

Review Paper

Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors: a Review Concerning Dietary Tyramine and Drug Interactions

PK Gillman

PsychoTropical Research, Bucasia, Queensland, Australia

Abstract

This comprehensive monograph surveys original data on the subject of both dietary tyramine and drug interactions relevant to **Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors (MAOIs)**, about which there is much outdated, incorrect and incomplete information in the medical literature and elsewhere.

Fewer foods than previously supposed have problematically high tyramine levels because international food hygiene regulations have improved both production and handling. Cheese is the only food that has, in the past, been associated with documented fatalities from hypertension, and now almost all ‘supermarket’ cheeses are perfectly safe in healthy-sized portions. The variability of sensitivity to tyramine between individuals, and the sometimes unpredictable amount of tyramine content in foods, means a little knowledge and care are still advised.

The interactions between MAOIs and other drugs are now well understood, are quite straightforward, and are briefly summarized here (by a recognised expert). MAOIs have no apparently clinically relevant pharmaco-kinetic interactions, and the only significant pharmaco-dynamic interaction, other than the ‘cheese reaction’ (caused by **indirect sympatho-mimetic activity [ISA]**, is **serotonin toxicity ST** (aka serotonin syndrome) which is now well defined and straightforward to avoid by not co-administering any drug with **serotonin re-uptake inhibitor (SRI)** potency. There are no therapeutically used drugs, other than SRIs, that are capable of inducing serious ST with MAOIs. Anaesthesia is not contra-indicated if a patient is taking MAOIs.

Most of the previously held concerns about MAOIs turn out to be mythical: they are either incorrect, or over-rated in importance, or stem from apprehensions born out of insufficient knowledge.

Key Words

Monoamine oxidase inhibitors, hypertension, drug interactions, serotonin toxicity, decarboxylating enzymes, biogenic amines,

washout intervals, tricyclic anti-depressants (TCAs), clomipramine, imipramine, tranylcypromine, phenelzine and isocarboxazid, isoniazid, narcotic analgesics, triptans, histamine, putrescine, cadaverine, tyramine, tryptamine, 2-phenylethylamine, spermine, spermidine, methylamine, trimethylamine, scombroidosis, hypertensive urgency, hypertensive emergency, sub-lingual nifedipine, subarachnoid haemorrhage, end-organ damage, anaesthesia, indirect sympathomimetic activity, adrenaline, noradrenaline, dietary tyramine, cheese reaction, L-DOPA, dopamine, chocolate, wine, beer, chianti, aged cheeses, cured meats, pepperoni, salami, sauerkraut, kimchee, soy sauce, miso, fish sauce, yeast-extract spreads, health supplements, Marmite, broad bean pods, fava beans

Abbreviations and Synonyms

adrenaline (adrenalin or epinephrine), noradrenaline (noradrenalin or norepinephrine), serotonin (5-HT), serotonin/noradrenaline re-uptake inhibitor (SRI, NRI) or serotonin/ noradrenaline transporter (SERT/NAT or NET), monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs), serotonin toxicity (ST), Biogenic amines (BAs), tricyclic anti-depressants (TCAs), indirect sympatho-mimetic activity (ISA), 3,4-methylenedioxy-methamphetamine (MDMA, ecstasy). reversible inhibitors of monoamine oxidase A (RIMAs)

Introduction and Background

If a man is offered a fact which goes against his instincts, he will scrutinize it closely, and unless the evidence is overwhelming, he will refuse to believe it. If, on the other hand, he is offered something which affords a reason for acting in accordance with his instincts, he will accept it even on the slenderest evidence. The origin of myths is explained in this way.
Bertrand Russell, Proposed Roads to Freedom

This monograph covers diet (both food and drink), and also drug interactions, for those on MAOIs. It is intended to update, inform, and assist both medical and non-medical readers.

It is lengthy, not because the subject is difficult or complicated, but because laying myths to rest involves rather more than just ‘nay saying’. The subject of MAOIs is richly cloaked in myth.

Unfortunately, a mythical assertion oft repeated is more firmly established in the minds of uncritical thinkers than a truth stated but once.

Interactions between **monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs)** and other drugs are not a difficult problem, contrary to popular wisdom. These interactions have been well understood for some time: I have published various scientific papers relevant to this topic and am a recognised expert on **serotonin toxicity (ST)** aka ‘serotonin syndrome’ (see especially (1-6)).

MAOI interactions are neither frequent nor difficult to deal with; contrary to the impression generated by many standard texts. Experience shows problems with MAOIs are less common than with SSRIs like fluoxetine, which has multiple potentially problematic interactions and yet is still widely used (7). Side effects are frequently less with tranylcypromine than with SSRIs, which is reflected by patients' generally stated preferences concerning optimum treatments (8).

Standard texts cover many issues, within tight space constraints, so contain abbreviated discussion and information that can cause confusion because it appears to contradict the contents of more detailed specialist texts, such as this monograph.

There is now much more quality data on the tyramine levels in foods, and also on how much tyramine is likely to constitute a problem (9). Previous opinions and advice have been based on old and sometimes inaccurate data. This monograph surveys more original data on tyramine than any paper previously published. There are more than 200 new references, mostly recent, that have never been cited in the medical literature.

Biogenic amines (BAs) are heat stable: they are unaffected by all normal cooking processes. Furthermore, decarboxylating enzymes are also heat-tolerant and may survive some cooking operations, allowing continued accumulation of BAs if cooked food is then poorly refrigerated. Storage of foods below 5°C is a crucial factor, and some domestic fridges fail to maintain temperatures of below 5°C. Fridge temperatures must be checked with an accurate thermometer.

Some Common Myths

Science must begin with myths, then progress to the criticism of myths.
Karl Popper

The diet is difficult

People cannot have cheese or red wine

MAOIs have many dangerous interactions with other drugs

One cannot give an anaesthetic

It is difficult to swap to and from other drugs

One cannot combine them with **tricyclic anti-depressants (TCAs)**

They have a lot of side effects

MAOIs cause hypertension/should not be given to hypertensive patients

Tyramine reactions need urgent treatment

Patients should be given nifedipine sub-lingually

Adrenaline cannot be used

Units of Measurement and Quantities

All concentrations are given as milligrams (mg) of tyramine per kilogram (kg) or litre (L). Most food labels are legally obliged to quote information as content per 100 grams (abbreviation 100 g). Other abbreviations like: G, gm, gms and grms, are used, but ‘g’ is generally considered the correct notation.

Those living in non-metric areas will find it helpful learn to work in metric units: it is confusing to use standard servings/standard drinks or oz./pints. Some scientific papers still use different units of measurement in the same sentence (a patient weighing 180 pounds took a dose of 150 mg of a drug). That is like being told that someone is one meter 32.9 inches tall. Such practices are ultimately dangerous to people’s lives. Especially for those in the USA, see the US metric association information:

<http://lamar.colostate.edu/~hillger/common.html>

and see also

<http://www.newscientist.com/article/mg20827840.200-uks-chief-measurer-units-unite-the-world.html>

Although a small percentage of people may get a significant blood pressure increase with only 10 mg of tyramine, a substantial proportion of people need to have closer to 50 mg (in a meal) to get a *serious* blood pressure increase (i.e. systolic blood pressure [SBP] > 180 mm Hg). For a detailed analysis of the evidence relating to tyramine dose and blood pressure see Gillman (1). It is prudent to keep in mind that human responses to drugs and drug interactions vary from one individual to another and that there will always be exceptions to generalisations about doses and responses: that is one reason it is wise to monitor sitting/standing BP before and during treatment.

It is easy to work out how much tyramine is in 10 or 100 grams or milliliters of any of these foods. People should familiarize themselves with what 10 g and 100 g looks like, and what sensible food portion sizes are. Those who eat 1 kg beef steaks, or half a kilo of cheese, chocolate etc. will need to adjust to avoid trouble (and to become healthy). Some people (those with a BMI of more than 26) may benefit by consulting a dietician for explanations and education about how to eat sensibly.

BMI (body mass index) is weight in kg divided by height in meters squared. i.e. for an average man = 70 (kg)/1.7(m)²; or 70/2.89 = 24.22 Also see website information like

<http://www.win.niddk.nih.gov/publications/PDFs/justenough.pdf>

For a majority of those who already follow healthy eating amounts and patterns the low tyramine diet involves almost no changes at all. Healthy portion sizes of cheese are approximately what is safe tyramine-wise: i.e. 100 grams of cheese in a meal is an unhealthily large portion. A healthy portion is 25 grams. Few cheeses (even 'mature' cheeses) contain more than 25 mg of tyramine in 100 grams (25 mg in 100 g = 250 mg/kg). So a 25 gram portion contains only 6 mg of tyramine and that is unlikely to cause a significant blood pressure increase even in tyramine-sensitive individuals. Matured cheeses contain between 2 and 3.5 g of salt per 100 g (10), or 20-35 g/kg. The recommended daily salt intake has now been reduced by some authorities to around 1-2 g daily: adequate intake 1 g, upper limit 2-3 g.

<http://www.nrv.gov.au/nutrients/sodium.htm>

So 30 g of a typical cheese provides 1 g of salt, which constitutes a person's whole daily need for salt.

Even if excessive tyramine is ingested and BP increase occurs, serious consequences are unlikely providing appropriate action is taken. That will usually mean nothing more than monitoring blood pressure for a 2-3 hours.

Hasty and alarmist treatment of high BP by inexperienced doctors produces a risk of doing catastrophic harm. Current expert opinion strongly advocates that hypertensive urgencies should be dealt with in hospital, preferably in an ICU setting. If action is deemed mandatory before that can be effected, the safest intervention is undoubtedly a sedative dose of a benzodiazepine (see below).

Monitoring Blood Pressure While on MAOIs

It is quite simple to monitor blood pressure with an electronic BP monitoring device (upper-arm cuff, not wrist/finger cuff). All those on MAOIs should be schooled to keep a blood pressure record from the beginning of treatment (including a one week pre-treatment base-line record). The drop in blood pressure on standing is a good indication of whether MAOIs are having a sufficient effect. There is further explanation on Psychotropical.com [[Here](#)] explaining blood pressure monitoring and MAOIs.

There are good reasons for blood pressure monitoring:

- 1) Although most people will only react to larger amounts of tyramine there is wide variation in the population and a minority of the population will experience greater BP elevation with relatively smaller doses of tyramine. Therefore monitoring the BP will soon reveal those who are in the tyramine-sensitive group and warn of the need for extra care about diet (or addition of a **Noradrenaline re-uptake inhibitor (NRI)**- see below).

2) BP drop on standing is the best measure of the effectiveness of a given dose and essential to optimal speed of adjustment to the final effective dose, whilst avoiding problems of excessive fainting from postural hypotension.

Part 1

Introduction to Dietary Guide

'Dis-moi ce que tu manges, je te dirai qui tu es'
(Tell me what you eat, and I will tell you what you are)
Anthelme Brillat-Savarin Physiologie du Goût 1825

The drugs discussed in this monograph belong to the group called **Mono-Amine Oxidase Inhibitors (MAOIs)**. The enzyme **Mono-Amine Oxidase (MAO)** has two sub-types, A and B. This information is most relevant for irreversible MAO-AB inhibitors (the most common are **tranylcypromine, phenelzine and isocarboxazid**) and less important for various other types of MAOI.

Persons on these drugs may be advised to keep some means of identifying the fact that they are on MAOIs readily available. Similar steps as may be taken with insulin dependent diabetes and those suffering epilepsy are appropriate; this is in case of accidents or emergencies. This may be: medical alert bracelet, and/or information in handbag or purse or wallet.

All treating medical practitioners should be informed if a patient is taking MAOIs. Generally, advice on MAOIs should come from specialist psycho-pharmacologists, general psychiatrist may have insufficient knowledge to manage MAOIs optimally. Almost all the information on the Internet is significantly inaccurate, and even the information on sites of educational institutes may be out-dated and misleading.

The information provided here is authoritative; I have published multiple recent papers in prestigious scientific journals on the pharmacology of MAOIs and **tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs)** and their interactions and I have a great deal of first-hand practical experience, see especially references: (1-3, 5, 6, 9, 11-14).

The Mechanism of Tyramine Formation

Tyramine formation in foods requires the availability of the amino acid precursor tyrosine and the presence of micro-organisms with amino acid decarboxylase enzyme activity. If favourable conditions for their growth and decarboxylating activity exist then tyramine, and other **biogenic amines (BA)** like histamine, cadaverine and putrescine may accumulate in foods.

Tyrosine, but little or no tyramine, is present at up to 20 mg/kg in animal protein sources, but is generally lower in plants (see below for exceptions). That is why fresh properly stored foods are always safe. Animal protein can accumulate tyramine if allowed to go off. Meat,

fish etc. must be stored at a fridge temperature of less than 5°C. Meats that have been minced are especially prone to bacterial contamination. Poorly handled mince that has been improperly refrigerated could accumulate significant tyramine quite quickly. That is why meat and fish processing must now take place at below 4°C by regulation in most countries. Few people in western society would now accept green rotten smelly meat, but eating meat like that was common practice in times gone by, and still is in some places.

Histamine, putrescine, cadaverine, tyramine, tryptamine, 2-phenylethylamine, spermine and spermidine are the most important BAs in foods (15-19); that is why smell (putrescine – putrid) is a helpful guide for what to avoid.

Measurement of Biogenic Amines

Much progress and refinement of measurement techniques of tyramine and biogenic amines in food has been made. Older estimations of tyramine concentrations may sometimes be inaccurate because the isolation of amines from complex food matrices is not simple, and usually a derivatisation procedure needs to be applied to enable analysis by methods such as liquid chromatography (LC), or gas chromatography (GC) with various detectors, including a mass spectrometer (15, 20-23). Techniques are continuing to become better, faster, and less costly, so the amount of data are continuing to accumulate rapidly (20). Google scholar finds around 1000 references for 'biogenic amines food wine' since 2014 (search performed Oct 2015).

Toxicity of Biogenic Amines

Some BAs are toxic above a certain fairly low concentration. The amine most commonly implicated in toxicity in humans is histamine, which is responsible for the type of poisoning that occurs when spoiled fish is eaten. That is called scombroidosis. Recent reviews of the toxicity of amines give up-to-date information (15, 16, 24, 25).

The Symptoms of a Hypertensive Reaction

A reaction is a progressive increase of **blood pressure BP** over 30 - 60 minutes (faster for liquids taken on an empty stomach) and usually manifests first as a forceful thumping heartbeat.. The heart rate usually becomes slower (26-29), in response to the increase in BP. If **systolic blood pressure (SBP)** goes above around 180 mm Hg quite rapid onset of severe headache is usual (although headache is not a reliable indicator of high BP). Tightness in the chest, paleness (pallor) may occur. The degree of increase in BP is proportional to the amount of tyramine ingested. Symptoms start soon after ingestion, usually within 30 minutes. Any symptoms, including headache, starting more than two hours after eating are

unlikely to be due to a hypertensive reaction as the duration of the reaction is usually not more than 1 – 2 hours.

An SBP of 180 mmHg or more, sustained over 3 measurements in 10 minutes or so, performed in a calm setting with an accurate sphygmomanometer is now referred to as a ‘hypertensive urgency’. If ‘end organ’ dysfunction is present it is called a ‘hypertensive emergency’. End organ dysfunction is uncommon unless **diastolic blood pressure (DBP)** is greater than 130 mmHg.

In hypertensive urgencies the treatment aim is to reduce BP slowly over 24 – 48 hrs. Since tyramine reactions are self-limiting over 2 – 4 hrs it is clear they will rarely require intervention.

Tyramine in Foods and Beverages

Myth: The diet is difficult. One cannot have cheese or red wine

Key Facts

- For people who already follow healthy eating (and drinking) amounts a low tyramine diet involves few changes
- Only some foods that are past their shelf-life or ‘off’, or those prepared using maturation and ‘fermenting’ techniques, can *sometimes* have high tyramine
- The increased blood pressure reaction that can result from excess tyramine ingestion is proportional to the amount of tyramine ingested
- Very few foods or drinks have tyramine levels sufficiently high that a small amount (i.e. 50 grams or ml, or less) is *likely* to cause a risky degree of hypertension
- Modern cheeses are safe in healthy-sized portions. Only a few mature or aged cheeses can *sometimes* have higher tyramine concentrations, so care and awareness is needed
- If a reaction occurs the chance of coming to serious harm is remote
- The symptoms of a reaction are: a thumping forceful heartbeat (usually a **slower** than normal pulse rate), paleness (pallor), rapid onset severe headache, tightness in the chest. Pulse may drop as low as 40 beats per minute
- The wide variability of sensitivity to tyramine between individuals means that a small percentage of people may notice reactions with smaller doses
- It is a good idea to monitor blood pressure
- Double-check the compatibility of medications: see below

- There are few over-the-counter drugs that are a problem, because the ephedrine type drugs (with **indirect sympathomimetic activity [ISA]**) have been taken off the market (in many countries). Drugs with significant ISA activity (see below) may be risky.

General Comments

'The pleasures of the table belong to all men and to all ages, and of all pleasures remain the last, to console us for the passing of the rest.'
Anthelme Brillat-Savarin

This monograph reviews tyramine concentrations as indicated by a large body of food science research. Tyramine concentrations for ordinary foods depend on storage time and storage conditions. Modern food hygiene and handling practices and regulations in civilised countries mean that excess tyramine levels are unheard of in 'fresh' foods. That leaves those foods that are deliberately produced using micro-organisms, which is what the major part of this monograph is about.

Minimising or avoiding the few risky foods and beverages that do exist is easy and necessary whilst taking MAOIs. Only a few foods can build up the degree of excess tyramine (hundreds of mg/kg) that can make the BP go dangerously high. The seriousness of any BP reaction is in proportion to the amount of tyramine that is consumed i.e. it is a dose-related effect: that is why it is permissible and safe to cautiously 'test' small quantities of some foods e.g. your favourite cheese.

This monograph does not deal individually with compound foods, e.g. pizza. Such foods can have various types of ingredients that may have widely different tyramine contents. The total tyramine content of such foods will depend on the individual ingredients, but a little common sense and calculation, from the information herein, will yield a estimate of the tyramine content.

Tyramine only accumulates in significant quantities when tyrosine is converted to tyramine by decarboxylase enzymes possessed by some, but not all, micro-organisms (see e.g. (30)). The only foods that have enough tyramine in them to cause significant reactions are those that have been subjected to the action of these particular types of micro-organisms. However, modern food hygiene standards are such as to make that increasingly rare, because biogenic amines like tyramine are monitored as part of food hygiene control audits (15, 31). Also, special starter cultures that have no decarboxylating micro-organisms in them have been developed and are now used in most commercial production processes. These minimise the proliferation of undesirable bacteria (cf. yoghurt, below) and thereby lessen or prevent tyramine formation.

A potentially serious BP reaction can only occur if a relatively large amount of tyramine is eaten or drunk. For those on MAOIs most people (> 50% of the population) will need to ingest at least 25 mg of tyramine. A small proportion of people are more sensitive to tyramine and in such subjects 10 mg may be enough to cause a potentially serious BP elevation. Most foods with elevated tyramine (like matured cheeses) actually have no more than 250 mg/kg. Therefore quantities of up to 100 grams of such a cheese (and that constitutes an unhealthily-large portion size) are likely to be safe for most people. Further discussion and references concerning this are set out in Finberg & Gillman (9).

Some of the earliest work on this subject remains instructive. The original papers by Blackwell, e.g. (32, 33), summarize very well some of the basic points that are in this monograph. Seminal early research on the tyramine content of cheeses was done by Kosikowski, e.g. (34). It is interesting to note that the series of papers he authored in the 1950s have not been cited in the medical literature, except, it seems, by Blackwell (33)*.

*derived from Google scholar 'cited by' links

Blackwell commented that almost all cases of the 'cheese reaction' then reported (1965) implicated cheddar cheese, some of which had been assayed as having around 3,500 mg/kg of tyramine (35), which greatly exceeds (by one order of magnitude) the values found in any assays of similar cheeses in the current era.

The explanation for the absence of data about tyramine in the medical literature is that medical writers, almost exclusively, have only searched for papers using the medical literature databases (i.e. 'PubMed' etc.). However, PubMed does not include the food science & related research journals, and it is in such journals that the data actually reside. A recent example of only citing papers from the medical literature databases is exemplified by the citations in Flockhart's 2012 review (36), which astonishingly, although calling itself an 'update', has no original references about tyramine after 1996, and no data at all from the food science literature.

Most of the references herein come from the food science literature, so a majority of them will not be located by 'PubMed' searches.

Only very rarely encountered foods will now have high tyramine concentrations, such as 1,000 mg/kg, or greater.

Dairy Products, Cheeses etc.

