in the Appendix). Furthermore, the beneficial effect on
72 cardiovascular outcome occurs within a relatively short period of time (0.5 to 1 year), suggesting
73 that an increased risk from elevated blood pressure would also occur relatively rapidly (Staessen
74 et al. 1997; Veterans Administration Cooperative Study 1970). In the Systolic Hypertension in
75 the Elderly Program (SHEP Cooperative Research Group 1991), for example, the reduced rate of
76 stroke is clearly seen within 1.5 years (and perhaps earlier), and findings were similar in the
77 European Working Party on High Blood Pressure in the Elderly trial (Amery et al. 1985).

78
79 This relationship of lower blood pressure to lower rates of stroke and cardiovascular death shown
80 in Table 1 has been observed in outcome studies involving a wide array of antihypertensive
81 drugs, including diuretics, reserpine, hydralazine, beta blockers, calcium channel blockers, and
82 renin-angiotensin system inhibitors. FDA, with the concurrence of the Cardiovascular and Renal
83 Drugs Advisory Committee,² considers this relationship to be sufficiently well-established to
84 conclude that all antihypertensive drugs should be labeled with a cardiovascular risk reduction
85 claim, even if a drug has not been evaluated in a cardiovascular outcome study (see the guidance

² Summary minutes of the Cardiovascular and Renal Drugs Advisory Committee meeting for June 15, 2005, available at <https://wayback.archive-it.org/7993/20170404055351/https://www.fda.gov/ohrms/dockets/ac/05/minutes/2005-4145M1.pdf>.

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86 for industry *Hypertension Indication: Drug Labeling for Cardiovascular Outcome Claims*
87 (March 2011)).³ This guidance now suggests that a drug-induced increase in blood pressure is
88 likely to have similar deleterious effects, no matter the mechanism of the increase.

89
90 This hypothesis is supported by the observation that some drugs that produce sustained increases
91 in blood pressure (e.g., rofecoxib, sibutramine, torcetrapib, celecoxib) have been associated with
92 adverse cardiovascular effects. In light of these findings, it is reasonable to expect that chronic
93 use of drugs that increase blood pressure measured by either ambulatory blood pressure
94 monitoring (ABPM) or clinically will increase cardiovascular risk, with an absolute increase in
95 risk related to the baseline risk, the baseline blood pressure, the duration of treatment, and the
96 magnitude of the blood pressure increase.

97
98 Although nearly every drug development program has some assessment of the drug's blood
99 pressure effects, the methods used for assessing blood pressure are not consistent and not always
100 adequate. As a result, small increases in blood pressure that could be relevant to the risks of a
101 drug may not be reliably detected in some drug development programs.

102
103 Several factors can influence the importance of blood pressure effects to the benefit-risk
104 assessment, including the magnitude of the blood pressure increase, the seriousness of the
105 condition being treated, the effect of the drug on the condition, the underlying cardiovascular risk
106 in the patient population most likely to use the drug, the availability of other effective therapies
107 that do not raise blood pressure, strategies that can be used to mitigate the blood pressure effects,
108 and the anticipated duration of drug treatment.

109
110 For a drug that increases blood pressure, differences in blood pressure effects across subgroups
111 of the patient population may exist, just as differences across subgroups may exist in response to
112 a blood pressure-lowering treatment. Characterizing such differences is important.

113 114 115 **III. BLOOD PRESSURE ASSESSMENT: DRUGS INTENDED FOR SHORT-TERM** 116 **VERSUS CHRONIC USE**

117
118 Whether a drug is intended for short-term or chronic use is a significant factor for determining
119 how to assess blood pressure during a clinical trial.

120 121 **A. Drugs Intended for Short-Term Use**

122
123 There is little concern about a drug indicated for short-term use that has small effects on blood
124 pressure because the cardiovascular risk of small, short-term elevations in blood pressure does
125 not appear to be meaningful. FDA's analysis of placebo-controlled hypertension trials less than
126 12 weeks in duration (most were shorter) did not find an increased risk of cardiovascular events
127 in the placebo groups (DeFelice et al. 2008). Large blood pressure increases are of concern,
128 however, even with drugs intended for short-term use. Therefore, in general, careful assessment

³ We update guidances periodically. To make sure you have the most recent version of a guidance, check the FDA guidance web page at <https://www.fda.gov/regulatory-information/search-fda-guidance-documents>.