Cheese: 'Milks' leap towards immortality'
Clifton Fadiman

Most cheeses now have low tyramine levels (< 10 mg/kg), whether they are hard, semi-hard, acid-curd or soft (21, 23, 37-40).

It is likely that the unusually high concentrations of 1,000 – 2,000 mg/kg or more reported occasionally in older samples will no longer occur because food regulations have driven widespread reductions of tyramine levels, especially through the use of starter cultures (15, 40).

Matured and ‘artisanal’ cheeses can sometimes develop high concentrations of tyramine (~ 1,000 mg/kg), although many are surprisingly low. ‘Matured’ usually means aged for more than 3 months (typically 6 months or more), rather than just a few weeks.

Contrary to what one might assume from the (lack of) data in the medical literature (36, 41-44) there have been thousands of tyramine estimations performed from cheeses all over the world: a selection of studies with extensive and varied sampling is given here to illustrate this.

Almost all commercial lower priced ‘processed’ and ‘supermarket’ cheeses are low in tyramine (always <200 mg/kg, usually in the range of 0 – 50 mg/kg) because ‘supermarket’ type outlets require large quantities of produce (i.e. industrial-scale, not artisan), and low prices do not pay for long warehouse ageing (i.e. more than 3 months).

Bunkova et al. recently reviewed the widely marketed Edam-style cheese (38). As they point out:

“Optimum ripening time of these products is 6–10 weeks, usually at a temperature of 10–14 °C. However, nowadays, young cheeses (2–4 weeks old) are delivered to retail by many producers for economic reasons.” They studied tyramine levels during maturation and storage and noted particularly that “In all ripening/storage regimes tested, the highest content of tyramine, putrescine and cadaverine was found in the edge [rind]. On the other hand, the lowest content was detected in the cheese core.”

They found that tyramine levels increased in approximately linear fashion over time, being 60 mg/kg at 60 days and reaching a maximum of 120 mg/kg at 100 days in the outer layer (rind) and less in the core, 70 mg/kg.

Processed Cheese

Processed cheese generally has low levels of tyramine. Ibrahim et al. analysed 45 samples of processed cheese made from a variety of types and found the mean was ~ 200 mg/kg for cheddar styles, and 100 mg/kg for Gouda styles, however, there were a small number of samples that were rather higher, the maximum being 800 mg/kg. (45). Note, these were shelf samples from Egyptian retail outlets, who knows how long they had been on the shelf?

Classic Matured (Hard, Semi-hard) Cheeses

French

Francophiles may be surprised to be reminded that there are relatively few French hard cheeses and even fewer that are available outside France, examples are: Cantal, Comté, Emmental (generally produced industrially) and Mimolette (Edam-like).

Comté AOC: Mayer: tyramine 0 mg/kg (23). Comté is essentially the same as Swiss Gruyere, but still mostly in the hands of small producers, whereas Swiss Gruyere is almost entirely large scale co-operatives. One would therefore predict the Swiss types would be even lower in tyramine.

Cantal: Mayer: 0 mg/kg (23).

Italian

Parmigiano Reggiano: aged 24 and 30 months, tyramine 20 – 150 mg/kg (39), but Mayer (23) found levels < 10 mg/kg in the 6 samples he tested*

*Table 2, note the blank spaces in this table denote 'undetectable' as confirmed with Mayer (personnel communication).

Grano Padana (12 & 22 months old) all samples tyramine < 130 mg/kg. Mayer (23) found undetectable levels.

The Spizzirri paper included a wide range of cheeses (mostly Italian), Grana Padano, Pecorino, Provolone, Ripened goat cheese, Emmentaler, Taleggio, Bel Paese and more, none of which had more than 200 mg/kg of tyramine.

Italian pecorino (46). This paper reviews tyramine levels in a wide variety of pecorino cheeses made from all the different significant producing regions of Italy. Some of them are very "artisan" type cheeses and there is great variation. Many have quite low levels in the region of 100 - 200 mg/kg, but one particular example, Pecorino Del Parco Di Migliarino San Rossore, exceeds 1000 mg/kg.

British

Cheddar: young cheddar (4 weeks) all tyramine < 50 mg/kg, at 36 weeks maturation all samples < 160 mg/kg (47) and Mayer (23) found levels of tyramine 0 mg/kg.*

*Note the great difference from the old assays, one or two orders of magnitude, < 50 mg/kg vs. the old value of around 3,500 mg/kg of tyramine (35, 48).

Dutch

Gouda is a very widely copied cheese style which when young is semi-soft and hardens with age. Real aged Dutch Gouda is called "Oude kaas (10-12 months old), Overjarige kaas (18 months old).

Tyramine levels will vary with age, younger ones seem to have very low levels, older ones 100 – 250 mg/kg (23).

Dutch-type semi-hard cheeses mostly tyramine < 50 mg/kg, max 250 (49, 50).

Swiss

Gruyere: tyramine < 100 mg/kg (39)

Emmental: tyramine 0 - 68 mg/kg (23) and Spizzirri (39) 16 mg/kg.

Other Cheeses (Non-Hard)

Brie and Camembert Styles (Un-Washed Rind)

Normally these cheese styles (mould-ripened soft cheeses) are only matured for 4 weeks before release, so low tyramine levels are expected. Tyramine concentrations are less now than in the past because of starter cultures and better storage (see below for older results). Thus it is no surprise to find that the latest estimations using modern assay techniques give very low tyramine levels of < 10 mg/kg.

Mayer et al. looked at examples from Austria, Denmark and France and found negligible tyramine levels (maximum of 5 mg/kg) in 5 different types of un-washed rind soft cheeses (23).

Some older papers have reported much higher levels which may be explained by poor production and storage and/or faulty assays; Horwitz (51, 52) found tyramine ~ 100 mg/kg. Other older papers found undetectable levels (34).

Colonna (1970s): Camembert (French), 20 samples, most had low levels of tyramine ~ 100 mg/kg, but showing large variation up to 1800 mg/kg (53).

De Vuyst: Brie tyramine 0 – 400 mg/kg, camembert very low, maximum 20 mg/kg (48).

Voight: Brie tyramine 0 – 260 mg/kg (54).

Washed Rind Cheeses

Washed rind cheeses (Epoisses is the classic) seem to have even lower tyramine levels than unwashed rind like Brie and Camembert Styles, (55, 56).

Others

Acid-curd cheeses. Some coagulated (curdled) using rennet, but some undergo curdling by bacterial lactic acid fermentation and these might be expected to contain tyramine. See below under 'Austrian' (37).

Feta style: generally low tyramine but ‘older’ examples creep up a bit to 250 mg/kg at 120 days of age(57).

Austrian

A recent (2013) and extensive analysis of 47 different Austrian cheeses, particularly ripened acid-curd cheeses, is detailed in Fiechter et al. (37). Most have low tyramine levels of < 100 mg/kg, only 18/47 samples were > 100 mg/kg). The median concentration for tyramine was 30 mg/kg. One sample of aged acid curd (Ennstaler Steirerkäse with crumble texture) was the highest was at nearly 2,000 mg/kg).

Roquefort and Roquefort Styles

Roquefort and Roquefort style ‘traditional’ cheeses (all made with *Penicillium roqueforti*), these include: Fourme d’Ambert, Bleu de Bresse, Gorgonzola, Stilton, Cabrales, Gamonedo and the ‘industrially-produced’ types Danish Blue, Bleu d’Auvergne, Edelpilzkäse, Mycella.

Roquefort 4 samples: tyramine 0 mg/kg (23).

Blue cheese, Czech (58, 59): the mean and median being tyramine 380 mg/kg and 289 mg/kg, respectively) and, different cheeses (vats) varied widely, from 10 mg/kg, to 875 mg/kg.

Non-Matured Cheeses, Yogurt, Milk

Cheese spreads

These occupy an in-between position in that it depends on what they are made from: some higher quality cheese spreads are made from proper vintage cheeses, some of which may be relatively high tyramine. As an example, ‘Parmareggio’ cheese spread clocked in at tyramine 40 mg/kg, not unduly high but significant if one was to eat a whole tub of it (39). On the other hand, most spreads are like commercial cream cheeses and contain no tyramine.

Unripened Cheese Styles

Fresh non-matured, i.e. unripened/unaged, cheese styles, and yoghurt, are always safe because milk itself has no tyramine, e.g. curd styles, *fromage frais*, mascarpone, cream, ricotta, mozzarella, cottage cheeses, bocconcini. Mozzarella, Ricotta.

Spizzirri et al. assayed multiple samples, tyramine, none, 0 mg/kg (39).

Unripened cheeses: 10 samples (60) tyramine < 0.5 mg/kg.

Goats cheese (61), unripened ‘frais’ styles, usually tyramine < 5 mg/kg, many 0 mg/kg (39).

Aged goats cheeses will be higher, usually low tyramine < 10 mg/kg (39), but some may be rather higher, e.g. 70 mg/kg (61).

Milk and Yogurt

In France, the regulations are strict. To be called yoghurt milk must be fermented by *Lactobacillus bulgaricus* and *Streptococcus thermophilus* (no decarboxylase activity, so no tyramine), via starter cultures. Bacteria have to be at least at 10,000,000 CFU/g till the end of shelf-life.

That means it is virtually impossible for tyramine producing bacteria to gain a footing: so yoghurt has no tyramine. Novella-Rodriguez, 5 samples, no tyramine (60, 62).

Cho, Korea, Yoghurt, 8 samples, max tyramine of 4 mg/kg (63).

But, be warned, if you are holidaying in the Himalayas, watch out for Tibetan traditional fermented yak milk which may have tyramine 900 mg/L (64).

Fermented Vegetables/Cereals (inc. Sauces)

Fermented Cereals: Background History

A little caution is appropriate regarding sourdough bread because it can accumulate tyramine to a level of several hundred mg/kg, as can other similarly prepared foodstuffs widespread in other countries (see below).

Almost from the dawn of agricultural practice humans have learnt to increase the palatability and digestibility of legumes (see Soya) and cereals through the use of fermentation, both with yeasts and bacteria. Yeast fermentation does not give rise to tyramine, but bacterial fermentation can do, depending on the types of bacteria and their decarboxylating activity.

The United Nations food and agriculture organisation (FAO) classify cereal-related products a) on the basis of raw cereal ingredients:

- a) wheat-based foods e.g. bouza, kishk
- b) rice-based foods e.g. busa
- c) maize-based foods e.g. ogi, bread, kenkey
- d) millet based foods e.g. kunuzaki
- e) sorghum based foods e.g. pito, ogi, bogobe, kisra, burukutu, kisra, injera
- f) barley based foods e.g. beer

and b) on the basis of texture:

- a) liquid (gruel) e.g. ogi, mahewu, burukutu, pito, uji
- b) solid (dough) and dumplings e.g. kenkey, agidi
- c) dry (bread) e.g. kisra, injera

There are many dozens of local names for such preparations, for details consult culinary works, Wikipedia, google etc.

Sourdough bread

In the modern world the most prominent cereal-related solid-food vestige of these ancient fermentation practices is sourdough bread. This differs from normal bread because it utilises bacterial activity in the starter culture for making the dough. Just as with all other fermentation techniques this will not produce significant levels of tyramine if standardised starter cultures (with minimal decarboxylase activity) are used, as is now generally the case with commercial production. However, Artisan producers may well utilise cultures with greater decarboxylase activity. Therefore their products may sometimes contain significant levels of tyramine.

Recent research indicates what would be expected by anybody who has understood the contents of this monograph. Preparations made with standardised starter cultures are generally low in tyramine but there are some exceptions, usually home-made and locally made Artisan-type produce. Rizzello found tyramine levels of around 700 mg/kg in sourdough fermented wheat germ (65).

Özdestan has investigated various similar Turkish foods and found lowish tyramine levels (66-68): like kumru (ten samples of from different manufacturers in Turkey) < 5mg/kg, shalgam (20 samples) < 50 mg/kg, and tarhana (20 samples) 50 – 100 mg/kg.

Marmite, Bovril, Promite, Vegemite etc.

It is likely that changes in the way these products are prepared in recent years have lowered the tyramine content; but there are not many measurements to rely on.

Marmite is made from the residual brewer's yeast and the first production facility was near the Bass beer brewery in Burton on Trent: production started in 1902. It had/has relatively high amounts of biogenic amines ~ 320 mg/kg of tyramine (69) and 650 mg/kg of tyramine (70). Both those are rather less than Blackwell's original estimate (32, 71, 72) of around 1,500 mg/kg, which may represent a change in production technique, or inaccuracies in measurement. One would need to take 30 ml to get 10 mg tyramine, which is more than is usually consumed.

Marmite-like spreads are somewhat similar to soy sauce and 'miso' which also involve 'fermentation' of brews containing non-animal proteins. They are usually used in small amounts, which can be safely eaten. A teaspoon (5 mls) of 'Marmite' would have only 5/1000 x 300 mg of tyramine, i.e. only a couple of milligrams.

Soy Bean Products

All *fermented* soy bean products like sauce and paste are prone to have significant tyramine levels.

For a list of fermented soy bean products see Wikipedia

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_fermented_soy_products

Non-fermented products like (most) tofu have no tyramine (73).

Soy sauce, Natto, Miso and Sufu etc.

Soy sauce is made from steamed soybeans, roast wheat and Koji fungus, the moromi mash may then ferment for as much as 2 years after which it is filtered and pasteurised. Soya beans have no tyramine; it is produced slowly during the fermentation reaching typical concentrations of ~150 mg per kilo (litre) after many months. Miso is similar. The story with these products is an echo of the fermented cereal picture, just with beans as opposed to grains, so levels may vary (74-76).

Japanese soy sauce: Maximum tyramine 940 mg/L (i.e. approx 1 mg/ml). Most samples measured have ranged between 10-200 mg/L (77). Maximum tyramine concentrations in the past may have been as high as 1000 mg/L, so 25 ml of that would have contained 25 mg of tyramine.

Most supermarket Soy sauces actually have tyramine levels around 100 mg/L.

Yongmeia (78), 40 samples of Chinese soy, mostly tyramine less than 200 mg/L (20 of the 40 were < 100 mg/kg). 'The total content for the five biogenic amines in these samples was 497 mg/L with a range from 41.7 to 1357 mg/L. The concentrations for each of the five amines were: tyramine 0–673 mg/L, histamine 0–592 mg/L, cadaverine 0–550 mg/L, spermidine 0–486 mg/L and spermine' 0–145 mg/L.

Stute (79), 23 samples soy, all low tyramine < 200, except one clocked a staggering 6,000 mg/kg (dead rat in the vat? or just a typo for 600?).

Miso, 5 samples tyramine ~ 20 mg/L (63), and 22 samples (80).

Other soy derived products like miso soup and sufu (63, 81) generally have similar concentrations. Miso, 5 samples tyramine < 25 mg/kg (63), and soy sauce tyramine < 50 mg/kg (63). Sufu Taiwan, histamine 150 mg/kg (82), and Miso 40 samples tyramine all < 10 mg/kg (80) but some rather higher (83).

'Natto' is another fermented soya bean preparation that sometimes achieves high tyramine levels, although < 100 mg/kg is typical (76, 84).

Soybean pastes ('Doenjang' etc.), of 23 samples most had undetectable levels, but a couple were > 1,000 mg/kg (85).

Fermented Sauces: Animal

Fish sauces

In classical Roman cooking fish sauce was called garum or liquamen. They are ubiquitous now, but deeply rooted in Far Eastern cuisine. Seafood, often anchovy, is allowed to ferment ~ 140 - 200 days. Names: Nuoc-Mam (Vietnam), Nam-Pla (Thailand), Budu (Malaysia), or Patis (Philippines) ketjap-ikan (Indonesia), ngapi (Burma), ishiru or shottsuru (Japan), colombo-cure (India Pakistan), yeosu (China), aekjeot (Korea). For more see Wikipedia, and for a recent reviews refs (17, 63, 79). NB Cho is in Korean, but the tables of values are readable.

They will, like everything, vary a bit with producer and hygiene quality, but seem usually to be OK, 200 – 500 mg/kg (bearing in mind its is, like soy sauce, a condiment, so if used in modest amounts (no more than ~ 20 grams) will be safe (86).

Korean fermented fish products tyramine < 50 mg/kg (63), liquid fish sauce made from a variety of things, scallop, squid etc tyramine average 350, max (anchovy) 600 mg/kg (63).

Stute (79), 45 commercial fish sauces from the Far East, most < 200 mg/kg, maximum 588 mg/kg for tyramine.

Worcestershire sauce is fermented and contains anchovies (at least the original 'Lea & Perrins' version). There are many different producers of such sauces called 'Worcestershire' or 'Worcester' and there is no data on their tyramine content, but it is reasonable to assume it will be variable and similar to other fish sauces, probably lower. If used in condiment quantities it is unlikely to add a significant tyramine load to a meal.

Meat and Fish Products

Fresh and frozen meat and meat products are safe, but if they are not fresh, i.e. if they have been subject to decomposition by micro-organisms, then they could be risky. Fresh liver has no tyramine (87), but if stored badly or past its 'use by' date when purchased, and then kept in a domestic fridge that is not cold enough, may become risky (88, 89). The Hedberg paper (88) is a great illustration of good observation and investigation.

Ordinary commercial supermarket beef is not usually aged and concentrations of tyramine are likely to be < 10 mg/kg. Galgano, 7 mg/kg after 8 days at +4°C (90).

Similarly, liver pate (and similar meat or fish pastes) are safe if freshly made and properly refrigerated (i.e. *below* 4°C), especially because such foods are normally consumed in small portions. No specific modern data is available as yet, but the lessons enumerated herein tell us what is likely. Liver (91) has no tyramine, but once processed and contaminated with bugs it would be an ideal culture medium, so any laxity in hygienic preparation, storage time and temperature will result in a steady increase in tyramine. Concentrations of tyramine 100 – 500 mg/kg are likely in contaminated and badly stored product after a week or two.

Meat, Fresh

General

Fresh meats contain no significant amounts of tyramine, for a review of amines in meat (and vegetables) see especially Kalac (92-94) . Also, for discussion see(95-97).

Stored *chilled* meats are safe (i.e. < 10 mg/kg) (90, 93, 98). Beef: stored at –18°C for 178 days, tyramine max tyramine <4 mg/kg (98, 99).

Poultry

Chicken- refrigerated for 20 days at a temperature of +4±1°C in a domestic refrigerator. Tyramine level at one day - 3 mg/kg, 20 days - 15 mg/kg (100-103). Moreira found well stored product < 5 mg/kg. Poultry: insignificant levels (104-108).

Duck- tyramine 0 (107).

Minced and Ground Beef

Minced and ground beef and ‘hamburgers’ are potentially problematic because any contaminant bacteria are mixed into a medium (mince) with a large surface area, which may then be sub-optimally stored. It is therefore reassuring to find assays have found negligible levels of tyramine < 3 mg/kg (109). It might also be observed that, in North America alone, ‘they’ sell several million burgers per year and there are no reports of tyramine reactions associated with burgers.

Beef

Beef (stored above 0°C) can have significant tyramine concentrations: stored at +4°C for 21 days, 60 mg/kg, and after 36 days at +4°C 120 mg/kg (96). Such meat is usually only available in the restaurant trade (at a high price!), but could contribute to excessive tyramine intake as part of a gourmet meal. However, there are no reports of reactions with beef in 50 years (cf. liver, a couple of reports of reactions in 50 years).

Pork

Pork and fresh pork products, not surprisingly, have no tyramine (105-107).

Offal

Fresh offal contains no tyramine. Kidneys, liver, duck giblets etc (91, 105, 107, 110, 111), all had no tyramine.

Sausages, Pâté, Meat Pastes

These have minimal tyramine unless poorly stored (112-114).

Meats, Preserved

Dry-Cured Meats

As with all *dry cured* meat products (as opposed to fermented ones) only low concentrations of tyramine are expected, Lorenzo found < 5 mg/kg (115), which agrees with (116). So 'Parma ham', pastirma, jamon, prosciutto, coppa etc will all be safe. (117) max 15 mg/kg.

Fermented Sausages

Concentrations of tyramine depend, as would be predicted, on the hygienic quality of the meat used and the strains of bacteria involved. Those produced with frozen meat (low temperature processing) usually have maximum concentrations of about 100 mg/kg. The improved starter cultures, now widely used, show a lack of, or much diminished, amino acid decarboxylase activity which results in lower concentrations of BAs (30, 118-122).

In their 2003 paper, 'Biogenic amines in dry fermented sausages: a review' Suzzi reviewed 20 studies from all over Europe (123) and found tyramine was usually below 200 mg/kg, very few samples were higher (116). Suzzi '*In the several reports concerning the Spanish dry fermented sausages Chorizo, Fuet, Sobrasada and Salsichon, tyramine was generally detected at the higher concentration (exceeding 600 mg/kg in some sausages with mean values of about 200 mg/kg).*'

In Spanish fermented sausages Chorizo, Fuet, Sobrasada and Salsichon tyramine was detected at up to 600 mg/kg in some sausages, with mean values of about 200 mg/kg (124).

French sausages, both artisanal and industrial, had tyramine maxima of 270 mg/kg (123, 125).

Hygiene and low temperature processing continue to improve steadily, more recent surveys all find generally lower concentrations (120, 126, 127).

Latorre-Moratalla et al. is a good recent review: they found an average of 150 mg/kg, max < 200 mg/kg. The study received financial support from the European community project:

‘Assessment and improvement of safety of traditional dry sausages from producers to consumers’ (QLK1 CT-2002-02240, Website: www.clermont.inra.fr/tradisausage/). It is a good example of the efforts being made to monitor and improve hygiene standards.

Preparations of Stock Cubes, Powders, Bouillon, etc.

These are not prepared by fermentation but are flavoured extracts and reductions, therefore they are most unlikely to be high in tyramine. Populin tested broths (homemade or canned products from the market), soups (ready-to-eat soups, condensed soups and creams), soup bases (bouillon cubes, pastes and granulated powders), sauces and salad dressings from the European and US markets (69). They found none exceeded tyramine 10 mg/kg.

Fish

Fresh Fish

Levels of both tyramine and histamine may be increased in poorly refrigerated produce. However, with fish spoilage it is notable that histamine can be greatly elevated without significant elevation of tyramine (128). Many regulations limit histamine, to between 50 (USA) and 200 mg/kg (EU). Histamine itself causes Scombroidosis (18, 129), see below. Freshness and low-temperature handling is everything, and quality control and screening of imported produce continues to be a powerful force for improving hygiene and handling world-wide (106, 130).

A recent review confirmed low tyramine levels in properly handled raw and processed seafood (129).

Fresh fish usually has 2 – 5 mg/kg tyramine (131). Whole and filleted trout kept on ice for up to 18 days, max at 18 days was 7 mg/kg (132, 133). Frozen fish 1 mg/kg (134).

Herring, fresh, stored on ice (i.e. ~ 2°C) < 5 mg/kg (135, 136). Storage conditions varied a little, but histamine reached 400 mg/kg whilst tyramine was low. After reaching a maximum of 100 mg/kg after seven days, tyramine then decreased on storage to 15 mg/kg at 15 days.

Chilled fresh and frozen or thawed salmon (131, 137) had a max of 40 mg/kg at end of shelf life.

Concerning histamine in fish, see (138).

Cured Fish

Various types of fish (especially salmon) are ‘cooked’ using food acids (see also ‘pickling’). The most widely known dish using this technique is Gravlax, gravad lax (and various other spellings and derivations) which originated in the Scandinavian countries and has

been adopted in America, especially in Jewish culture where the name has transmuted to 'lox'. The data elsewhere in this monograph allow confidence that fresh hygienically prepared fish done in this manner would be expected to be completely safe. However, as with vegetables, deliberately fermented, or matured, product may develop significant tyramine concentrations.

Smoked Fish

Smoked salmon (139) dry-salted, traditional smoking, sliced, vacuum-packed stored nine days at 4°C and 19 at 8°C contained no tyramine.

Cold smoked salmon tyramine < 20 mg/kg (140).

Dried Fish

Dried salted Tuna roe, tyramine was 90 mg/kg (141).

Canned Fish

Some canned samples reach tyramine 10 mg/kg, but that seems rare (142). Max 70 mg/kg (143). Histamine (some were > FDA limit of 50 mg/kg), one was 1,000 mg/kg of histamine.* see (144, 145).

*That level of histamine would likely precipitate 'scombroidosis' in someone on phenelzine.

Pickled Fish

Pickled herring does not involve a fermentation process and such products are safe providing they are hygienically prepared from fresh fish. Modern food auditing processes controlling the hygiene of processing plants, and low temperature processing, suggests that all commercially available supplies are likely to be of good quality and therefore safe. As with vegetables (cf. sauerkraut), product that has undergone a fermentation process is different, and can contain significant concentrations of tyramine, like the Strömming (herring) in Baltic countries, which is fermented. So, the Norwegians have their rakfisk (fermented fish), and the Swedish fermented herrings (Surströmming), Icelanders fermented shark (Hákarl or kæstur hákarl), and perhaps on the Kamchatka peninsula they fester something similar, perhaps an unmentionable part of a brown bear buried in a peat bog for months. There are no available tyramine data on these. But if you have read this far without learning already that they are obviously to be avoided then

Fish Sauces

See 'Fermented Sauces' above.

Malaysian Budu and Cincalok

Malaysian local appetisers 'budu' and 'cincalok' (86) tyramine up to 450 mg/kg.

Pizza

It depends what you put on it! It should be clear from the data in this monograph that almost all commercial pizzas are highly likely to be safe, as found by Shulman (146). This is because they are most unlikely to use anything other than commercial processed cheese, or non-matured cheese types (e.g. mozzarella, which has no tyramine). Also, any salami type products on them are likely to be in small quantities, and also of the type that is low in tyramine. Pizza chains/franchises may change their cheese blend to stay abreast of cheese fashions, but for cost reasons are most unlikely to use large proportions of matured cheese that might have a higher tyramine content.

Gourmet pizzas may contain mature salami and cheese with higher tyramine concentrations, but the quantities are likely to be small so the total tyramine load is unlikely to be problematic. The data herein should allow a reasonable estimation of the total amount of tyramine. Sensible caution is therefore appropriate with some “gourmet” pizzas and with large servings of some “commercial” pizzas.

Vegetables

Vegetables generally have total BA concentrations of only a few mg/kg and tyramine levels of about 0.2 mg/kg with a maximum of 1 mg/kg (147), but can these increase a little with spoilage. Plants do produce an extra-ordinary range of amines and psycho-active alkaloids, many are part of the ancient battle whereby plants manipulate the behaviour of animals and enhance their own survival (e.g. think of opiates, cannabis, tannins, nicotine, atropine, hyoscyne, aperients & innumerable toxins). Many of these compounds are more common in a greater variety of plants than a casual reading of the literature would lead one to suppose. Their concentration varies greatly depending on many factors like plant variety, tissue type, stage of growth and attack by other organism etc.

Useful reviews are: (147-150), it has recently emerged that some of these compounds affect TAA receptors and TRP channels e.g. capsaicin, menthol (151).

Paprika and green pepper appear to have higher tyramine contents 286 and 141.5 mg/kg of dry weight, respectively (148).

In summary, it would seem normal servings of unprocessed vegetables, fruits etc. are unlikely to have any serious adverse effects via histamine, tyramine or l-DOPA (that includes broad-beans, aka fava beans, and possibly related species).

Nevertheless, interactions are sometimes noticeable and there is much yet to learn about the psycho-active contents of plant derived foods. One interesting recent reaction [personal communication] involved a reliably documented alteration of BP associated with consumption of quince paste, for which there would appear to be a possible explanation, since it has been claimed to contain a constituent that acts as a dopamine re-uptake inhibitor (152). This finding needs to be replicated, especially because the probity of much Chinese research is doubtful (153).

L-DOPA

Dopamine (DA) is present in many plants and may play a role in repelling pathogens. It is the precursor of the quinones that cause browning when they polymerise into melanin (e.g. bananas). Some legumes contain significant amounts of L-DOPA in some tissues, at some stages of growth, including *Vicia faba* L. varieties (aka fava beans, broad beans) and *Mucuna pruriens* (Cowhage, itching powder) (154-159). Varieties of these plants are being genetically engineered to try to find a suitable dietary source for L-DOPA because it may be better than pharmaceutical L-DOPA (better absorption, more stable plasma concentrations). Various preparations are being sold on the internet. A search for ‘mucuna aphrodisiac’ or ‘mucuna parkinson’ returns many thousands of hits.

Maximum concentrations of 10-20 mg/g (dry weight) have been found in *Vicia faba* (154), equivalent to a wet weight concentration of approximately 100 mg/kg. However, the edible beans are lower.

Since L-DOPA is a dopamine precursor, not a releaser, i.e. not an indirectly acting sympathomimetic like amphetamine is, it is likely to have an effect more analogous to L-tryptophan with MAOIs (i.e. mild potentiation only). L-tryptophan does not cause serious problems with serotonin toxicity, and nor would one expect L-DOPA to do so with BP.

Despite the warnings on interactions with medicinal L-DOPA, and the early papers often quoted, e.g. (160, 161) the evidence for serious hypertension (see below for discussion) with L-DOPA and MAOIs seems poor.

Such amounts of L-DOPA may potentiate or precipitate small BP increases, but, in my opinion, it is unlikely that a significant BP elevation would result unless very large amounts of such foods are ingested, see (162).

Spinach

Tyramine in spinach (163) was < 5 mg/kg, but histamine can be higher ~ 50 – 100 mg/kg.

Fava/faba beans

Fava beans (*Vicia Faba*, aka broad beans) have tyramine at about 10 mg/kg (147), & L-DOPA, but at low concentrations, which is probably not sufficient to have any effect in normal portions. See ‘L-DOPA’.

Bananas

Bananas can have significant dopamine, up to 400 mg/kg in the pulp, about 1,500 mg/kg in the skin (164), but little tyramine (150, 165). The first report of dopamine was in 1958 (166). Large amounts of banana (20 per day) may increase plasma dopamine concentrations (162). This may be via release of endogenous DA, and or via L-DOPA or other precursors or releasers. So, although DA cannot cross the blood brain barrier brain (or only to a limited extent (167)), plasma DA may be elevated, and raised peripheral DA may raise BP by vaso-constriction. As with all plants, concentrations will vary greatly according to variety, part of plant, stage of growth, maturation, ripeness etc. and it is clear concentrations are much higher in the skin (1,000 mg/kg) than the pulp (164), at only 2 mg/kg (168) and see (169-171).

Banana might possibly inhibit the adsorption of medicinal L-DOPA (172, 173). It is very unlikely that bananas in usual quantities would have any significant effect.

There is no evidence Avocado causes hypertension (174).

Pickling and Preserving

Preservation, mostly of vegetables, using the acidic properties of natural acids, mostly acetic & lactic acid, is widespread and usually involves no fermentation, just the addition of vinegar (acetic acid), as in typical pickled onions. However, other pickled preparations involve a bacterial lactic acid fermentation process, such as sauerkraut and kimchi, see below. It is these fermentation processes which can give rise to small amounts of tyramine. Naturally occurring fermentation, without the use of starter cultures (see above) tends to produce more contaminant biogenic amines, including tyramine.

Olives, Capers, Caper berries

Preparation of olives may involve bacterial lactic acid fermentation, tyramine levels in olives, and capers are very low (175, 176).

Sauerkraut

Sauerkraut is made by lacto-fermentation, as are kimchi & traditional pickled cucumbers. These keep for several months, unrefrigerated.

Sauerkraut: review (92), more than 100 samples from 7 countries, almost all tyramine < 200 mg/kg, but a couple from Czech Rep. were 400 – 900 mg/kg.

Tyramine concentration was 50 mg/kg in one canned sauerkraut other samples < 12 mg/kg.

Korean 'kimchi' cabbage average tyramine 50 mg/kg, max 120 mg/kg (63).

Lavizzari (149, 150): Spinach tyramine 2 mg/kg. Histamine concentrations were 100 mg/kg.

Kosson (177) found insignificant levels of tyramine.

Chocolate

Chocolate sometimes does involve a short fermentation stage. Somewhat variable concentrations of amines have been reported, mostly very low, and inconsequential unless large quantities are consummated. Pastore found 2 mg/kg for tyramine (178).

Lavizzari (150) found concentrations of tyramine of 0.3 mg/kg.

Baker (179), powdered cocoa tyramine 3 mg/kg, chocolate < 1 mg/kg,

Thus, we can say chocolate is completely safe in usual quantities.

Health Supplements

Such substances contain all sorts of crazy additives, many of them are potentially injurious, and most of them useless. They should list the ingredients, if they do not, then they should not be used. If they do, then do not use them if they contain tyramine at levels that would be injurious, i.e. more than 5-10 mg per portion or 'dose'.

Other non-Serious Interactions

Many plant derived substances (alkaloids), e.g. 'herbs' and 'foods' like coffee, and tea contain various compounds that act as 'drugs', stimulants like caffeine, 2-phenylethylamine, methylamine, trimethylamine (see Strolin Benedetti & Tipton (180)). These affect everyone but may have an exaggerated effect in those taking various sorts of antidepressant drugs, including MAOIs; they should be taken in moderation and avoided if they precipitate symptoms such as tremor, anxiety, jitteriness, palpitations, tachycardia, agitation, or poor sleep.

Some Tyramine Champions

One soy sauce clocked in at 6,000 mg/kg (79), does one smell a rat there?

An old cheddar cheese measurement from the 1950s 3,700 mg/kg (35).

An Italian goat cheese at ~ 2,000 mg/kg (181)

And, there is a French cheese called ‘crotte du diable’ (translates as ‘Devil’s turds’), and various rotten fish brews (best consumed on isolated Scandinavian mountain tops), that one presumes would be contestants, but I was unable to find any data. Would any lab technician be brave enough to endure them?

For an introduction to some other strong smelling foods see Andrew Zimmern:

<http://www.openjourney.com/article/18-stinky-foods-around-the-world-41.html>

Holidays

Some holiday destinations will require heightened awareness of food hygiene issues, in “Biogenic amine contents in selected Egyptian fermented foods as determined by ion-exchange chromatography” Rabie found levels of 2,000 mg/kg in cheese and fermented sausage (182), then there is fermented Yak milk (64), and Icelandic fish-dish called Hákarl (fermented shark meat).

Wine, Spirits and Beer

A meal without wine is like a day without sunshine.
Anthelme Brillat-Savarin

Wine and beer in moderation (two drinks in 2 hours) are definitely safe (as far as tyramine is concerned). Modern hygienic production methods have made tyramine concentrations > 10 mg/L rare (there is now extensive regulation and documentation of this, see below for details). Home-made wines or beers may be risky. Bottled beer is safe if pasteurised; a little caution is warranted with ‘live’ beers which may be available from ‘boutique’ producers. They can be distinguished by the sediment (of dead yeast) in the bottom and they are cloudy if shaken.

Modern commercial wines very rarely contain significant tyramine.

Tyramine in liquids taken on an empty stomach should be regarded as a special case, because tyramine will be absorbed much more rapidly (183, 184), so amounts of tyramine of one third of the figures given above may evoke a reaction. One small (330 ml) glass of some ‘live’ beers could, in *rare* instances, have about 10 mg of tyramine; this is sufficient to cause a reaction in a minority of people, when taken on an empty stomach, e.g. see (27, 185).

Wines

Here with a loaf of bread beneath the bough,
A flask of wine, a book of verse – and thou
Omar Khayyam

Wine does, if only rarely, contain significant concentrations of tyramine.

Recent major reviews have covered many hundreds of different wines of all types: almost all have had tyramine levels of less than < 5 mg/L (186-194).

Aged wines, all tyramine < 5 mg/L (195).

Thirty different wines, including aged fortified wines (Port and Madeira), max tyramine 5 mg/L (196). Wines 200 samples, histamine average 1.2 mg/L (197) and 300 samples max tyramine < 5 mg/L (198, 199).

USA wines, max tyramine 3 mg/L (190).

Marcobal, 61 different Spanish wines including aged Rioja Gran Reserva wines (200): Tyramine range 0–11.32 mg/L, Average 1.40 ± 2.35 mg/L. Only 34 of 61 wines had *detectable* tyramine.

However, Preti et al. found 8 of 60 (personnel communication) Italian wines tested recently had tyramine levels > 10 mg/L (201), none of these were chiantis!

The repetition of the notion that Chianti, uniquely amongst wines, contains significant concentrations of tyramine (51), illustrates, so it seems, how easy it is to be careless about the relevance and reliability of sources of information. The chianti error was countered long ago (202). The most likely explanation for these anomalies is that in the past many of these wines were made by farmers with little knowledge of wine or fermentation techniques. Hygiene practices were poor; it is only in the last 20 years or so that Italian winemaking has reached a modern standard, in most places.

Vinegars

Ordinary vinegars low tyramine, but: Chinese rice wine vinegar (old) 400 mg/L, Sherry vinegar 15 mg/L, Italian Balsamic ~ 15 mg/L (203).

Beers

Standards, and awareness of brewing hygiene issues, have increased since some of the older results, but caution is still warranted: it would seem likely that most, but not all, standard commercial and modern beers all over the world will be safe (< 10 mg/L) in moderation; some low volume ‘artisan’ and ‘boutique’ ones are a little more likely to be risky. Beers made using natural yeasts (spontaneous fermentation) rather than starter cultures, are more likely to have contaminants and therefore high tyramine. This is an observation echoed throughout this monograph with all types of ‘fermentation’, whether with cereals or sausages. Some examples are

high enough to be risky, especially if beer is drunk on a more-or-less empty stomach, when it will be absorbed more rapidly.

It is established that the presence of tyramine is indicative of bacterial contamination and less than ideal hygiene practice.

A review by Kalac (204-206), “195 samples of bottled or canned beers were purchased from commercial outlets in Germany, Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Denmark, Spain, France, Great Britain, Greece, The Netherlands, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Switzerland, and the former Yugoslavia”. They found a great majority were low (2 – 8 mg/L, mean 7), but a few are up to 30 – 50 mg/L, with a maximum of 70 mg/L.

Bunka more recently reviewed 114 samples of beer from 28 breweries in the Czech Republic which were “monitored at their purchase and at the end of their best-before period” (207). Tyramine was < 10mg/L in 51 samples, between 10 and 50mg/L in 21 samples and 100 mg/L in 5 samples.

Tang (208):18 beers all brewed in China, some European under licence, values mostly tyramine 3 – 5 (max 7) mg/L.

Spanish beer tyramine < 2 mg/L (209).

Spain, 17 samples mean tyramine 5 mg/kg; Spain, 55 samples mean 7 mg/L, max 47 mg/L. Europe 48 samples max 6 mg/L (210, 211).

16 European countries, 195 samples, mean tyramine 6.5 mg/L max 67.5 mg/L (212).

17 domestic Turkish and 13 imported beers (213), all were tyramine < 2 mg/L.

Ken Shulman’s group (214) looked at a total of **98 beer samples** (79 different brands of beer) in 1994:

‘All of the bottled beers analysed had safe tyramine concentrations (< or = 10 mg/liter; range, 0 to 3.16 mg/liter) and, thus, do not require restriction in patients receiving MAOIs. Therefore, the consumption of canned or bottled beer, including dealcoholized beer, in moderation (fewer than four bottles or cans; 1.5 litres within a 4-hour period) appears to be safe and does not require restriction in patients receiving MAOIs. Only 4 of 98 beer samples studied were found to have a dangerous (> 10 mg/liter) tyramine concentration, one of which was the index beer. The tyramine concentration in these four beers ranged from 26.34 to 112.91 mg/liter. All four of these beers were tap beers produced by bottom fermentation (lagers) and brewed by a secondary fermentation process. ... Therefore, to err on the side of caution, it is recommended that patients on irreversible MAOIs avoid beers on tap’.

This was an influential paper, subsequent knowledge suggests a slight modification of their conclusions.

Belgian beers especially can have high tyramine. Loret et al. (215), considered a large number of these Belgian beers: the types covered four different brewing processes; low or bottom fermentation (LF, 18 samples), top fermentation (TF, 36 samples), top fermentation

followed by a secondary fermentation in bottle (TF+ BSF, 184 samples), and spontaneous fermentation (SF, 42 samples).

They found 21 samples out of 220 that exceeded 10 mg/L of either histamine or tyramine, these 21 had a mean tyramine of 28 mg/L, and the maximum was nearly 70 mg/L. They developed a “Beer biogenic amine index” (BAI) that would allow assessment of the quality of the production process. Since the work was financed in part by the Belgian Brewer Confederation we may assume they are trying to improve things because of EC regulations and a recommended limit of tyramine 10 mg/L.

Belgian Lambic beer is an old style (see Wikipedia for information) allowed to spontaneously ferment with wild airborne yeasts and then aged for 1 – 3 years, breweries locate their open fermenters in well-ventilated attic roofs. The general category is spontaneously fermented beers (SF beers) which are obviously likely to have more tyramine (because they have more ‘contaminant’ organisms).

One more recent assay of SF Belgian beer found only 20 mg/L of tyramine, which may well reflect improved standards (215). Gueuze is an aged unflavoured Lambic style. This is a good illustration of why dirty farmhouse styles of anything are more likely to have contaminant strains that have decarboxylase activity, and thus potential for tyramine production, especially if a rat/sparrow/cockroach falls into the open fermenter.