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129 of blood pressure using clinic blood pressure measurement during routine study visits (section
130 IV. B.) is recommended.

131

B. Drugs Intended for Chronic Use

133

134 There is greater concern with the effects of a drug on blood pressure when the drug will be used
135 chronically. As noted above, the risk related to blood pressure is a continuous function, and
136 sustained increases in blood pressure correlate with long-term increases in the risk of
137 cardiovascular events. It follows that drug-induced sustained elevations in blood pressure, even if
138 small, would have such effects. Sponsors, therefore, should include a thorough blood pressure
139 assessment for any drug intended for chronic use. FDA recommends use of ABPM for this
140 assessment, as ABPM is capable of detecting small, but potentially relevant, blood pressure
141 effects (see section IV). ABPM also assesses effects over a 24-hour period, which is more
142 informative than assessment at a single time point (Pickering 2000).

143

144

IV. TYPES OF BLOOD PRESSURE ASSESSMENT

146

A. Clinic Blood Pressure Measurements

148

149 Clinic blood pressure measurements can be used for three purposes: to assess the effects of drugs
150 intended for short-term use, to characterize the dose or exposure-response relationship for drugs
151 that increase blood pressure, and to serve as part of the overall safety assessment to identify
152 patients with large increases in blood pressure.

153

154 The accuracy of clinic blood pressure measurement can be improved by collecting triplicate
155 measurements of sitting blood pressure in all subjects at baseline (predose), at several visits (at
156 least two visits before the end of the trial), at the end of the interdosing interval (trough
157 measurement; predose), and at peak concentration of test drug or active metabolites.

158 Measurements should be made approximately 1 to 3 minutes apart, using the same arm at each
159 visit. For studies with entrance criteria that include specific blood pressure ranges or cutoffs,
160 separate predose measurements should be obtained; screening measurements should not be used
161 as the baseline.

162

163 If a large blood pressure effect is not detected by clinical blood pressure measurements in early,
164 small studies, FDA recommends an ABPM study for drugs intended to be used chronically.

165

B. Recommended Use of ABPM

167

168 FDA recommends the use of ABPM rather than routine clinic blood pressure measurement for
169 drugs intended to be used chronically, as ABPM provides more accurate measurements of blood
170 pressure throughout the day.

171

172 Several factors influence the ability to detect small changes in blood pressure. First, blood
173 pressure naturally varies throughout the day (diurnal variation), as well as with meals, activity,
174 and changes in response to stress, including the stress of having one's blood pressure measured

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175 (white coat hypertension). In addition to these true variations in blood pressure, clinic blood
176 pressure measurement is associated with measurement error (e.g., calibration error, improper
177 auscultation, rounding). Given these variations, blood pressure assessment using a small number
178 of measurements may not reliably detect small, but potentially relevant, increases in blood
179 pressure. Moreover, increased nocturnal blood pressure has been recognized recently as an
180 important predictor of cardiovascular risk (Parati et al. 2014; Whelton et al. 2017).

181

182 The advantages of ABPM over clinic blood pressure measurements include the following:

183

- 184 • Assesses blood pressure effects over a 24-hour period
- 185
- 186 • Provides insight into the nocturnal blood pressure response
- 187
- 188 • Allows a more precise measure of an individual's blood pressure throughout the day
- 189
- 190 • Can be programmed to collect measurements at specified times or to capture a
191 standardized schedule of measurements over 24 hours
- 192
- 193 • Is free of potential investigator bias, including tendencies to round up or down
- 194

195

196

V. BLOOD PRESSURE ASSESSMENT: STUDY DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS FOR 197 DRUGS INTENDED FOR CHRONIC USE

198

199

A. Control Group

200

201 ABPM studies of less than 12 weeks suggest there is little or no change on placebo; whether to
202 include a placebo group may depend on a number of factors (Harrison et al. 2020). For example,
203 changes in blood pressure with time may obscure drug effects, making inclusion of a placebo
204 group desirable in studies with longer duration. A placebo control group can also be desirable
205 when design elements other than drug treatment (e.g., lifestyle modifications) could affect blood
206 pressure.