MAOIs and Scombroidosis (Histamine Fish Poisoning)

The anti-tuberculosis drug isoniazid (INH) is closely related structurally and pharmacologically to phenelzine, but not related to tranlycypromine. INH is capable of inhibiting one of the other amine oxidase enzymes, the one which is largely responsible for breaking down histamine. The result of this is increased sensitivity to any histamine ingested in food (216-222). The potency of phenelzine for these effects is probably similar to isoniazid, and the blood and tissue concentrations reached in the system are also probably similar. However, there have been no reports involving phenelzine: nevertheless one can speculate it is quite possible, indeed probable, that phenelzine will increase people's sensitivity to histamine. Bearing in mind that foods that accumulate tyramine, like cheeses, often have elevated histamine concentrations also, this may be of relevance to patients taking phenelzine.

Symptoms of histamine poisoning are: lowered BP, headache, palpitations, skin flushing, nausea, vomiting, and pruritus (itching).

The symptoms of histamine poisoning relate especially to effects on blood vessels, cell permeability and smooth muscles, and include headache, nasal secretion, bronchospasm, tachycardia, extrasystoles,

hypotension, edema (eyelids), urticaria, pruritus, flushing and asthma (223, 224). Serum tryptase concentrations may help to distinguish allergic symptoms from scombroidosis (225).

It seems inevitable that some instances of BA poisoning will exhibit mixed symptoms of both histamine and tyramine effects, especially in people taking hydrazine drugs like carbi-dopa, isoniazid and phenelzine.

Part 2 Drug Interactions

The Place of MAOIs in Treatment

'In questions of science, the authority of a thousand is not worth the humble reasoning of a single individual.'
Galileo Galilei

A brief survey about the place of MAOIs in modern practice provides perspective and reveals the disproportionate influence on doctors' prescribing practices of what is essentially advertising: that is to say the massive and overwhelming influence of the pressure to influence doctors to prescribe new drugs, driven by pharmaceutical companies, and the triumph of greed and profit, barely restrained by ethics. Now that commercialism and advertising dominate science to such a disproportionate extent that is regarded by many as a great problem facing scientific and ethical medical practice. This phenomenon has been dubbed 'McScience' and it is the new reality, as the erstwhile Lancet editor warned us a decade ago (226, 227): he said, 'Journals have devolved into information laundering operations for the pharmaceutical industry'.

The incredibly low rate of prescription of MAOIs is starkly incongruent with the fact that they are recommended and endorsed in all recent guidelines about the treatment of depression (228-233).

Yet only a tiny fraction of specialists ever use MAOIs (234-236), despite opinion and evidence of their superior effectiveness for various groups of patients (8, 237-242).

I am not the only voice to opine that this is a strange, sad, and harmful anachronism; Tyrer agrees (243)*.

*NB Tyrer is the professor at the prestigious Imperial college in London, and the editor of the British J of Psychiatry.

MAOIs: Interactions with Other Drugs

Science must begin with myths, then progress to the criticism of myths.
Karl Popper

Myth: MAOIs have many dangerous interactions with other drugs.

Yet there are only two interactions: just SRIs and ISAs. And people have been persuaded that is difficult to cope with?

The requirement, a simple requirement, is to learn which drugs fall into those two categories. Then it is all plain sailing.

It is helpful to understand why this text, and my review papers, can appear to contradict what is said in standard textbooks and other similar sources (e.g. Physicians Desk Reference, British National Formulary, Australian Medicines Handbook etc.). These publications

cover a wide field as concisely as possible and therefore abbreviate and generalise to an extent that does not always allow detailed evaluations. For example, such sources lump all tricyclic antidepressants together as being contraindicated with MAOIs. Such texts have insufficient space to discuss more precise considerations detailed in review papers and in this monograph. That explains why all tricyclic anti-depressants are safe to mix with MAOIs, except for clomipramine and imipramine, despite the apparent blanket prohibitions in such texts.

MAOI interactions are now clearly understood, they are reliably predictable, and they are straightforward to avoid. There is not room for a lengthy discussion here, but readers may note that I have published widely concerning both pharmaco-kinetic and pharmaco-dynamic interactions, and the cytochrome P-450 characteristics, of most psychotropic drugs. These papers should be consulted by those wishing to have more understanding of this subject. These provide the back-ground knowledge for understanding these interactions which will be helpful for those unsure of the latest data (bearing in mind that standard texts contain misleading information). See especially my recent review, ‘CNS toxicity involving methylene blue: the exemplar for understanding and predicting drug interactions that precipitate serotonin toxicity’ (3), which is my most recent summary of what needs to be understood in order to be confident about avoiding ST.

For other aspects of interactions, or rather, lack of them, see also: (1, 4-6, 13, 14, 244, 245).

Non-Therapeutic/Illicit Drugs

This commentary deals with licit therapeutic drugs.

Those requiring information about non-therapeutic/illicit drugs are advised to be wary as some interact potently with MAOIs, because many of them are transporter inhibitors, or releasers of serotonin and or noradrenaline (246): e.g. the interaction of moclobemide and MDMA is predictably toxic (causing fatal ST) and has caused a number of tragedies (247, 248). Note that combinations of releasers with re-uptake inhibitors will result in diminished effects/efficacy: so, for example, SSRIs will diminish the effects of 3,4-methylenedioxy-methamphetamine (MDMA, ecstasy). For further explanation about this see my review (3).

The following papers contain information and further references about ‘designer’ and novel psychoactive substances (246, 249-252).

Medically, such possible interactions are only likely to be seen as presentations to emergency departments, and are unlikely to be relevant to usual therapeutic practice.

MAOIs are not Dangerous

It is common to hear and read of MAOIs being described as ‘dangerous’. That is neither logical nor reasonable.

Being ill with unresolved or poorly treated depression is much more risky than taking MAOIs because not only is the life-time risk of death by suicide around 10%, but also the Standardised Mortality Ratio SMR (which includes death from other causes than just suicide, such as heart disease which is increased in those suffering depression) is as much as 10 – 30 times elevated (253-264).

The view has been well argued that the dangerousness idea was encouraged and spread by pharmaceutical companies extolling the virtues of newer drugs (265), and that necessarily involves exaggerating the disadvantages of previously existing drugs.

Tranlycypromine has no clinically relevant pharmaco-kinetic interactions and phenelzine has almost none, certainly none that are clinically significant (1), which makes them much better, certainly in this respect, than most of the SSRIs!

The potentially risky interactions with MAOIs are the pharmacodynamic ones:

1. Serotonin syndrome, caused by SRIs + MAOIs
2. Blood pressure elevation, caused by tyramine in food, or by the other ‘indirectly acting sympatho-mimetic amines (ISAs)’ (releasers) like ephedrine.

Interactions with SRI Anti-Depressant Drugs and Other SRIs

Any drug that works as a serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SRI), not just the SSRI anti-depressant drugs, is dangerous (possibly even fatal) if combined with an MAOI (which includes **reversible inhibitors of monoamine oxidase A (RIMAs)** like moclobemide (2, 244, 266, 267).

That category of serotonin reuptake inhibitor drugs includes:

1) All SSRI and SNRI anti-depressant drugs: sertraline, fluoxetine, paroxetine, fluvoxamine, citalopram, escitalopram, clomipramine or imipramine*, or SNRIs like milnacipran, venlafaxine, desvenlafaxine, duloxetine or sibutramine.

* It is usually stated that all TCAs pose a risk, but that is definitely not correct, it is only clomipramine and imipramine that are sufficiently potent as serotonin reuptake inhibitors to precipitate ST; all other TCAs like nortriptyline, amitriptyline, trimipramine, dothiepin, doxepin, desipramine, protryptiline, are quite safe (as are selective NRIs like reboxetine and atomoxetine).

NB There have been one or two other ‘odd’ ‘SRI’ drugs like SNRI anti-depressant sibutramine (268, 269) that were (eventually) marketed for

other indications (appetite suppressant), but sibutramine has been withdrawn world-wide (270, 271).
For a database of withdrawn drugs see (272)
<http://cheminfo.charite.de/withdrawn/>

The anti-histamines brompheniramine and chlorpheniramine (aka chlorphenamine), should be avoided because they have significant SRI potency (273-283). Other anti-histamines are probably safe, but better SERT affinity data would be reassuring.

All of these old tricyclics came from the same pool and some were inappropriately classified as antidepressants, such as doxepin, and some inappropriately as antihistamines, e.g. chlorphenamine. Indeed, it would be logical, once more accurate data is available, to reassign them to different pharmacological groups based on their actual properties. Meanwhile, it is useful to remember that doxepin (classed as a TCA) is the most potent antihistamine currently on the world market, and it definitely does not have any significant SERT affinity, and definitely does not cause significant serotonin toxicity.

2) Some narcotic analgesics, because some of them also act as SRIs: especially meperidine (aka pethidine) and tramadol (14) and dextromethorphan. All non-narcotic analgesics are safe to take with MAOIs: aspirin and paracetamol and all the NSAIDs etc.

Releasers (Indirectly Acting Sympatho-mimetics)

Amphetamine is, *in vitro*, the most a potent NA releaser (ISA) at low nanomolar (10^{-9}) concentrations. There is still uncertainty about its mechanism of action at therapeutic doses. It may be acting primarily as a re-uptake inhibitor (of DA and NA, but not 5-HT) rather than a releaser: that would account for its lack of serious interaction with MAOIs in therapeutic use. Doses used by recreational users are much higher, and in these circumstances amphetamine acts as a releaser and has serious adverse effect, and interaction, potential. Ephedrine is potent and selective, but rather less potent than amphetamine (284-286). Pseudoephedrine is much less potent than ephedrine.

Ephedrine, the archetypal drug of concern, is still available in some countries, whereas in others it has been largely replaced by oxymetazoline (which does not interact with MAOIs). Previously ephedrine was a component of many cough and cold remedies. Reactions are unlikely to be severe or dangerous unless large doses are used.

Adrenaline (epinephrine) and nordrenaline (norepinephrine) act as direct post-synaptic agonists and therefore do not cause any significant interaction with MAOIs, although equivocation about that has been evinced repeatedly over the years (287), this fact was established more than fifty years ago (288-290). It is TCAs that have

a pronounced interaction with adrenaline, but, more irony, I cannot recall anyone getting worried about that.

There is now quite a lot of accumulated experience of the concurrent administration of MAOIs and amphetamine for therapeutic purposes in depression. It appears to be safe when done carefully. Early concerns about dangerous hypertension have not materialized and recent reviews indicate judicious use is safe (291, 292). Since amphetamine is substantially more potent than ephedrine it would seem, by extension, that concerns over this drug may also be overrated. Clearly if taken in acute supra-therapeutic doses or overdose the situation may be different.

Traditionally concern about interactions has centered around cough and cold remedies and nasal decongestants because may contain both SRIs (e.g. chlorpheniramine (aka chlorphenamine), dextromethorphan) and releasers (ephedrine). The unrecognized irony is that the chlorphenamine component of such over-the-counter (OTC) remedies is an SRI, and therefore a potential problem. I pointed that out in my 1998 review. Indeed, as I noted, chlorphenamine was a possible, but unrecognized, contributor to the death of poor Libby Zion in a much, but inaccurately, commented on case (293-295).

One may also note here another classic case of pharmacological misunderstanding which did not attain notoriety, the doctors were lucky because the patient was on a sub-therapeutic dose of phenelzine (only 15 mg daily) and did not get ST (287). These doctors misguidedly eschewed giving adrenaline for an anaphylactic reaction because of the phenelzine, but instead gave intravenous chlorphenamine. In view of the text above no further explanation of this, fortunately comical, error should be required.

Chlorphenamine, if used in usually recommended doses of 10 – 20 mg IV, and up to 40 mg in 24 hrs, is almost certain to attain sufficient blockade of SERT to precipitate ST in combination with MAOIs. The warning with it, below, is a good example of the kind of unhelpful mis-information that is still in 'official' texts:

'The anticholinergic properties of chlorphenamine are intensified by monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MAOIs). Chlorphenamine injection is therefore contraindicated in patients who have been treated with MAOIs within the last fourteen days.'

Not a word about SERT inhibition and the probability of ST. Incidentally, I wrote to the regulatory authorities about this years ago. My communication was, of course, ignored. Some culpability there one might think.

Typical constituents of available cough and cold remedies and nasal decongestants are, or were: phenylephrine, pseudoephedrine, both weak ISAs and now mostly substituted, or phenylpropanolamine

now completely withdrawn. The constituents presently are the MAOI-safe alternatives: oxymetazoline, xylometazoline, ipratropium bromide.

Herbal preparations: ephedrine is in various plant species especially *Ephedra sinica* (Ma Huang).

As Rothman states, ‘Historically, it has been difficult to distinguish whether drugs act as reuptake inhibitors or substrate-type releasers using simple test tube assays.’ But it seems now established that amphetamine is a moderately potent NE and DA releaser, but a weak 5-HT releaser (284-286).

Therefore over-the-counter drugs are hardly a problem now, because even pseudoephedrine has been taken off the market (at least, in many western countries).

The commonest non-ISA nasal decongestant is oxymetazoline, which is an adrenergic alpha 2 agonist: it has no interaction with MAOIs and is not a problem.

Directly acting agonists, including adrenaline itself, are not a problem with MAOIs, because there is no potentiation, something that was established over half a century ago (288, 289).

In summary: ISAs are almost a problem of the past, and in any case are unlikely to cause severe reactions in normal moderate therapeutic use.

Anti-Psychotic drugs

All available anti-psychotic drugs have, until recently, been safe with MAOIs. However, one newer so-called atypical, ziprasidone (Zeldox), seems to possess serotonin reuptake inhibitor potency (296).

Triptans

There is no risk of ST with triptans : the FDA have issued various misconceived warnings, particularly about triptans and serotonin toxicity: see Gillman (4). There has been no subsequent rebuttal of the conclusions in that review, that there is no risk of ST with triptans, either by the FDA or by anyone else. Other reviews and comments support my opinion (297-300).

Anaesthesia

Myth: One cannot give an anaesthetic.

This is yet another of the deeply embedded but ill-founded concerns that one encounters. Sadly, it is not inconsequential, because poorly informed careless surgeons (some of whom would struggle to spell ‘pharmacology’) tell patients due for elective surgery to cease

treatment, sometimes without being aware of their history. Personal experience of successful suicides as a result of such ill-advised cessation of treatment is distressingly memorable.

Apart from avoiding any use of serotonergic narcotic analgesics there are no major problems or interactions. The preponderance of published opinion is, fortunately, lining up behind that view (301-308).

Stopping and Swapping

On ceasing other SRI-type antidepressants to start MAOIs, washout intervals varying between one and five weeks may be required. No washout is needed for non-SRI-type drugs. The rule of thumb is allow 5 half-lives to elapse*, which is about one week for many of these drugs).

See, for a table of half-lives:

<http://www.health.harvard.edu/diseases-and-conditions/going-off-antidepressants>

No washout is required for TCAs (other than clomipramine and imipramine), or mirtazapine, mianserin, trazodone, reboxetine or atomoxetine, because they are safe taken together with MAOIs (i.e. anything at all is safe, except an SRI).

*Fluoxetine (via its metabolite norfluoxetine) has an elimination half-life in some people of up to two weeks (so it can take up to 10 weeks to get out of the system).

In practice 5 half-lives is a conservative approach. Most drugs will have lost sufficient SRI activity after two half-lives to allow cautious introduction of an MAOI— providing the patient can be observed for early signs of serotonergic over-activity.

Such signs are: 1) specific; tremor, hyperreflexia and clonus; less specific; GI overactivity, mydriasis, sweating, anxiety, restlessness, overactivity.

Should such symptoms be apparent it is simple enough to withhold the MAOI for a few more days and then try again. ST is a dose related phenomenon and the emergence of mild hyper-serotonergic symptoms is not a cause for immediate panic.

It is commonly thought and stated that it is problematic to change from one drug to another when one of them is an MAOI. In practice this is not a difficulty, once it is appreciated that TCAs and MAOIs can be safely co-administered* (a reminder that clomipramine and imipramine are the two exceptions to that statement is always pertinent). The TCA nortriptyline is probably the best and most flexible candidate to fulfill this role. For instance, if one is changing to an MAOI from venlafaxine, which can have quite marked withdrawal symptoms, co-administering nortriptyline* prior to reducing or ceasing the venlafaxine can both reduce withdrawal symptoms and act as a 'bridge' prior to the initiation of the MAOI. Exactly the same process works in reverse where nortriptyline can be added to a pre-existing MAOI, the MAOI is then stopped and most subsequent treatments can then be initiated with ease.

*One could equally well use mirtazapine, doxepin, amitriptyline, quetiapine, (but not ziprasidone), mood stabilizers: in short, anything that is not an SRI. How difficult is that!

Swapping from One MAOI to Another MAOI

The requirement or desire to swap from one MAOI to another MAOI is something that will be an infrequent occurrence. Furthermore, it will be an urgent need even more infrequently. It may be indicated, for instance because of the excessive weight gain, sexual dysfunction, or oedema, that occur with phenelzine. Because opinion exists in the literature suggesting dove-tailing, or a direct swap, is a potentially risky thing to do, some discussion about this is educative.

Insofar as I have been able to trace the original texts which postulate these sorts of dangers I have one comment to make. They are frequently written by clinicians who have a limited understanding of pharmacology, or toxicology, and the texts frequently contain multiple obvious errors of fact. Such texts are often books, most of which are not in any way peer reviewed. I still vividly remember commenting on the draft of a chapter for a famous textbook written by an eminent teaching hospital consultant that was little short of nonsense. It should never have been published. Needless to say it was published, and it contributed to the continuance of myth and misinformation.

First, there is no mechanism of interaction, that can be reasonably hypothesized, which would cause a potential problem. There is no basis for postulating a pharmaco-kinetic interaction, and since both drugs have the same mechanism of action there is no basis for a pharmaco-dynamic interaction. Which leaves a mystery, or more likely a phantom.

Second, my extensive experience of analysing hundreds of case reports of serotonin toxicity illustrates dramatically and clearly that the overwhelming majority of them are groundless and misleading*, and they often involve supposed interactions that have no known basis, in fact or theory. To make decisions based on such reports has repeatedly proved to be inappropriate and the resultant actions have in some cases had serious negative consequences.

*This is why many reputable journals decline to publish case reports (245).

The literature is saturated with inappropriate and groundless injunctions against a host of perfectly safe drug combinations (see my other papers for an excruciatingly detailed analysis of this topic in relation to ST) and various ‘official’ bodies like the WHO and the FDA have been repeatedly guilty of issuing such scientifically groundless injunctions: recent examples are warnings about serotonergic drugs precipitating ST if combined with the anti-emetic 5-HT₃ antagonists, and about ST with Triptans. Such ‘cry-wolf’

warnings are time-wasting and disruptive and spread confusion and uncertainty, especially among practicing clinicians. So, adopting the careful conservative approach is decidedly not the ‘win-win’ scenario that such cautious analysts suppose it to be.

It would generally be agreed that in routine clinical practice the maxim ‘start low and go slow’ is wisely adhered to. When a changeover is being considered, or is indicated, in a patient who is severely ill, and in danger because of that, a degree of risk, imagined or real, is acceptable. In less urgent circumstances the patient and clinician may opt for a cautious approach.

In more than 50 years of MAOI use there are only a few reports of supposed difficulties which are non-specific and not indicative of a cause-effect relationship involving an MAOI-MAOI interaction (309-312). It is notable that of these incomplete and unconvincing reports, one suggests subarachnoid haemorrhage and another serotonin toxicity. Clearly, it is almost inconceivable that both of these are true, because the required mechanism is quite different for each of them; the most parsimonious explanation is that neither of them represent a cause-effect relationship between the changing drug regime and the outcome reported. As with so many case reports these ones also contain insufficient information to draw any sort of reliable conclusion.

It is well recognised that abrupt cessation of antihypertensive treatment can cause rebound hypertension; indeed, this is a not uncommon presentation in emergency departments. It is forgotten that MAOIs are anti-hypertensive drugs, and, as I have reviewed elsewhere, were indeed used for the treatment of hypertension in the 1960s and 1970s. I have certainly seen patients who have developed high blood pressure when well-meaning primary care physicians have stopped the ‘dangerous-old-antidepressants-we-don’t-use-anymore’ that the (dodderly old) specialist has been giving because he does not know about the wonderful new drugs we now have (that the young lady drug rep in the short skirt who took me to lunch told me all about).

Furthermore, I have seen patients on long-term antidepressant MAOI treatment who have clearly developed idiopathic hypertension during the course of that treatment, which was ‘disguised’ by the MAOI. These patients then had substantial rises in blood pressure on cessation of the MAOI. Indeed, one of them actually had a small CVA whilst waiting for an appointment to see me, to decide on future treatment. The primary care doctor had already (unilaterally) instructed her to cease the tablets prior to the appointment with me. If that patient had already restarted another MAOI then where would the blame for her CVA have been laid?

The following are all the relevant contributions that I am aware of, in the published literature (309-318): re Torre et al. see case 2. None of them are worth much, nor do they provide any substantive basis for concern about, never mind prohibition of, a direct swap-over of one MAOI to another MAOI. One paper reports a small series of 8 cases where it was accomplished without a problem (319). I have personally done it without any problem on a couple of occasions as have associates and various people who have been in contact via my web site.

Opinion: if there is good reason to swap rapidly, do it, because there is 1) no theoretical basis to suggest it might be contra-indicated, and 2) existing reports do not constitute evidence to the contrary, and 3) it has clearly been done many times without any problem.

MAOIs: Miscellaneous Observations

NRIs and Reducing Tyramine Sensitivity

Myth: One cannot combine MAOIs with TCAs.

It has been postulated in the past, on a sound pharmacological basis, that TCAs, by virtue of their NRI potency, would attenuate the ‘cheese effect’ (320-322).

I assembled and explained the evidence for this in my TCA review (5) which concluded that the NRIs with the *high* affinity for the NAT (viz reboxetine, desipramine, oxyprotiline, protriptyline and nortriptyline), have all been demonstrated to block the pressor response to tyramine almost completely (320, 323-327), even when it has been potentiated in the presence of MAOIs (328-330). The early demonstrations of NRI attenuation of the pressor response to tyramine go back a long way, past learning seems to have been lost for a long time (331, 332). NB Both those last 2 references are from the lab of the famous pharmacologist Bernard Brodie whose early papers are still worth studying.

This leads to the confident conclusion about an old and bitter-sweet irony: combinations of (non-serotonergic) TCAs or NRIs with MAOIs are not risky, they actually make MAOIs safer, not more dangerous, by attenuating the pressor response to tyramine, or any other NA releaser (ISA).

If a patient is more than usually tyramine sensitive they will become less so if a potent NRI like nortriptyline is added to the regime: the greater the dose the greater the attenuation of the pressor response. That is not just theory, it is rock-solid pharmacological fact.

Therapeutic Hypotensive Effect of MAOIs

Myth: MAOIs cause hypertension and should not be given to hypertensive patients.

MAOIs lower blood pressure: a widespread misconception, and one of the commonest incorrect statements you will see, is that MAOIs raise blood pressure. That is wrong: it is only the interaction with ISAs (releasers) like tyramine that produces hypertension.

In the 1960s MAOIs were used to treat hypertension, until better drugs were found (333-335), and indeed using TCP for those suffering both depression and hypertension works very well.

The still repeated, but incorrect, prohibition about giving MAOIs to patients with pre-existing hypertension may thus be seen as another example of ignorance about pharmacology. Again, the basis on which this opinion has insinuated itself into the literature is impossible to pin down. It just appeared and was unthinkingly repeated by the pharmacologically ignorant because, evidently, it sounds sensible and responsible. Having been repeated sufficiently often it became ‘received clinical wisdom’, and even ‘expert opinion’, a capricious beast to be regarded with circumspection (I even become suspicious of myself if I catch myself saying ‘in my expert opinion ...’).

Spontaneous Hypertensive episodes

I have occasionally seen patients who appear to get brief episodes of hypertension (but not hypertensive urgencies) following a single larger dose of an MAOI: there are various reports (336-338). In my experience this usually gets less over time. However, there may also be another group of patients in whom such elevations are apparently related in time to the dose of MAOI, but who are probably having other unobserved episodes of hypertension. It has been suggested that these may be due to occult phaeochromocytoma, and I have encountered such a case and one or two cases have been reported in the literature (339, 340). It is therefore suggested that if such episodes are recurring a high-resolution CAT scan of the adrenals should be undertaken to try to rule out a small adrenal tumour. MAOIs will magnify the effect of even a small tumour.

Hypertensive Urgencies due to Tyramine and the Occurrence of Subarachnoid Haemorrhage

Deaths from tyramine/MAOI induced hypertension are extremely rare. Indeed, there have been no deaths from MAOI induced hypertension reported in the medical literature for decades. Deaths from MAOI induced hypertension are probably rarer than fatal reactions to many modern drugs; e.g. to bleeding secondary to SSRIs (NB mortality from Upper GI bleeds is still > 5% (341)). The

evidence that SSRIs contribute to increasing the frequency of bleeds is strong (342-346). It is quite an irony that an SSRI side effect that most doctors do not even know about, or think about, may well cause more deaths than the feared hypertensive crisis. As they say ‘what the eye does not see the heart does not grieve over’.

That deaths due to MAOIs are extremely rare should not be surprising as there are so many other things that frequently raise the blood pressure considerably higher than the majority of hypertensive episodes related to tyramine intake.

Many physical activities, both indoors and out of doors, raise blood pressure as much and more. Healthy vigorous exercise will increase systolic blood pressure to 200 mmHg within five minutes where it will remain throughout the duration of the exercise, think about the craze for marathon running! A recent Finnish study involved >1000 participants on whom blood pressure data were gathered during exercise: it found the average BP was 200 mmHg, maximum 290 mmHg (347, 348).

Weight lifting, for instance, raises BP as high as 450 mmHg and readings of 300 or more are routine (349).

It is important to maintain perspective on the issue of BP elevation (which is an irrational over-concern with some doctors).

The evidence suggests that very large increases of BP rarely precipitate subarachnoid haemorrhage, and that many occur ‘spontaneously’ or with short and modest BP increases associated with, for instance, defecation (350).

This suggests the major factor determining the event of a subarachnoid haemorrhage is a pre-existing vascular weakness. A pressor event from tyramine ingestion is but one of many causes of BP elevation that are inevitably going to be encountered throughout life.

Medical Treatment of Hypertension Resulting from Tyramine Ingestion

If excessive tyramine is ingested the blood pressure starts to increase from about half an hour after ingestion, and remains elevated for 1 – 2 hours: the magnitude and duration of that elevation is dose related, so unless a large amount of tyramine has been ingested the reaction will be short-lived.

Current evidence indicates that elevated BP without signs or symptoms of end-organ damage does not require urgent treatment, *and should not be treated until specialist hospital assessment has been instituted.* This is because hasty and inexpert BP reduction is likely to do more

harm than good (sub-lingual nifedipine is strongly contra-indicated*, see below).

A key question, which cannot be answered with certainty, is whether catecholamine-induced hypertensive urgencies or emergencies (of which the tyramine reaction is one example- others being ingestion of amphetamine ('ice'), clonidine withdrawal, and pheochromocytoma) which occur in previously normotensive subjects, are optimally treated in the same way as the more common event of emergencies in subjects previously known to be hypertensive. The most comparable clinical scenario is probably a 'sympathetic storm' precipitated by large (non-therapeutic) amphetamine ingestions.

An SBP of 180 mmHg or more, sustained over 3 measurements in 10 minutes or so, performed in a calm setting with an accurate sphygmomanometer is now referred to as a 'hypertensive urgency'. Only if 'end organ' dysfunction is present it is called a 'hypertensive emergency'. End organ dysfunction is uncommon unless DBP is greater than 130 mmHg (351).

In hypertensive urgencies the treatment aim is to reduce BP slowly over 24 – 48 hrs. Since tyramine reactions are self-limiting over 2 – 4 hrs it is clear they will rarely require intervention.

Rapid reduction of hypertension (i.e. within 2 – 4 hours) carries a serious risk of catastrophic adverse effects (351-354) and such treatment is probably inadvisable, even if initiated in a specialist hospital setting.

Several of these recent reviews about hypertensive urgencies make very strong statements about premature treatment and about excessively rapid reductions of blood pressure.

Flanigan: "Often the urgency is more in the mind of the treating physician than in the body of the patient ... The compulsive need to treat reaches the pathological in some physicians, especially during the early years in their careers".

Marik: "Rapid reduction of BP may be associated with significant morbidity ... causing ischemia and infarction. It must be lowered in a slow and controlled fashion [over 24 – 48 hrs] to prevent organ hypoperfusion."

*Sub-lingual nifedipine is very strongly contra-indicated (354-357). It can result in uncontrollable hypotension and hypo-perfusion which may cause stroke or sudden permanent blindness. Indeed some experts have suggested instant/rapid-release formulations of nifedipine should be prohibited (358, 359) and that it should never be given to patients to self-administer.

Pain and anxiety exacerbate hypertension, so remaining calm and using a benzodiazepine (which will lower BP safely and to a significant and sufficient extent (360-363)) is probably the most useful and safe initial step, whilst arranging urgent hospital and specialist assessment (just advising attendance at an emergency

department is definitely not sufficient action: see TOC protocols below).

Primary care doctors and psychiatrists are very strongly advised to refer such cases immediately and not attempt management themselves, except with benzodiazepines (see also Transfer of Care Protocols).

Ceasing Treatment

When MAOIs are ceased, precautions about diet and possible interacting drugs are advisable for four weeks after cessation, especially when starting SRI-type drugs. When SRI-type drugs are being ceased to start MAOIs, five half-lives of the relevant drug ideally should be allowed (various safe bridging strategies are available (see above), but 3 half-lives is often sufficient if the MAOI is being started at a low dose, as is usually advisable.

Transfer of Care Protocols

Any specialist, or hospital psychiatric unit, that utilises MAOIs should have a formal transfer of care (TOC) protocol in place for the management of uncommon incidents where patients develop significant hypertension. Indeed, it is part of the treating doctors' duty of care to make sure such protocols are in place and known about. In the rare instances where emergencies arise coordination of monitoring, care and *possible* treatment with the receiving hospital is important.

At the very least transfer of care means talking directly to the senior responsible specialist at the receiving hospital.

There are too many stories of patients being sent to the local emergency department where they have sat for an hours, before being seen by doctors who do not even know what MAOIs are, never mind what to do. That is totally unacceptable and may lead to successful negligence actions against the doctors and hospitals concerned. The irony is that such cases are likely to be better off not being treated (especially by junior doctors), and apart from the frustration and discontent such situations will engender the patient is the ultimate winner.

See Jorm (364), et seq. and website of 'The Australian commission on safety and quality in health care', re TOCs.

Acknowledgements

I acknowledge the expertise and assistance of my wife Isobel, who maintains my computers and software, among many other things.

I also acknowledge the companionship and calming influence of more than one generation of fine handsome dogs, without whom my blood pressure would have been higher for longer.

I am indebted to the following people who expended substantial time and effort in advising, encouraging and correcting this, and previous, versions of the MS:

Professor Ian Whyte Discipline of Clinical Pharmacology, Faculty of Health, University of Newcastle, Newcastle, NSW, Department of Clinical Toxicology and Pharmacology, Calvary Mater Newcastle Hospital

Dr. Glen Baker, PhD, DSc; Neurochemical Research Unit, Department of Psychiatry, Mackenzie Centre, University of Alberta, Edmonton

Professor Anthony FT Brown MBChB, FRCP, FRCS(Ed), FRCEM, FACEM Senior Staff Specialist, Department of Emergency Medicine Royal Brisbane and Women's Hospital Brisbane, Queensland 4029

Thanks are due to various others around the world who have helped in various ways and made comments on this monograph.

Help PsychoTropical

I appreciate any help with the costs involved in maintaining PsychoTropical. You can acknowledge the value of this information, and other information on the site, by making a gift via Paypal at my web site.

<http://www.psychotropical.com/donate>

References

1. Gillman, PK, Advances pertaining to the pharmacology and interactions of irreversible nonselective monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **2011**. 31(1): p. 66–74.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21192146
2. Gillman, PK, Combining antidepressants: Understanding Drug Interactions is the Sine Qua Non. *Adv Psychiatr Treat*, **2010**. 16: p. 76–78.
<http://apt.rcpsych.org/content/aptcrpsych/16/1/76.full.pdf>
3. Gillman, PK, CNS toxicity involving methylene blue: the exemplar for understanding and predicting drug interactions that precipitate serotonin toxicity. *J Psychopharmacol (Oxf)*, **2011**. 25(3): p. 429–3.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20142303

4. Gillman, PK, Triptans, Serotonin Agonists, and Serotonin Syndrome (Serotonin Toxicity): A Review. *Headache*, **2009**. 50: p. 264–272.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19925619

5. Gillman, PK, Tricyclic antidepressant pharmacology and therapeutic drug interactions updated. *Br J Pharmacol*, **2007**. 151(6): p. 737–48.

<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1038/sj.bjp.0707253/pdf>

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17471183

6. Gillman, PK, A review of serotonin toxicity data: implications for the mechanisms of antidepressant drug action. *Biol Psychiatry*, **2006**. 59(11): p. 1046–51.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16460699

7. Gillman, PK, Drug interactions and fluoxetine: a commentary from a clinician's perspective. *Ex Op Drug Saf*, **2005**. 4: p. 965–969.

<http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1517/14740338.4.6.965>

8. Parker, G, Roy, K, Wilhelm, K, and Mitchell, P, Assessing the comparative effectiveness of antidepressant therapies: a prospective clinical practice study. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2001**. 62(2): p. 117–25.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/htbin-post/Entrez/query?db=m&form=6&dopt=r&uid=11247097>

9. Finberg, J and Gillman, P, Pharmacology of MAO-B inhibitors and the cheese reaction, in *Int. Rev. Neurobiol.*, M Youdim and P Riederer, Editors. 2011, Elsevier Inc. Academic Press.: Burlington. p. 169–190.

10. Bromberger, B and Percival, F, Culture Shock: Principles for Successful Wine-and-Cheese Pairing. *World of Fine Wine*, **2007**. 16: p. 139–144.

11. Gillman, PK, More on Mrs Murphy's beans: or 'do us a fava'. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **2010**. 30(2): p. 215–216.

12. Gillman, PK, Myths about MAOIs uncritically perpetuated. *Aust NZ J Psychiatry*, **2009**. 43: p. 1084–5.

13. Gillman, PK, A systematic review of the serotonergic effects of mirtazapine: implications for its dual action status. *Hum Psychopharmacol*, **2006**. 21: p. 117–25.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16342227
14. Gillman, PK, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors, opioid analgesics and serotonin toxicity. *Br. J. Anaesth.*, **2005**. 95: p. 434–441.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16051647
15. Anon, Scientific Opinion on risk based control of biogenic amine formation in fermented foods. *EFSA Journal: European Food Safety Authority (EFSA), Parma, Italy*, **2011**. 9: p. 2393.
16. Ladero, V, Calles–Enriquez, M, Fernandez, MA, and Alvarez, M, Toxicological Effects of Dietary Biogenic Amines. *Current Nutrition & Food Science*, **2010**. 6: p. 145–156.
17. Zaman, MZ, Abdulmir, AS, Bakar, FA, Jinap Selamat, J, et al., A Review: Microbiological, Physicochemical and Health Impact of High Level of Biogenic Amines in Fish Sauce. *Am J Appl Sci*, **2009**. 6: p. 1199–1211.
18. Al Bulushi, I, Poole, S, Deeth, HC, and Dykes, GA, Biogenic amines in fish: roles in intoxication, spoilage, and nitrosamine formation—a review. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.*, **2009**. 49(4): p. 369–77.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19234946
19. Shalaby, AR, Significance of biogenic amines to food safety and human health. *Food Research International*, **1996**. 29: p. 675–690.
20. Onal, A, Tekkeli, SE, and Onal, C, A review of the liquid chromatographic methods for the determination of biogenic amines in foods. *Food Chem*, **2013**. 138(1): p. 509–15.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23265518
21. Palermo, C, Muscarella, M, Nardiello, D, Iammarino, M, et al., A multiresidual method based on ion–exchange chromatography with conductivity detection for the determination of biogenic amines in food and beverages. *Anal Bioanal Chem*, **2013**. 405(2–3): p. 1015–23.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23052881

22. Loizzo, MR, Menichini, F, Picci, N, Puoci, F, et al., Technological aspects and analytical determination of biogenic amines in cheese. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*, **2013**: p. Available online 7 December 2012.

23. Mayer, HK, Fiechter, G, and Fischer, E, A new ultra-pressure liquid chromatography method for the determination of biogenic amines in cheese. *J. Chromatogr. A*, **2010**. 1217: p. 3251–3257.

24. Til, HP, Falke, HE, Prinsen, MK, and Willems, MI, Acute and subacute toxicity of tyramine, spermidine, spermine, putrescine and cadaverine in rats. *Food Chem Toxicol*, **1997**. 35(3–4): p. 337–48.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9207896

25. Hungerford, JM, Scombroid poisoning: a review. *Toxicol*, **2010**. 56(2): p. 231–43.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20152850>

26. Lader, MH, Sakalis, G, and Tansella, M, Interactions between sympathomimetic amines and a new monoamine oxidase inhibitor. *Psychopharmacologia*, **1970**. 18(1): p. 118–23.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4943186>

27. Bieck, PR and Antonin, KH, Oral tyramine pressor test and the safety of monoamine oxidase inhibitor drugs: comparison of brofaromine and tranylcypromine in healthy subjects. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1988**. 8(4): p. 237–45.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=3209716

28. Korn, A, Eichler, HG, Fischbach, R, and Gasic, S, Moclobemide, a new reversible MAO inhibitor--interaction with tyramine and tricyclic antidepressants in healthy volunteers and depressive patients. *Psychopharmacology*, **1986**. 88(2): p. 153–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=3081926

29. Bar-Am, O, Gross, A, Friedman, R, and Finberg, JP, Cardiovascular baroreceptor activity and selective inhibition of monoamine oxidase. *Eur J Pharmacol*, **2012**.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22465184

30. Latorre-Moratalla, ML, Bover-Cid, S, Talon, R, Aymerich, T, et al., Distribution of aminogenic activity among potential

autochthonous starter cultures for dry fermented sausages. *J. Food Prot.*, **2010**. 73(3): p. 524–8.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20202339

31. Chong, CY, Abu Bakar, F, Russly, AR, Jamilah, B, et al., The effects of food processing on biogenic amines formation. *International Food Research Journal*, **2011**. 18: p. 867–876.

32. Blackwell, B, Marley, E, and Mabbitt, LA, Effects of Yeast Extract after Monoamine–Oxidase Inhibition. *Lancet*, **1965**. 1(7392): p. 940–3.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14275831

33. Blackwell, B and Mabbitt, LA, Tyramine in Cheese Related to Hypertensive Crises after Monoamine–Oxidase Inhibition. *Lancet*, **1965**. 1(7392): p. 938–40.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14275713

34. Kosikowski, KV, A quantitative appraisal of the free amino acids in foreign type cheese. *J. Dairy Sci.*, **1954**. 37(2): p. 167–172.

35. Bullock, D and Irvine, O, A chromatographic study of Cheddar cheese ripening. *J. Dairy Sci.*, **1956**. 39(9): p. 1229–1235.

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030256948408>

36. Flockhart, DA, Dietary restrictions and drug interactions with monoamine oxidase inhibitors: an update. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2012**. 73 Suppl 1: p. 17–24.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22951238

37. Fiechter, G, Sivec, G, and Mayer, HK, Application of UHPLC for the simultaneous analysis of free amino acids and biogenic amines in ripened acid–curd cheeses. *J Chromatogr B*, **2013**: p. [in press].

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23294548

38. Bunkova, L, Bunka, F, Mantlova, G, Cablova, A, et al., The effect of ripening and storage conditions on the distribution of tyramine, putrescine and cadaverine in Edam–cheese. *Food Microbiol*, **2010**. 27(7): p. 880–8.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20688229

39. Spizzirri, GU, Restuccia, D, Curcio, M, Parisi, OI, et al., Determination of biogenic amines in different cheese samples by LC with evaporative light scattering detector. *J Food Comp Analysis*, **2013**. 29: p. 43-51.
40. Linares, DM, Del Rio, B, Ladero, V, Martinez, N, et al., Factors Influencing Biogenic Amines Accumulation in Dairy Products. *Front Microbiol*, **2012**. 3: p. 180.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22783233
41. Wimbiscus, M, Kostenko, O, and Malone, D, MAO inhibitors: risks, benefits, and lore. *Cleve. Clin. J. Med.*, **2010**. 77(12): p. 859-82.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21147941
42. O'Brien, V, The Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors: Relics Reconsidered. *Psychiatr Ann*, **2011**. 41: p. 176-183.
43. Rapaport, MH, Dietary restrictions and drug interactions with monoamine oxidase inhibitors: the state of the art. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2007**. 68 Suppl 8: p. 42-6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17640157
44. Stahl, SM and Felker, A, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors: a modern guide to an unrequited class of antidepressants. *CNS Spectr*, **2008**. 13(10): p. 855-70.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18955941
45. Ibrahim, EM and Amer, AA, Comparison of biogenic amines levels in different processed cheese varieties with regulatory specifications. *World Journal of Dairy and Food Science*, **2010**. 5: p. 127-133.
46. Schirone, M, Tofalo, R, Visciano, P, Corsetti, A, et al., Biogenic amines in italian pecorino cheese. *Front Microbiol*, **2012**. 3: p. 171.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22586425
47. Rea, MS, Franz, CMAP, W.H. Holzapfel, WH, and Cogan, TM, Development of enterococci and production of tyramine during the manufacture and ripening of Cheddar cheese. *Irish Journal of Agricultural and Food Research*, **2004**. 43: p. 247-258.