207

208 An active control is generally not needed but can provide useful information if, for example, the
209 investigational drug is a member of a chemical or therapeutic class of compounds that are known
210 to increase blood pressure. Including a member of the same class as an active control could be
211 used to compare the blood pressure effects between drugs with appropriate sample size and
212 statistical power.

213

214

B. Population

215

216 The ABPM study should be performed in the patient population for which the drug is being
217 developed, either in a targeted study or as part of a larger study already being conducted for other
218 purposes. The study may also be performed in a related patient population with characteristics
219 similar to those of the intended target patient population (i.e., similar demographic and disease-
220 specific characteristics).

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222

C. Study Design

223

224 In general, the study should be powered to exclude a 3-mmHg increase in 24-hour average
225 systolic blood pressure using an upper bound of the two-sided 95% confidence interval assuming
226 the true effect is 0 mmHg. Such an increase would lead to an increase of approximately 0.5 to 1
227 cardiovascular event per 1,000 patient years in patients with intermediate to high cardiovascular
228 risk at baseline (see Figure 1) using the ASCVD risk model. Sponsors and the review division
229 should consider the underlying cardiovascular risk in the patient population and the perceived
230 benefit of the drug when selecting an appropriate effect to be ruled out.

231

232 Blood pressure should be measured at least twice an hour over 24 hours using ABPM at baseline
233 and on-treatment to assess the overall effect; on-treatment measurements should be performed
234 only after the drug has reached its steady state effect on blood pressure. Based on a meta-analysis
235 of antihypertensive agents, which showed that maximal effect was not observed until 4 weeks of
236 treatment, we recommend that ABPM trials be of at least 4 weeks' duration (Lasserson et al.
237 2011).

238

239 In general, sponsors should present the results as 24-hour average as well as the daytime (awake)
240 and nighttime (asleep) averages. Other presentations may be appropriate depending on the
241 mechanism of action and the expected pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties of the
242 drug. Results may suggest that blood pressure elevations are related to drug concentration
243 exposure, which could, in turn, relate to dose and dosing interval. Sponsors should collect
244 pharmacokinetic samples at appropriate time points in an effort to demonstrate treatment
245 compliance and to explore the relationship between blood pressure increases and drug exposure.

246

247 If the drug increases blood pressure in the overall patient population, sponsors should obtain
248 additional information about the effects of the drug in relevant subsets of the population with
249 potentially larger blood pressure effects, if applicable (e.g., patients with preexisting
250 hypertension, patients with impaired renal status, patients at increased cardiovascular risk, older
251 patients).

252

253

VI. REGULATORY RISK ASSESSMENT

254

255
256 Large drug-induced elevations in blood pressure are relevant for all drugs, even for those
257 intended for short-term use. Smaller sustained elevations of blood pressure of even a few
258 millimeters of mercury are a concern when the drug is intended for chronic use, particularly
259 when the target population is at increased cardiovascular risk. As noted above, the increment in
260 proportional risk for a given blood pressure increase appears to be similar across the range of
261 blood pressures, including normal blood pressure. Conversely, the increase in absolute risk
262 would be very small for a person at low baseline risk (e.g., age 25, normal low-density
263 lipoprotein and high-density lipoprotein, not diabetic, and normotensive) and becomes
264 progressively greater as the number and severity of risk factors increase, as shown in Figure 1.
265 Sponsors should consider Figure 1 when formulating their approach to assessing the importance
266 of the pressor effect of a particular drug.

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267
268 The finding that a drug increases blood pressure and the magnitude and pattern of that increase
269 should be factored into the overall risk assessment for the drug. This assessment should include
270 consideration of any steps that could be taken to mitigate the risk of increased blood pressure,
271 such as patient selection, pretreatment assessments, blood pressure monitoring in some or all
272 patients, and expectant use of blood pressure–lowering treatments.