48. De Vuyst, A, Vervack, W, and Foulon, M, Détection d'amines non volatiles dans quelques fromages. *Le Lait*, **1976**. 557: p. 414–422.
49. Komprda, T, Burdychova, R, Dohnal, V, Cwikova, O, et al., Some factors influencing biogenic amines and polyamines content in Dutch-type semi-hard cheese. *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2008**. 227: p. 29–36.
50. Komprda, T, Burdychova, R, Dohnal, V, Cwikova, O, et al., Tyramine production in Dutch-type semi-hard cheese from two different producers. *Food Microbiol*, **2008**. 25(2): p. 219–27.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18206763
51. Horwitz, D, Lovenberg, W, Engelman, K, and Sjoerdsma, A, Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors, Tyramine, and Cheese. *JAMA*, **1964**. 188: p. 1108–10.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14163106A
52. Asatoor, AM, Levi, AJ, and Milne, MD, Tranylcypromine and Cheese. *Lancet*, **1963**. 2(7310): p. 733–4.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14057166
53. Colonna, P and Adda, J, Dosage de la Tyramine, Tryptamine et Histamine dans Quelques Fromages Francais. *Lait*, **1976**. 56: p. 143–153.
54. Voight, M and Eitenmiller, R, Fluorescent quantitation of biologically active amines in foods with 7 chloro 4 nitro benzo-furazan. *J Food Science*, **1974**. 39.
55. Samková, E, Dadáková, E, and Pelikánová, T, Changes in biogenic amine and polyamine contents in smear-ripened cheeses during storage. *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2013**. 237(3): p. 309–314.
<http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s00217-013-1993-y>
56. Coton, M, Delbés-Paus, C, Irlinger, F, Desmasures, N, et al., Diversity and assessment of potential risk factors of Gram-negative isolates associated with French cheeses. *Food microbiology*, **2012**. 29(1): p. 88–98.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S074000201100205X>

57. Valsamaki, K, Michaelidou, A, and Polychroniadou, A, Biogenic amine production in Feta cheese. *Food Chem*, **2000**. 71(2): p. 259–266.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0308814600001680>
58. Komprda, T, Dohnal, V, and Závodníková, R, Contents of Some Biologically Active Amines in a Czech Blue-vein Cheese. *Czech J Food Sci*, **2008**. 26: p. 428–440.
59. Novella-Rodríguez, S, Veciana-Nogues, MT, Izquierdo-Pulido, M, Vidal-Carou, MC, et al., Distribution of biogenic amines and polyamines in cheese. *J Food Science*, **2003**. 68: p. 750–755.
60. Novella-Rodríguez, S, Veciana-Nogues, MT, and Vidal-Carou, MC, Biogenic amines and polyamines in milks and cheeses by iron high performance liquid chromatography. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2000**. 48: p. 5117–5123.
61. Novella-Rodríguez, S, Veciana-Nogues, MT, Roig-Sagues, AX, Trujillo-Mesa, AJ, et al., Influence of starter and nonstarter on the formation of biogenic amine in goat cheese during ripening. *J. Dairy Sci.*, **2002**. 85(10): p. 2471–8.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12416798
62. Gezginc, Y, Akyol, I, Kuley, E, and Ozogul, F, Biogenic amines formation in *Streptococcus thermophilus* isolated from home-made natural yogurt. *Food Chem*, **2013**. 138(1): p. 655–62.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23265537
63. Cho, TY, Han, GH, Bahn, KN, Son, YW, et al., Evaluation of biogenic amines in Korean commercial fermented foods. *Korean J Food Sci Technol*, **2006**. 38: p. 730–737.
<http://www.koreasauce.or.kr/ICSFiles/afieldfile/2008/03/06/biogenicamine.pdf>
64. Li, J, Ren, F, Gu, H, Li, X, et al., Safety evaluation in vitro of *Enterococcus durans* from Tibetan traditional fermented yak milk. *J Microbiol*, **2011**. 49(5): p. 721–8.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22068487
65. Rizzello, CG, Nionelli, L, Coda, R, De Angelis, M, et al., Effect of sourdough fermentation on stabilisation, and chemical and

nutritional characteristics of wheat germ. *Food Chem*, **2010**. 119: p. 1079–1089.

66. Özdestan, O, Alpözen, E, and Güven, G, Monitoring of biogenic amines in Kumru: a traditional fermented cereal food. *International Journal of Food Properties*, **2012**. 15: p. 972–981.

67. Ozdestan, O and Uren, A, Biogenic Amine Content of Tarhana: A Traditional Fermented Food. *International Journal of Food Properties*, **2011**. 16: p. 416–428.

68. Özdestan, O and Üren, A, Biogenic amine content of kefir: a fermented dairy product *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2010**. 231(Özdestan, O Üren, A Biogenic amine content of kefir: a fermented dairy product *European Food Research and Technology* 2010 231: 101): p. 101–107.

69. Populin, T, Moret, S, Truant, S, Lanfranco, S, et al., A survey on the presence of free glutamic acid in foodstuffs, with and without added monosodium glutamate. *Food Chem*, **2007**. 104: p. 1712–1717

70. Shulman, KI, Walker, SE, MacKenzie, S, and Knowles, S, Dietary restriction, tyramine, and the use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1989**. 9(6): p. 397–402.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2592589

71. Blackwell, B and Marley, E, Interactions of yeast extracts and their constituents with monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *Br J Pharmacol*, **1965**. 26: p. 142–161.
<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1476-5381.1966.tb01817.x/abstract>

72. Blackwell, B, Mabbitt, L, and Marley, E, Histamine and tyramine content of yeast products. *J Food Science*, **1969**. 34(1): p. 47–51.

73. Toro–Funes, N, Bosch–Fuste, J, Latorre–Moratalla, ML, Veciana–Nogues, MT, et al., Biologically active amines in fermented and non–fermented commercial soybean products from the Spanish market. *Food Chem*, **2015**. 173: p. 1119–24.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25466133>

74. Shukla, S, Kim, JK, and Kim, M, Occurrence of Biogenic Amines in Soybean Food Products. *Soya bean and health*, **2011**: p. 181–193.
75. Guidi, LR, Beatriz, M, and Gloria, A, Bioactive amines in soy sauce: Validation of method, occurrence and potential health effects. *Food Chem*, **2012**. 133: p. 323–328.
76. Kim, B, Byun, BY, and Mah, JH, Biogenic amine formation and bacterial contribution in Natto products. *Food Chem*, **2012**. 135(3): p. 2005–11.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22953951
77. Ibe, A, Tabata, S, Sadamasu, Y, Yasui, A, et al., [Production of tyramine in "moromi" mash during soy sauce fermentation]. *Shokuhin Eiseigaku Zasshi*, **2003**. 44(5): p. 220–6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14733136
78. Yongmeia, L, Xiaohonga, C, Meia, J, Xina, L, et al., Biogenic amines in Chinese soy sauce. *Food Control*, **2009**. 20: p. 593–597.
79. Stute, RK, Petridis, H, Steinhart, A, and Biernoth, G, Biogenic amines in fish and soy sauce *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2002**. 215: p. 101–107.
80. Kung, H-S, Tsaia, Y, and Weib, CI, Histamine and other biogenic amines and histamine-forming bacteria in miso products. *Food Chem*, **2007**. 101: p. 351–356.
81. Hana, B-Z, Romboutsb, FM, and Nout, MJR, Amino acid profiles of sufu, a Chinese fermented soybean food. *J Food Comp Analysis*, **2004**. 17: p. 689–698.
82. Kung, H-S, Yiing-Horng Leeb, Y-H, Changa, S-C, Cheng-I. Weic, C-I, et al., Histamine contents and histamine-forming bacteria in sufu products in Taiwan. *Food Control*, **2007**. 18: p. 381–386.
83. Byun, BY and Mah, JH, Occurrence of biogenic amines in Miso, Japanese traditional fermented soybean paste. *J Food Sci*, **2012**. 77(12): p. T216–23.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23140362

84. Tsai, CH, Chang, SC, and Kung, H-S, Histamine contents and histamine-forming bacteria in natto products in Taiwan. *Food Control*, **2007**. 18: p. 1026–1030.

<http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0956713506001770>

85. Shukla, S, Park, HK, Kim, JK, and Kim, M, Determination of biogenic amines in Korean traditional fermented soybean paste (Doenjang). *Food Chem Toxicol*, **2010**. 48(5): p. 1191–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20146930

86. Saaid, MB, Saad, NH, Hashim, ASM, and Saleh, MI, Determination of biogenic amines in selected Malaysian food. *Food Chem*, **2009**. 113: p. 1356–1362.

87. Krausová, P, Kalač, P, Křížek, M, and Pelikánová, T, Content of biologically active polyamines in livers of cattle, pigs and chickens after animal slaughter. *Meat Sci*, **2006**. 73: p. 640–644.

88. Hedberg, DL, Gordon, MW, and Blueck, BC, Six cases of hypertensive crisis in patients on tranlycypromine after eating chicken livers. *Am J Psychiatry*, **1966**. 122: p. 933–937.

89. Boulton, AA, Cookson, B, and Paulton, R, Hypertensive crisis in a patient on MAOI antidepressants following a meal of beef liver. *Can. Med. Assoc. J.*, **1970**. 102(13): p. 1394–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5422433

90. Galgano, F, Favati, F, Bonadio, M, Lorusso, V, et al., Role of biogenic amines as index of freshness in beef meat packed with different biopolymeric materials. *Food Research International*, **2009**. 42: p. 1147–1152.

91. Krausová, P, Kalač, P, Křížek, M, and Pelikánová, T, Changes in the content of biologically active polyamines during storage and cooking of pig liver. *Meat Sci*, **2007**. 77: p. 269–274.

92. Kalac, P and Glória, MBA, Biogenic amines in cheeses, wines, beers and sauerkraut, in *Biological Aspects of Biogenic Amines, Polyamines and Conjugates*, G Dandriofosse, Editor. 2009, Transworld Research Network: Kerala, India. p. 267–309.

93. Kalac, P, Biologically active polyamines in beef, pork and meat products: A review *Meat Sci*, **2006**. 73: p. 1–11.
94. Kalac, P, Křížek, M, T, P, Langova, M, et al., Contents of polyamines in selected foods. *Food Chem*, **2005**. 90: p. 561–564.
95. Jairath, G, Singh, PK, Dabur, RS, Rani, M, et al., Biogenic amines in meat and meat products and its public health significance: a review. *Journal of Food Science and Technology*, **2015**. 52: p. 6835–6846.
<http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s13197-015-1860-x>
96. Vinci, G and Antonelli, ML, Biogenic amines: quality index of freshness in red and white meat *Food Control*, **2002**. 13: p. 519–524
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0956713502000312>
97. Ruiz–Capillas, C and Jimenez–Colmenero, F, Biogenic amines in meat and meat products. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr*, **2004**. 44(7–8): p. 489–99.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15969322>
98. Kozová, M, Kalač, P, and Pelikánová, T, Changes in the content of biologically active polyamines during beef loin storage and cooking. *Meat Sci*, **2009**. 81: p. 607–611.
99. Nadon, CA, Ismond, MA, and Holley, R, Biogenic amines in vacuum–packaged and carbon dioxide–controlled atmosphere–packaged fresh pork stored at –1.50 degrees C. *J. Food Prot.*, **2001**. 64(2): p. 220–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11271771
100. Kozová, M, Kalač, P, and Pelikánová, T, Contents of biologically active polyamines in chicken meat, liver, heart and skin after slaughter and their changes during meat storage and cooking. *Food Chem*, **2009**. 116: p. 419–425.
101. Baston, O, Tofan, I, Stroia, AL, MOISE, D, et al., Refrigerated chicken meat freshness. Correlation between easily hydrolysable nitrogen, ph value and biogenic amine contents. *The Annals of the University Dunarea de Jos of Galati*, **2008**. Fascicle VI, II: p. 37–43.
102. Moreira, APS, Giombelli, A, Labanca, RA, Nelson, DL, et al., Effect of Aging on Bioactive Amines, Microbial Flora, Physico–

Chemical Characteristics, and Tenderness of Broiler Breast Meat. *Poult. Sci.*, **2008**. 87: p. 1868–1873.

103. Kalac, P, The roles of dietary polyamines in human health and their occurrence in foods. In A. K. Haghi (Ed.), *Advances in Food Science and Technology* (pp. 91–112).

New York: Nova Sci. Publ., **2010**.

104. Silva, CMG, Beatriz, M, and Glória, A, Bioactive amines in chicken breast and thigh after slaughter and during storage at 4 ± 1 °C and in chicken-based meat products. *Food Chem*, **2002**. 78: p. 241–248.

105. Fraqueza, MJ, Alfaia, CM, and Barreto, AS, Biogenic amine formation in turkey meat under modified atmosphere packaging with extended shelf life: Index of freshness. *Poult. Sci.*, **2012**. 91(6): p. 1465–72.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22582308

106. Arvanitoyannis, IS and Stratakos, AC, Application of Modified Atmosphere Packaging and Active/Smart Technologies to Red Meat and Poultry: A Review. *Food and Bioprocess Technology*, **2012**. 5: p. 1423–1446.

107. Dadáková, E, Pelikánová, T, and Kalač, P, Contents of biologically active polyamines in duck meat and giblets after slaughter and their changes during meat storage and cooking. *Food Research International*, **2012**. 48

: p. 28–33.

108. Rokkaa, M, Eerolaa, S, Smolanderb, M, Alakomib, H, et al., Monitoring of the quality of modified atmosphere packaged broiler chicken cuts stored in different temperature conditions: B. Biogenic amines as quality-indicating metabolites. *Food Control*, **2004**. 15: p. 601–607.

109. Durlu-Ozkaya, F, Ayhan, K, and Vural, N, Biogenic amines produced by Enterobacteriaceae isolated from meat products. *Meat Sci*, **2001**. 58(2): p. 163–6.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22062111>

110. Valero, BV, Bauer, F, Smulders, FJM, Ariño, A, et al., Biogenic Amines and Polyamines and Total Aerobic Count During Storage of

Vacuum-Packaged Porcine Kidney, Liver and Spleen Food Science and Technology International, **2005**. 11: p. 337–344

111. Kozová, M, Kalač, P, and Pelikánová, T, Biologically active polyamines in pig kidneys and spleen: Content after slaughter and changes during cold storage and cooking. *Meat Sci*, **2008**. 79: p. 326–331.

112. Delgado-Pando, G, Cofrades, S, Ruiz-Capillas, C, Triki, M, et al., Enriched n-3 PUFA/konjac gel low-fat pork liver pate: lipid oxidation, microbiological properties and biogenic amine formation during chilling storage. *Meat Sci*, **2012**. 92(4): p. 762–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22795631

113. Ruiz-Capillas, C and Jimenez-Colmenero, F, The effect of an argon-containing packaging atmosphere on the quality of fresh pork sausages kept at 1 °C. *Food Control*, **2010**. 21: p. 1331–1337.

114. Curiel, JA, Ruiz-Capillas, C, de Las Rivas, B, Carrascosa, AV, et al., Production of biogenic amines by lactic acid bacteria and enterobacteria isolated from fresh pork sausages packaged in different atmospheres and kept under refrigeration. *Meat Sci*, **2011**. 88(3): p. 368–73.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21316866

115. Lorenzo, JM, Martínez, S, Francoa, I, and Carballo, J, Biogenic amine content during the manufacture of dry-cured lacón, a Spanish traditional meat product: Effect of some additives. *Meat Sci*, **2007**. 77: p. 287–293.

116. Ruiz-Capillas, C and Jimenez-Colmenero, F, Biogenic amine content in Spanish retail market meat products treated with protective atmosphere and high pressure. *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2004**. 218: p. 237–241.

117. Papavergou, EJ, Savvaidis, IN, and Ambrosiadis, IA, Levels of biogenic amines in retail market fermented meat products. *Food Chem*, **2012**. 135(4): p. 2750–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22980868

118. Leggio, A, Belsito, EL, De Marco, R, Di Gioia, ML, et al., Dry fermented sausages of Southern Italy: a comparison of free amino

acids and biogenic amines between industrial and homemade products. *J Food Sci*, **2012**. 77(4): p. S170–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22515254

119. Latorre–Moratalla, ML, Bover–Cid, S, Veciana–Nogues, MT, and Vidal–Carou, MC, Control of biogenic amines in fermented sausages: role of starter cultures. *Front Microbiol*, **2012**. 3: p. 169.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22586423

120. Latorre–Moratalla, ML, Veciana–Nogues, T, Bover–Cid, S, Garriga, M, et al., Biogenic amines in traditional fermented sausages produced in selected European countries. *Food Chem*, **2008**. 107: p. 912–921.

121. Gardini, F, Bover–Cid, S, Tofalo, R, Belletti, N, et al., Modeling the aminogenic potential of *Enterococcus faecalis* EF37 in dry fermented sausages through chemical and molecular approaches. *Appl. Environ. Microbiol.*, **2008**. 74(9): p. 2740–50.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18296537

122. Bover–Cid, S, Torriani, S, Gatto, V, Tofalo, R, et al., Relationships between microbial population dynamics and putrescine and cadaverine accumulation during dry fermented sausage ripening. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, **2009**. 106(4): p. 1397–407.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19239554

123. Suzzi, G and Gardini, F, Biogenic amines in dry fermented sausages: a review. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, **2003**. 88(1): p. 41–54.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14527784

124. Bover–Cid, S, Hugas, M, Izquierdo–Pulido, M, and Vidal–Carou, MC, Amino acid–decarboxylase activity of bacteria isolated from fermented pork sausages. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, **2001**. 66(3): p. 185–9.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11428577

125. Komprda, T, Neznalova, J, Standara, S, and Bover–Cid, S, Effect of starter culture and storage temperature on the content of biogenic amines in dry fermented sausages poliean. *Meat Sci*, **2001**. 59: p. 267– 276.

126. Ferreira, IM and Pinho, O, Biogenic amines in Portuguese traditional foods and wines. *J. Food Prot.*, **2006**. 69(9): p. 2293–303.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16995541
127. Miguelez–Arrizadoa, MJ, Bover–Cid, S, and, MLL–M, and Vidal–Carou, MC, Biogenic amines in Spanish fermented sausages as a function of diameter and artisanal or industrial origin. *J. Sci. Food Agric.*, **2006**. 86: p. 549–557.
128. Prester, L, Biogenic amines in fish, fish products and shellfish: a review. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess*, **2011**. 28(11): p. 1547–60.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21834642
129. Visciano, P, Schirone, M, Tofalo, R, and Suzzi, G, Biogenic amines in raw and processed seafood. *Front Microbiol*, **2012**. 3: p. 188.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22675321
130. Zeng, X, Xia, W, Yang, F, and Jiang, Q, Changes of biogenic amines in Chinese low–salt fermented fish pieces (Suan yu) inoculated with mixed starter cultures. *International Journal of Food Science & Technology*, **2013**. 48(4): p. 685–692.
<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/ijfs.12010/abstract?systemMessage=Wiley+Online+Library+will+have+be+unavailable+on+Saturday+5th+December+from+10%3A00-14%3A00+GMT+%2F+05%3A00-09%3A00+EST+%2F+18%3A00-22%3A00+SGT+for+essential+maintenance.+Apologies+for+the+inconvenience.>
131. Emborg, J, Laursen, BG, Rathjen, T, and Dalgaard, P, Microbial spoilage and formation of biogenic amines in fresh and thawed modified atmosphere–packed salmon (*Salmo salar*) at 2 degrees C. *J. Appl. Microbiol.*, **2002**. 92(4): p. 790–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11966922
132. Katikou, P, Georgantelis, D, Paleologos, EK, Ambrosiadis, I, et al., Relation of Biogenic Amines' Formation with Microbiological and Sensory Attributes in *Lactobacillus*–Inoculated Vacuum–Packed Rainbow Trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) Fillets. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2006**. 54: p. 4277–4283.
133. Chytiri, S, Paleologos, E, Savvaidis, I, and Kontominas, MG, Relation of biogenic amines with microbial and sensory changes of

whole and filleted freshwater rainbow trout (*Onchorynchus mykiss*) stored on ice. *J. Food Prot.*, **2004**. 67(5): p. 960–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15151234

134. Ruiz–Capillas, C and Moral, A, Formation of biogenic amines in bulk–stored chilled hake (*Merluccius merluccius* L.) packed under atmospheres. *J. Food Prot.*, **2001**. 64(7): p. 1045–50.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11456190

135. Özogul, F and Özogula, Y, Changes in Biogenic Amines in Herring Stored under Modified Atmosphere and Vacuum Pack. *J Food Science*, **2002**. 67: p. 2497–2501.

136. Özogul, F and Özogula, Y, Biogenic amine content and biogenic amine quality indices of sardines (*Sardina pilchardus*) stored in modified atmosphere packaging and vacuum packaging. *Food Chem*, **2006**. 99: p. 574–578

137. Emborg, J and Dalgaard, P, Modelling the effect of temperature, carbon dioxide, water activity and pH on growth and histamine formation by *Morganella psychrotolerans*. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, **2008**. 128(2): p. 226–33.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18845351

138. Gingerich, TM, Lorca, T, Flick, GJ, Pierson, MD, et al., Biogenic amine survey and organoleptic changes in fresh, stored, and temperature–abused bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*). *J. Food Prot.*, **1999**. 62(9): p. 1033–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=10492478

139. Anne Brillet, A, Marie–France Pilet, M–F, Hervé Prevost, H, Mireille Cardinal, M, et al., Effect of inoculation of *Carnobacterium divergens* V41, a biopreservative strain against *Listeria monocytogenes* risk, on the microbiological, chemical and sensory quality of cold–smoked salmon. *Int. J. Food Microbiol.*, **2005**. 104: p. 309–324.

140. Jørgensen, LV, Dalgaard, P, and Huss, HH, Multiple Compound Quality Index for Cold–Smoked Salmon (*Salmo salar*) Developed by Multivariate Regression of Biogenic Amines and pH. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2000**. 48: p. 2448–2453.

141. Periago, MJ, Rodrigo, J, Ros, G, Rodriguez-Jerez, JJ, et al., Monitoring volatile and nonvolatile amines in dried and salted roes of tuna (*Thunnus thynnus* L.) during manufacture and storage. *J. Food Prot.*, **2003**. 66(2): p. 335–40.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12597499
142. Veciana-Nogues, MT, Marine-Font, A, and Vidal-Carou, MC, Biogenic Amines in Fresh and Canned Tuna. Effects of Canning on Biogenic Amine Contents. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **1997**. 45: p. 4324–4328.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14717360
143. Veciana-Nogues, MT, Vidal-Carou, MC, and Marine-Font, A, Histamine and Tyramine in Preserved and Semi-preserved Fish Products. *J Food Science*, **2006**. 54: p. 1653 – 1655.
144. Erkan, N, Helle, N, and Ozden, O, [The content of biogenic amines in canned fish from the Turkish market]. *Berl. Munch. Tierarztl. Wochenschr.*, **2001**. 114(7–8): p. 241–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11505795
145. Tsai, Y-H and Kunga, H-F, Determination of histamine in canned mackerel implicated in a food borne poisoning *Food Control*, **2005**. 16: p. 579–585.
146. Shulman, KI and Walker, SE, Refining the MAOI diet: tyramine content of pizzas and soy products. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **1999**. 60(3): p. 191–3.
147. Moret, S, Smela, D, Populin, T, and Conte, LS, A survey on free biogenic amine content of fresh and preserved vegetables. *Food Chem*, **2005**. 89(3): p. 355–361.
148. Ly, D, Kang, K, Choi, J-Y, Ishihara, A, et al., HPLC Analysis of Serotonin, Tryptamine, Tyramine, and the Hydroxycinnamic Acid Amides of Serotonin and Tyramine in Food Vegetables. *J Med Food*, **2008**. 11(2): p. 385–389.
149. Kalac, P, Švecová, S, and T, P, Levels of biogenic amines in typical vegetable products. *Food Chem*, **2002**. 77: p. 349–351.

150. Lavizzari, T, Teresa Veciana–Nogues, M, Bover–Cid, S, Marine–Font, A, et al., Improved method for the determination of biogenic amines and polyamines in vegetable products by ion–pair high–performance liquid chromatography. *J. Chromatogr. A*, **2006**. 1129(1): p. 67–72.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16859691
151. Calixto, JB, Kassuya, CA, Andre, E, and Ferreira, J, Contribution of natural products to the discovery of the transient receptor potential (TRP) channels family and their functions. *Pharmacol. Ther.*, **2005**. 106(2): p. 179–208.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15866319
152. Zhao, G, Jiang, ZH, Zheng, XW, Zang, SY, et al., Dopamine transporter inhibitory and antiparkinsonian effect of common flowering quince extract. *Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav.*, **2008**. 90(3): p. 363–71.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18485464
153. White, J, Fraud fighter: 'Faked research is endemic in China' *New Scientist*, **2012**(2891): p.
<http://www.newscientist.com/article/mg21628910.300-fraud-fighter-faked-research-is-endemic-in-china.html>.
154. Goyoaga, C, Burbano, C, Cuadrado, C, Varela, A, et al., Content and distribution of vicine, convicine and I –DOPA during germination and seedling growth of two *Vicia faba* L. varieties. *Eur Food Res Technol*, **2008**. 227: p. 1537–1542.
155. Ladha, SS, Walker, R, and Shill, HA, Case of neuroleptic malignant–like syndrome precipitated by abrupt fava bean discontinuance. *Mov. Disord.*, **2005**. 20(5): p. 630–1.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15719433
156. Katzenschlager, R, Evans, A, Manson, A, Patsalos, PN, et al., Mucuna pruriens in Parkinson's disease: a double blind clinical and pharmacological study. *J. Neurol. Neurosurg. Psychiatry*, **2004**. 75(12): p. 1672–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15548480
157. Misra, L and Wagner, H, Extraction of bioactive principles from *Mucuna pruriens* seeds. *Indian J. Biochem. Biophys.*, **2007**. 44(1): p. 56–60.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17385342

158. Tharakan, B, Dhanasekaran, M, Mize-Berge, J, and Manyam, BV, Anti-Parkinson botanical *Mucuna pruriens* prevents levodopa induced plasmid and genomic DNA damage. *Phytother. Res.*, **2007**. 21(12): p. 1124–6.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17622977

159. Randhir, R and Shetty, K, Microwave-induced stimulation of L-DOPA, phenolics and antioxidant activity in fava bean (*Vicia faba*) for Parkinson's diet Process Biochemistry, **2003**. 39: p. 1775–1784

160. Hunter, KR, Boakes, AJ, Laurence, DR, and Stern, GM, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors and L-dopa. *Br. Med. J.*, **1970**. 3: p. 388 [1 page].

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5451592

161. Teychenne, PF, Calne, DB, Lewis, PJ, and Findley, LJ, Interactions of levodopa with inhibitors of monoamine oxidase and L-aromatic amino acid decarboxylase. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, **1975**. 18(3): p. 273–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=1164817

162. Tazoe, M, Narita, M, Sakuta, R, Nagai, T, et al., Hyperkalemia and hyperdopaminemia induced by an obsessive eating of banana in an anorexia nervosa adolescent. *Brain Dev.*, **2007**. 29(6): p. 369–72.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17194559

163. Lavizzari, T, Veciana-Nogues, MT, Weingart, O, Bover-Cid, S, et al., Occurrence of Biogenic Amines and Polyamines in Spinach and Changes during Storage under Refrigeration. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2007**. 55: p. 9514–9519.

164. Quansah, L, Molecular Basis of Catecholamine Biosynthesis in Banana Fruit. MSc Thesis. Hebrew University of Jerusalem, **2009**.

http://www.agri.gov.il/download/files/QuansahLydia2009MSc_1.pdf

165. Riggan, RM, McCarthy, MJ, and Kissinger, PT, Identification of salsolinol as a major dopamine metabolite in the banana. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **1976**. 24(1): p. 189–91.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=1245664

166. Waalkes, TP, Sjoerdsma, A, Greveling, CR, Weissbach, H, et al., Serotonin, norepinephrine, and related compounds in bananas. *Science*, **1958**. 127: p. 648–650.
167. Martel, CL, Mckie, JB, Adams, JD, McComb, JG, et al., Transport of DA at the blood–brain barrier of the guinea pig: inhibition by psychotropic drugs and nicotine. *Pharm. Res.*, **1996**. 13(2): p. 290–295.
168. Guo, L, Zhang, Y, and Li, Q, Spectrophotometric determination of dopamine hydrochloride in pharmaceutical, banana, urine and serum samples by potassium ferricyanide–Fe(III). *Anal Sci*, **2009**. 25(12): p. 1451–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20009333
169. Bapat, VA, Suprasanna, P, Ganapathi, TR, and Rao, PS, In Vitro Production Of L-dopa In Tissue Cultures Of Banana. *Pharmaceutical Biol*, **2000**. 38: p. 271–273.
170. Romphopha, T, Ririphanich, J, Ueda, Y, Abe, K, et al., Changes in concentrations of phenolic compounds and polyphenol oxidase activity in banana peel during storage. *Food Preserv Sci*, **2005**. 31: p. 111–115.
<http://sciencelinks.jp/j-east/article/200516/000020051605A0606719.php>
171. Kanazawa, K and Sakakibara, H, High Content of Dopamine, a Strong Antioxidant, in Cavendish Banana. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2000**. 48: p. 844–848.
172. Ogo, Y, Sunagane, N, Ohta, T, and Uruno, T, Banana juice reduces bioavailability of levodopa preparation. *Yakugaku Zasshi.*, **2005**. 125(12): p. 1009–11.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16327247
173. Garfinkel, HA, Banana and L-dopa. *Br. Med. J.*, **1972**. 1(5795): p. 312.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5008494
174. Generali, JA, Hogan, LC, McFarlane, M, Schwab, S, et al., Hypertensive crisis resulting from avocados and a MAO inhibitor. *Ann. Pharmacother.*, **1981**. 15(11): p. 904–906.
<http://aop.sagepub.com/content/15/11/904.short>

175. Garcia-Garcia, P, Brenes-Balbuena, M, Romero-Barranco, C, and Garrido-Fernandez, A, Biogenic amines in packed table olives and pickles. *J. Food Prot.*, **2001**. 64(3): p. 374–8.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11252482>
176. Tofalo, R, Schirone, M, Perpetuini, G, Angelozzi, G, et al., Microbiological and chemical profiles of naturally fermented table olives and brines from different Italian cultivars. *Antonie Van Leeuwenhoek*, **2012**. 102(1): p. 121–31.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22430765
177. Kosson, R and Elkner1, K, Effect of Storage Period on Biogenic Amine Content in Sauerkraut Vegetable Crops Research Bulletin, **2010**. 73: p. 151–160.
178. Pastore, P, Favaroa, G, Badoccoa, D, Tapparao, A, et al., Determination of biogenic amines in chocolate by ion chromatographic separation and pulsed integrated amperometric detection with implemented wave-form at Au disposable electrode. *J. Chromatogr. A*, **2005**. 1098: p. 11–115.
179. Baker, GB, Wong, JTF, Coutts, RT, and Pasutto, FM, Simultaneous extraction and quantitation of several bioactive amines in cheese and chocolate. *J. Chromatogr.*, **1987**. 392: p. 317–331.
180. Strolin Benedetti, M, Tipton, KF, and Whomsley, R, Amine oxidases and monooxygenases in the in vivo metabolism of xenobiotic amines in humans: has the involvement of amine oxidases been neglected? *Fundam. Clin. Pharmacol.*, **2007**. 21(5): p. 467–80.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17868200
181. Bonetta, S, Carraro, E, Coisson, JD, Travaglia, F, et al., Detection of biogenic amine producer bacteria in a typical Italian goat cheese. *J. Food Prot.*, **2008**. 71(1): p. 205–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18236686
182. Rabie, MA, Elsaidy, S, el-Badawy, AA, Siliha, H, et al., Biogenic amine contents in selected Egyptian fermented foods as determined by ion-exchange chromatography. *J. Food Prot.*, **2011**. 74(4): p. 681–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21477488

183. Berlin, I, Zimmer, R, Cournot, A, Payan, C, et al., Determination and comparison of the pressor effect of tyramine during long-term moclobemide and tranylcypromine treatment in healthy volunteers. *Clin Pharmacol Ther*, **1989**. 46(3): p. 344–51.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2673623
184. VanDenBerg, CM, Blob, LF, Kemper, EM, and Azzaro, AJ, Tyramine pharmacokinetics and reduced bioavailability with food. *J Clin Pharmacol*, **2003**. 43(6): p. 604–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12817523
185. Ottervanger, JP, Klaver, MM, Kolling, P, and Stricker, BH, [Intracranial hemorrhage following use of MAO inhibitor tranylcypromine and beer]. *Ned Tijdschr Geneesk*, **1993**. 137(18): p. 921–2.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=8492837
186. Lonvaud-Funel, A, Biogenic amines in wines: role of lactic acid bacteria. *FEMS Microbiol. Lett.*, **2001**. 199(1): p. 9–13.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11356560
187. Ancín-Azpilicueta, C, González-Marco, A, and Ajiménez-Moreno, N, Current Knowledge about the Presence of Amines in Wine. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.*, **2008**. 48: p. 257 – 275.
188. Hlabangana, L, Hernandez-Cassou, S, and Saurina, J, Determination of biogenic amines in wines by ion-pair liquid chromatography and post-column derivatization with 1,2-naphthoquinone-4-sulphonate. *J. Chromatogr. A*, **2006**. 1130(1): p. 130–6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16814303
189. Gomez-Alonso, S, Hermosin-Gutierrez, I, and Garcia-Romero, E, Simultaneous HPLC analysis of biogenic amines, amino acids, and ammonium ion as aminoenone derivatives in wine and beer samples. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2007**. 55(3): p. 608–13.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17263449
190. Jayarajah, CN, Skelley, AM, Fortner, AD, and Mathies, RA, Analysis of neuroactive amines in fermented beverages using a portable microchip capillary electrophoresis system. *Ann Chem*, **2007**. 79(21): p. 8162–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17892274

191. Konakovsky, V, Focke, M, Hoffmann–Sommergruber, K, Schmid, R, et al., Levels of histamine and other biogenic amines in high–quality red wines. *Food Addit Contam Part A Chem Anal Control Expo Risk Assess*, **2011**. 28(4): p. 408–16.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21337238
192. Arrieta, MP and Prats–Moya, MS, Free amino acids and biogenic amines in Alicante Monastrell wines. *Food Chem*, **2012**. 135(3): p. 1511–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22953887
193. Ginterova, P, Marak, J, Stanova, A, Maier, V, et al., Determination of selected biogenic amines in red wines by automated on–line combination of capillary isotachopheresis–capillary zone electrophoresis. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci*, **2012**.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22884886
194. Henriquez–Aedo, K, Vega, M, Prieto–Rodriguez, S, and Aranda, M, Evaluation of biogenic amines content in Chilean reserve varietal wines. *Food Chem Toxicol*, **2012**. 50(8): p. 2742–50.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22640936
195. Moreno–Arribas, MV and Polo, MC, Occurrence of lactic acid bacteria and biogenic amines in biologically aged wines. *Food Microbiol*, **2008**. 25(7): p. 875–81.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18721676
196. Mafra, I, Herbert, P, Santos, L, Barros, P, et al., Evaluation of Biogenic Amines in Some Portuguese Quality Wines by HPLC Fluorescence Detection of OPA Derivatives. *Am J Enol Vit*, **1999**. 50: p. 128–132.
197. Herbert, P, Cabrita, MJ, Ratola, N, Laureano, O, et al., Free amino acids and biogenic amines in wines and musts from the Alentejo region: evolution of amines during alcoholic fermentation and relationship with variety, sub–region and vintage. *J Food Eng*, **2005**. 66: p. 315–322.
198. Leitao, M, Marques, CAP, and Romao, MVS, A survey of biogenic amines in commercial Portuguese wines. *Food Control*, **2005**. 16: p. 199–204.

199. Landete, JM, Ferrer, S, Polo, L, and Pardo, I, Biogenic amines in wines from three Spanish regions. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **2005**. 53(4): p. 1119–24.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15713028
200. Marcobal, A, Polo, MC, Martin-Alvarez, PJ, and Moreno-Arribas, MV, Biogenic amine content of red Spanish wines: comparison of a direct ELISA and an HPLC method for the determination of histamine in wines. *Food Research International*, **2005**. 38: p. 387–394.
201. Preti, R, Vieri, S, and Vinci, G, Biogenic amine profiles and antioxidant properties of Italian red wines from different price categories. *J Food Comp Analysis*, **2015**.
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0889157515002045>
202. Hannah, P, Glover, V, and Sandler, M, Tyramine in wine and beer. *Lancet*, **1988**. 1(1): p. 879.
203. Kirschbaum, J, A, M, and Brückner, H, Determination of biogenic amines in fermented beverages and vinegars by pre-column derivatization with para -nitrobenzyloxycarbonyl chloride (PNZ-Cl) and reversed-phase LC Chromatography, **1999**. 49: p. 117–124.
204. Kalac, P and Krížek, M, A Review of Biogenic Amines and Polyamines in Beer. *J Inst Brew*, **2003**. 109: p. 123–128.
205. Kalac, P, Hlavatá, V, and Kùířek, M, Concentrations of five biogenic amines in Czech beers and factors affecting their formation. *Food Chem*, **1997**. 58: p. 209–214.
206. Kalac, P, Šavel, J, Kùířek, M, Pelikánová, T, et al., Biogenic amine formation in bottled beer. *Food Chem*, **2002**. 79: p. 431–434.
207. Buňka, F, Budinský, P, Čechová, M, Drienovský, V, et al., Content of biogenic amines and polyamines in beers from the Czech Republic. *J Inst Brew*, **2012**. 118: p. 213–216.
208. Tang, T, Shi, T, Qian, K, Li, P, et al., Determination of biogenic amines in beer with pre-column derivatization by high

performance liquid chromatography. *J Chromatogr B Analyt Technol Biomed Life Sci*, **2009**. 877(5–6): p. 507–12.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19162570

209. Cortacero–Ramirez, S, Arraez–Roman, D, Antonio Segura–Carretero, A, and Fernandez–Gutierrez, A, Determination of biogenic amines in beers and brewing–process samples by capillary electrophoresis coupled to laser–induced fluorescence detection. *Food Chem*, **2007**. 100: p. 383–389.

210. Izquierdo–Pulido, M, Vidal–Caour, MC, and Marin´e–Font, A, Determination of biogenic amines in beers and their raw materials by ion–pair liquid chromatography with postcolumn derivatization. *J. AOAC Int*, **1993**. 76: p. 1027–1032.

211. Izquierdo–Pulido, M, Vidal–Caour, MC, and Marin´e–Font, A, Histamine and tyramine in beers: contents and relationship with other analytical data. *J. Food Compos. Anal*, **1989**. 2: p. 219–227.

212. Izquierdo–Pulido, M, Hernandez–Jover, T, Marin´e–Font, A, and Vidal–Caour, MC, Biogenic Amines in European Beers. *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, **1996**. 44: p. 3159–3163.

213. Anli, RE, Vura, N, Demiray, S, and Mert, B, Biogenic Amine Content of Beers Consumed in Turkey and Influence of Storage Conditions on Biogenic Amine Formation. *J Inst Brew*, **2006**. 112: p. 267–274.

214. Tailor, SA, Shulman, KI, Walker, SE, Moss, J, et al., Hypertensive episode associated with phenelzine and tap beer—a reanalysis of the role of pressor amines in beer. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1994**. 14(1): p. 5–14.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=8151003

215. Loret, S, Deloyer, P, and Dandrifosse, G, Levels of biogenic amines as a measure of the quality of the beer fermentation process: Data from Belgian samples. *Food Chem*, **2005**. 89: p. 519–525.