273
274

VII. LABELING CONSIDERATIONS

275
276 The ABPM study results should be generally summarized in the *Pharmacodynamics* subsection
277 in the CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY section of labeling. A brief description of the ABPM
278 study design and study population should be included regardless of whether the drug was shown
279 to increase blood pressure. If the drug is associated with an increase in blood pressure from clinic
280 blood pressure measurements or ABPM, this subsection should include the following, as
281 appropriate:
282

- 283
- 284 • Effects on systolic and/or diastolic blood pressure with the doses studied
 - 285 • The distribution of blood pressure effect sizes
 - 286 • The dose or exposure response
 - 287 • The time course of the blood pressure effect
 - 288 • Important subgroup differences in blood pressure response (e.g., demographics,
289 concomitant illness, concomitant treatments)

290
291 If a drug has been shown to increase blood pressure from clinic blood pressure measurements or
292 ABPM, the adverse reaction must be included in the ADVERSE REACTIONS section.⁴

293
294 If the drug is associated with a clinically significant increase in blood pressure (see section V.C.),
295 then the following should be included in the WARNINGS AND PRECAUTIONS section:⁵

- 296
- 297 • A description of the blood pressure increases (e.g., mean observed blood pressure effect,
298 distribution of blood pressure increases, adverse events of hypertension and related
299 terms).
 - 300
 - 301 • Clinical implications (e.g., increased risk of major adverse cardiovascular reactions,
302 including nonfatal myocardial infarction, nonfatal stroke, and cardiovascular death)
 - 303
 - 304 • Steps to take to prevent, mitigate, monitor for, or manage the blood pressure increases
305 (e.g., recommendations for checking blood pressure before and during drug treatment, for
306 use of the drug in patients at higher risk of major adverse cardiovascular reactions or

⁴ See 21 CFR 201.57(c)(7) and the guidance for industry *Adverse Reactions Section of Labeling for Human Prescription Drug and Biological Products – Content and Format* (January 2006).

⁵ See the guidance for industry *Warnings and Precautions, Contraindications, and Boxed Warning Sections of Labeling for Human Prescription Drug and Biological Products – Content and Format* (October 2011) and 21 CFR 201.57(c)(6).

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307 those taking other drugs that increase blood pressure, and for continued use of the drug in
308 patients who develop hypertension or who have exacerbation of preexisting hypertension)

309

310 Clinically significant increases in blood pressure should also be described in other sections of
311 labeling as appropriate (e.g., BOXED WARNING, CONTRAINDICATIONS).

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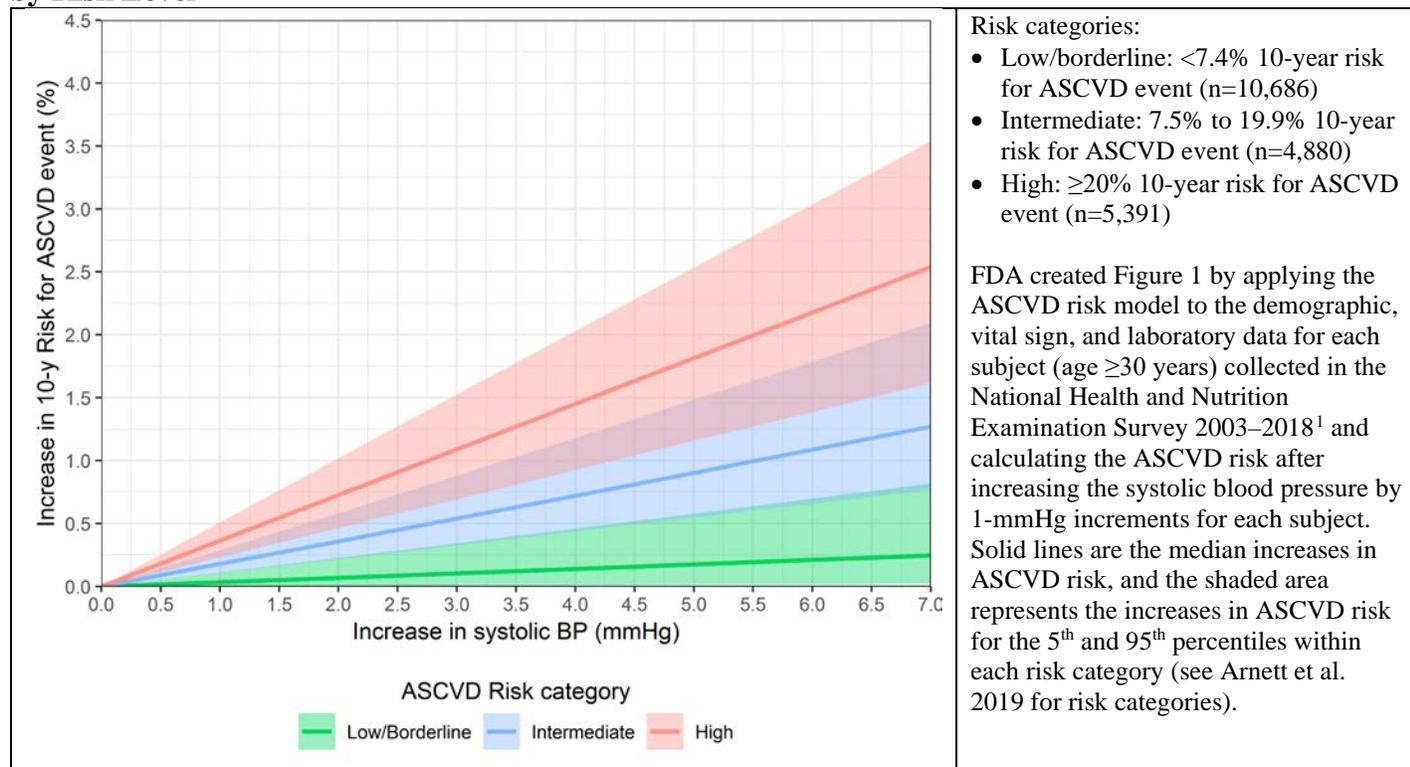
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APPENDIX

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FDA generated Figure 1 to show the expected increases in ASCVD events for a chronic elevation in systolic blood pressure (1 to 7 mmHg) in patients whose risks fall within three risk levels (low/borderline, intermediate, and high).

Figure 1: Relationship of ASCVD Events to Chronic Elevations in Systolic Blood Pressure by Risk Level



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394

¹ The National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey datasets can be found at <https://www.cdc.gov/nchs/nhanes/Default.aspx>.

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395 The relationship of lower blood pressure to lower rates of stroke and cardiovascular death are
 396 shown in Table 1 below.

397

398 **Table 1: Reduction in Blood Pressure and Cardiovascular Events with Antihypertensive**
 399 **Drugs in Placebo-Controlled Trials**

Source	Intervention	Number of Subjects	Mean Follow-Up (years)	Mean Change from Baseline in SBP / DBP (mmHg)*	Number of Events (%) [Event Rate, 1,000 patient-years]		
					Nonfatal Stroke	Nonfatal Myocardial Infarction	Cardiovascular Death
Veterans Administration Cooperative Study Group on Antihypertensive Agents (1970)	Active	186	3	-27 / -17	5** (2.7%) [NR]	5 (2.7%) [NR]	8 (4.3%) [NR]
	Placebo	194		+4 / +1	20** (10.3%) [NR]	2 (1.0%) [NR]	19 (9.8%) [NR]
European Working Party on High Blood Pressure in the Elderly Trial (Amery et al. 1985)	Active	416	3***	-33 / -16	13 (3.1%) [9]	19 (4.6%) [14]	42 (10.1%) [30]
	Placebo	424		-11 / -6	24 (5.7%) [20]	12 (2.8%) [9]	61 (14.4%) [48]
Systolic Hypertension in the Elderly Program (SHEP Cooperative Research Group 1991)	Active	2,365	4.5	-27 / -9	96 (4.1%) [NR]	50 (2.1%) [NR]	90 (3.8%) [NR]
	Placebo	2,371		-15 / -5	149 (6.3%) [NR]	74 (3.1%) [NR]	112 (4.7%) [NR]
Systolic Hypertension in Europe (Syst-Eur) Trial Investigators (Staessen et al. 1997)	Active	2,398	2	-23 / -7	34 (1.4%) [5.7]	26 (1.1%) [4.4]	59 (2.5%) [9.8]
	Placebo	2,297		-13 / -2	57 (2.5%) [10.1]	31 (1.3%) [5.5]	77 (3.4%) [13.5]

400 Abbreviations: DBP = diastolic blood pressure; SBP = systolic blood pressure; NR = not reported.

401 *Obtained using routine clinic blood pressure measurements.

402 **Cerebral vascular accident defined as either a thrombosis (clinical diagnosis) or a transient ischemic attack with
 403 objective neurological signs.

404 ***Results presented for the double-blind part of trial.