216. Uragoda, CG and Lodha, SC, Histamine intoxication in a tuberculous patient after ingestion of cheese. *Tubercle*, **1979**. 60(1): p. 59–61.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=109979

217. Uragoda, CG, Histamine poisoning in tuberculous patients after ingestion of tuna fish. *Am. Rev. Respir. Dis.*, **1980**. 121(1): p. 157–9.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=7188722

218. Aloysius, DJ and Uragoda, CG, Histamine poisoning on ingestion of tuna fish. *J. Trop. Med. Hyg.*, **1983**. 86(1): p. 13–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=6854698

219. Diao, YF, [Histamine-like reaction in tuberculosis patients eating fish containing much histamine under treatment with isoniazid in 277 cases]. *Zhonghua Jie He He Hu Xi Xi Ji Bing Za Zhi*, **1986**. 9(5): p. 267–9, 317–8.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=3803083

220. Morinaga, S, Kawasaki, A, Hirata, H, Suzuki, S, et al., Histamine poisoning after ingestion of spoiled raw tuna in a patient taking isoniazid. *Intern Med*, **1997**. 36(3): p. 198–200.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9144013

221. Miki, M, Ishikawa, T, and Okayama, H, An outbreak of histamine poisoning after ingestion of the ground saury paste in eight patients taking isoniazid in tuberculous ward. *Intern Med*, **2005**. 44(11): p. 1133–6.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16357449

222. Kahana, LM and Todd, E, Histamine intoxication in a tuberculosis patient on isoniazid. *Canadian Disease Weekly Report*, **1981**. 7: p. 79–80.

223. Maintz, L and Novak, N, Histamine and histamine intolerance. *Am J Clin Nutr*, **2007**. 85(5): p. 1185–96.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17490952

224. Jarisch, R, Histamin-Intoleranz. *Histamin und Seekrankheit*. 2nd ed. Thieme, Stuttgart, **2004**.

225. Ricci, G, Zannoni, M, Cigolini, D, Caroselli, C, et al., Tryptase serum level as a possible indicator of scombroid syndrome. *Clin Toxicol (Phila)*, **2010**. 48(3): p. 203–6.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20230333

226. Horton, R, The Dawn of McScience. New York Rev Books, **2004**. 51: p. 7–9.

227. Horton, R, Memorandum by Richard Horton (PI 108). The pharmaceutical industry and medical journals. UK Parliament: Select Committee on Health. Minutes of Evidence, **2004**: p.

<http://www.parliament.the-stationery-office.co.uk/pa/cm200405/cmselect/cmhealth/42/4121604.htm>.

<http://www.parliament.the-stationery-office.co.uk/pa/cm200405/cmselect/cmhealth/42/4121604.htm>

228. Karasu, TB, Gelenberg, A, Merriam, A, Wang, P, et al., Practice guidelines for the treatment of patients with major depressive disorder (revision). Am J Psychiatry, **2000**. 157: p. (Suppl) 1 –45.

229. Malhi, GS, Adams, D, Porter, R, Wignall, A, et al., Clinical practice recommendations for depression. Acta Psychiatr Scand Suppl, **2009**. 119 (Suppl. 439)(439): p. 8–26.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19356154

230. Anderson, IM, Ferrier, IN, Baldwin, RC, Cowen, PJ, et al., Evidence-based guidelines for treating depressive disorders with antidepressants: a revision of the 2000 British Association for Psychopharmacology guidelines. J Psychopharmacol, **2008**. 22(4): p. 343–96.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18413657

231. Frances, AJ, Kahn, DA, Carpenter, D, Docherty, JP, et al., The expert consensus guidelines for treating depression in bipolar disorder. J Clin Psychiatry, **1998**. 59(Suppl 4): p. 73–9.

232. Bauer, M, Whybrow, PC, Angst, J, Versiani, M, et al., World federation of societies of biological psychiatry (WFSBP) Guidelines for biological treatment of unipolar depressive disorders, part 1: Acute and continuation treatment of major depressive disorder. World J Biol Psychiatry, **2002**. 3(1): p. 5–43.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12479086

233. Yatham, LN, Kennedy, SH, O'Donovan, C, Parikh, S, et al., Canadian network for mood and anxiety treatments (CANMAT) guidelines for the management of patients with bipolar disorder:

consensus and controversies. *Bipolar Disord*, **2005**. 7 Suppl 3: p. 5–69.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15952957

234. Shulman, KI, Fischer, HD, Herrmann, N, Huo, CY, et al., Current prescription patterns and safety profile of irreversible monoamine oxidase inhibitors: a population-based cohort study of older adults. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2009**. 70: p. 1681–6.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19852903

235. Petersen, T, Dording, C, Neault, NB, Kornbluh, R, et al., A survey of prescribing practices in the treatment of depression. *Prog. Neuropsychopharmacol. Biol. Psychiatry*, **2002**. 26(1): p. 177–87.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11853110

236. Paykel, ES and White, JL, A European study of views on the use of monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *Br J Psychiatry*, **1989**. 155 (suppl 6): p. 9–17.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2695206

237. Krishnan, KR, Revisiting monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2007**. 68 Suppl 8: p. 35–41.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17640156

238. Thase, ME, Trivedi, MH, and Rush, AJ, MAOIs in the contemporary treatment of depression. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, **1995**. 12(3): p. 185–219.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=7612154

239. Henkel, V, Mergl, R, Allgaier, AK, Kohnen, R, et al., Treatment of depression with atypical features: a meta-analytic approach. *Psychiatry Res.*, **2006**. 141(1): p. 89–101.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16321446

240. Mallinger, AG, Frank, E, Thase, ME, Barwell, MM, et al., Revisiting the effectiveness of standard antidepressants in bipolar disorder: are monoamine oxidase inhibitors superior? *Psychopharmacol. Bull.*, **2009**. 42(2): p. 64–74.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19629023

241. Nierenberg, AA, Alpert, JE, Pava, J, Rosenbaum, JF, et al., Course and treatment of atypical depression. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **1998**. 59 Suppl 18: p. 5–9.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9840192

242. Fiedorowicz, JG and Swartz, KL, The role of monoamine oxidase inhibitors in current psychiatric practice. *J Psychiatr Pract*, **2004**. 10(4): p. 239–48.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15552546

243. Tyrer, P, Twisted science, regulation, and molecules. *Lancet*, **2009**. 373: p. 1513–1514.

244. Gillman, PK, Moclobemide and the risk of serotonin toxicity (or serotonin syndrome). *CNS Drug Rev*, **2004**. 10: p. 83–85.

<http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/store/10.1111/j.1527-3458.2004.tb00005.x/asset/j.1527-3458.2004.tb00005.x.pdf?v=1&t=ih5v9pa8&s=967b77c9e3938d24bfb26f8a8118da5b710cfe9a>

245. Gillman, PK, Extracting value from case reports: lessons from serotonin toxicity. *Anaesthesia*, **2006**. 61: p. 419–422.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16674612

246. Iversen, L, Gibbons, S, Treble, R, Setola, V, et al., Neurochemical profiles of some novel psychoactive substances. *Eur J Pharmacol*, **2013**. 700(1–3): p. 147–51.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23261499>

247. Pilgrim, JL, Gerostamoulos, D, Woodford, N, and Drummer, OH, Serotonin toxicity involving MDMA (ecstasy) and moclobemide. *Forensic Sci Int*, **2011**.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21570786

248. Vuori, E, Henry, JA, Ojanpera, I, Nieminen, R, et al., Death following ingestion of MDMA (ecstasy) and moclobemide. *Addiction*, **2003**. 98(3): p. 365–8.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12603236

249. Schifano, F, Orsolini, L, Duccio Papanti, G, and Corkery, JM, Novel psychoactive substances of interest for psychiatry. *World Psychiatry*, **2015**. 14(1): p. 15–26.

<http://europepmc.org/articles/PMC4329884>

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25655145>

250. Cottencin, O, Rolland, B, and Karila, L, New designer drugs (synthetic cannabinoids and synthetic cathinones): review of literature. *Curr. Pharm. Des.*, **2014**. 20(25): p. 4106–11.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24001292>
251. Meyer, MR and Maurer, HH, Metabolism of designer drugs of abuse: an updated review. *Curr Drug Metab*, **2010**. 11(5): p. 468–82.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20540700>
252. Musselman, ME and Hampton, JP, "Not for human consumption": a review of emerging designer drugs. *Pharmacotherapy*, **2014**. 34(7): p. 745–57.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24710806>
253. Coupland, C, Hill, T, Morriss, R, Arthur, A, et al., Antidepressant use and risk of suicide and attempted suicide or self harm in people aged 20 to 64: cohort study using a primary care database. *BMJ*, **2015**. 350: p. h517.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25693810>
254. Tidemalm, D, Beckman, K, Dahlin, M, Vaez, M, et al., Age-specific suicide mortality following non-fatal self-harm: national cohort study in Sweden. *Psychol Med*, **2015**. 45(8): p. 1699–707.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25425148>
255. Nordentoft, M, Mortensen, PB, and Pedersen, CB, Absolute risk of suicide after first hospital contact in mental disorder. *Arch. Gen. Psychiatry*, **2011**. 68(10): p. 1058–64.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21969462>
256. Harris, EC and Barraclough, B, Suicide as an outcome for mental disorders. A meta-analysis. *Br J Psychiatry*, **1997**. 170: p. 205–28.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9229027
257. Simon, GE, Savarino, J, Operskalski, B, and Wang, PS, Suicide risk during antidepressant treatment. *Am J Psychiatry*, **2006**. 163(1): p. 41–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16390887
258. Simon, GE, Hunkeler, E, Fireman, B, Lee, JY, et al., Risk of suicide attempt and suicide death in patients treated for bipolar disorder. *Bipolar Disord*, **2007**. 9(5): p. 526–30.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17680924
259. Philippe, A, [Suicide: epidemiological data]. *Rev. Prat.*, **2011**. 61(2): p. 175–9, 182–3.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21618761

260. Olin, B, Jayewardene, AK, Bunker, M, and Moreno, F, Mortality and suicide risk in treatment-resistant depression: an observational study of the long-term impact of intervention. *PLoS One*, **2012**. 7(10): p. e48002.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=23133537

261. Pompili, M, Gonda, X, Serafini, G, Innamorati, M, et al., Epidemiology of suicide in bipolar disorders: a systematic review of the literature. *Bipolar Disord*, **2013**. 15(5): p. 457–90.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23755739>

262. Crump, C, Sundquist, K, Winkleby, MA, and Sundquist, J, Comorbidities and mortality in bipolar disorder: a Swedish national cohort study. *JAMA Psychiatry*, **2013**. 70(9): p. 931–9.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23863861>

263. Blair-West, GW, Cantor, CH, Mellsop, GW, and Eyeson-Annan, ML, Lifetime suicide risk in major depression: sex and age determinants. *J Affect Disord*, **1999**. 55(2–3): p. 171–8.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10628886>

264. Angst, J, Angst, F, Gerber-Werder, R, and Gamma, A, Suicide in 406 mood-disorder patients with and without long-term medication: a 40 to 44 years' follow-up. *Arch Suicide Res*, **2005**. 9(3): p. 279–300.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16020171

265. Shorter, E, *Before prozac: the troubled history of mood disorders in psychiatry*. 2009: Oxford University Press.

266. Isbister, GK, Hackett, LP, Dawson, AH, Whyte, IM, et al., Moclobemide poisoning: toxicokinetics and occurrence of serotonin toxicity. *Brit J of Clin Pharmacol*, **2003**. 56: p. 441–450.

267. Isbister, GK, McGettigan, P, and Dawson, A, A fatal case of moclobemide-citalopram intoxication. *J. Anal. Toxicol.*, **2001**. 25(8): p. 716–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11765030

268. Buckett, WR, Thomas, PC, and Luscombe, GP, The pharmacology of sibutramine hydrochloride (BTS 54 524), a new antidepressant which induces rapid noradrenergic down-regulation. *Prog. Neuropsychopharmacol. Biol. Psychiatry*, **1988**. 12(5): p. 575–84.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2851857

269. King, DJ and Devaney, N, Clinical pharmacology of sibutramine hydrochloride (BTS 54524), a new antidepressant, in healthy volunteers. *Brit J of Clin Pharmacol*, **1988**. 26(5): p. 607–11.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=3207566

270. Dujovne, CA, Zavoral, JH, Rowe, E, and Mendel, CM, Effects of sibutramine on body weight and serum lipids: a double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled study in 322 overweight and obese patients with dyslipidemia. *Am. Heart J.*, **2001**. 142(3): p. 489–97.

<http://www.mosby.com/scripts/om.dll/serve?action=searchDB&searchDBfor=art&artType=abs&id=a117510&target=>

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11526363

271. Heshka, S, Kaiser, P, de Haan, H, Van Itallie, T, et al., Anorectic activity and safety of sibutramine 10 mg per day in obese subjects. *North American Association for the Study of Obesity, Milwaukee.*, **1993**.

272. Siramshetty, VB, Nickel, J, Omieczynski, C, Gohlke, BO, et al., WITHDRAWN—a resource for withdrawn and discontinued drugs. *Nucleic Acids Res*, **2015**.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26553801>

273. Young, CS, Mason, R, and Hill, SJ, Inhibition by H1-antihistamines of the uptake of noradrenaline and 5-HT into rat brain synaptosomes. *Biochem Pharmacol*, **1988**. 37(5): p. 976–8.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2894209>

274. Yeh, SY, Dersch, C, Rothman, R, and Cadet, JL, Effects of antihistamines on 3, 4-methylenedioxymethamphetamine-induced depletion of serotonin in rats. *Synapse*, **1999**. 33(3): p. 207–17.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=10420168

275. Lidbrink, P, Jonsson, G, and Fuxe, K, The effect of imipramine-like drugs and antihistamine drugs on uptake mechanisms in the central noradrenaline and 5-hydroxytryptamine neurons. *Neuropharmacology*, **1971**. 10(5): p. 521–536.

276. Carlsson, A, Jonason, J, and Lindqvist, M, Demonstration of extra neuronal 5-Hydroxytryptamine accumulation in brain following membrane-pump blockade by chlorimipramine. *Brain Res.*, **1969**. 12: p. 456–460.

277. Carlsson, A and Lindqvist, M, Central and peripheral monoaminergic membrane-pump blockade by some addictive analgesics and antihistamines. *Journal of Pharmacy Pharmacology and Chemotherapy*, **1969**. 21: p. 460-464.
278. Miyata, S, Hirano, S, Ohsawa, M, and Kamei, J, Chlorpheniramine exerts anxiolytic-like effects and activates prefrontal 5-HT systems in mice. *Psychopharmacology*, **2011**. 213(2-3): p. 441-52.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19823805>
279. Gruetter, CA, Lemke, SM, Anestis, DK, Szarek, JL, et al., Potentiation of 5-hydroxytryptamine-induced contraction in rat aorta by chlorpheniramine, citalopram and fluoxetine. *Eur J Pharmacol*, **1992**. 217: p. 109-118.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1358631>
280. Monte, AA, Chuang, R, and Bodmer, M, Dextromethorphan, chlorphenamine and serotonin toxicity: case report and systematic literature review. *Brit J of Clin Pharmacol*, **2010**. 70(6): p. 794-8.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21175434
281. Sakurai, E, Yamasaki, S, Hikichi, N, and Onodera, K, Effects of d- and dl-chlorpheniramine on serotonin and 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid levels in the regional parts of rat brain. *Yakubutsu. Seishin. Kodo*, **1991**. 11(4): p. 237-44.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1724716>
282. Schwartz, AR, Pizon, AF, and Brooks, DE, Dextromethorphan-induced serotonin syndrome. *Clin Toxicol (Phila)*, **2008**: p. 1-3.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18608306
283. Shishido, S, Oishi, R, and Saeki, K, In vivo effects of some histamine H1-receptor antagonists on monoamine metabolism in the mouse brain. *Naunyn-Schmiedeberg's Archives of Pharmacology*, **1991**. 343(2): p. 185-189.
284. Rothman, RB and Baumann, MH, Serotonin releasing agents. Neurochemical, therapeutic and adverse effects. *Pharmacol. Biochem. Behav.*, **2002**. 71(4): p. 825-36.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11888573
285. Rothman, RB, Baumann, MH, Dersch, CM, Romero, DV, et al., Amphetamine-type central nervous system stimulants release

norepinephrine more potently than they release dopamine and serotonin. *Synapse*, **2001**. 39(1): p. 32–41.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11071707

286. Rothman, RB, Vu, N, Partilla, JS, Roth, BL, et al., In vitro characterization of ephedrine-related stereoisomers at biogenic amine transporters and the receptorome reveals selective actions as norepinephrine transporter substrates. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther*, **2003**. 307(1): p. 138–45.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12954796

287. Fenwick, MJ and Muwanga, CL, Anaphylaxis and monoamine oxidase inhibitors--the use of adrenaline. *J. Accid. Emerg. Med.*, **2000**. 17(2): p. 143–4.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?db=PubMed&cmd=Retrieve&list_uids=0010718244&dopt=Citation

288. Burn, JH, Philpot, FJ, and Trendelenburg, U, Effect of denervation on enzymes in iris and blood vessels. *Br J Pharmacol*, **1954**. 9: p. 423–428.

289. Griesemer, E, Barsky, J, Dragstedt, C, Wells, J, et al., Potentiating effect of iproniazid on the pharmacological action of sympathomimetic amines. *Experimental Biology and Medicine*, **1953**. 84(3): p. 699–701.

290. Corne, S and Graham, J, The effect of inhibition of amine oxidase in vivo on administered adrenaline, noradrenaline, tyramine and serotonin. *The Journal of physiology*, **1957**. 135(2): p. 339–349.

291. Markowitz, JS, Morrison, SD, and DeVane, CL, Drug interactions with psychostimulants. *Int Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1999**. 14(1): p. 1–18.

292. Feinberg, SS, Combining stimulants with monoamine oxidase inhibitors: a review of uses and one possible additional indication. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2004**. 65(11): p. 1520–4.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15554766

293. Asch, DA and Parker, RM, The Libby Zion case: One step forward or two steps backward? *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **1988**. 318: p. 771–775.

294. Kaplan, RL, The Libby Zion case. *Ann Intern Med*, **1991**. 115(12 (letter)): p. 985.
295. Gillman, PK, Serotonin Syndrome: History and Risk. *Fundam. Clin. Pharmacol.*, **1998**. 12(5): p. 482–491.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9794145
296. Rim, CL and Gitlin, MJ, Ziprasidone, monoamine oxidase inhibitors, and the serotonin syndrome. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **2010**. 30(4): p. 470–1.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20631570
297. Sun–Edelstein, C, Tepper, SJ, and Shapiro, RE, Drug–induced serotonin syndrome: a review. *Expert Opin Drug Saf*, **2008**. 7(5): p. 587–96.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18759711
298. Evans, RW, The FDA alert on serotonin syndrome with combined use of SSRIs or SNRIs and Triptans: an analysis of the 29 case reports. *MedGenMed*, **2007**. 9(3): p. 48.
<http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=2100123>
299. Evans, RW, Concomitant triptan and SSRI or SNRI use: what is the risk for serotonin syndrome? *Headache*, **2008**. 48(4): p. 639–40.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=18377388
300. Tepper, SJ, Serotonin syndrome: SSRIs, SNRIs, triptans, and current clinical practice. *Headache*, **2012**. 52(2): p. 195–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22221260
301. el–Ganzouri, AR, Ivankovich, AD, Braverman, B, and McCarthy, R, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors: should they be discontinued preoperatively? *Anesth. Analg.*, **1985**. 64(6): p. 592–6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=4003777
302. Remick, RA, Jewesson, P, and Ford, RW, Monoamine Oxidase Inhibitors in General Anesthesia: A Reevaluation. *Convuls. Ther.*, **1987**. 3(3): p. 196–203.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11940916

303. Ebrahim, ZY, O'Hara, J, Jr., Borden, L, and Tetzlaff, J, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors and elective surgery. *Cleve. Clin. J. Med.*, **1993**. 60(2): p. 129–30.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8443947>
304. Cameron, AG, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors and general anaesthesia. *Anaesth Intensive Care*, **1986**. 14(2): p. 210.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/htbin-post/Entrez/query?db=m&form=6&dopt=r&uid=0003740399>
305. Noorily, SH, Hantler, CB, and Sako, EY, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors and cardiac anesthesia revisited. *South. Med. J.*, **1997**. 90(8): p. 836–8.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9258314
306. van Haelst, IM, van Klei, WA, Doodeman, HJ, Kalkman, CJ, et al., Antidepressive treatment with monoamine oxidase inhibitors and the occurrence of intraoperative hemodynamic events: a retrospective observational cohort study. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2012**. 73(8): p. 1103–1109.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22938842
307. Krings-Ernst, I, Ulrich, S, and Adli, M, Antidepressant treatment with MAO-inhibitors during general and regional anesthesia: a review and case report of spinal anesthesia for lower extremity surgery without discontinuation of tranlycypromine. *Int. J. Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.*, **2013**. 51(10): p. 763–70.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23993253>
308. Wells, DG and Bjorksten, AR, Monoamine oxidase inhibitors revisited. *Can. J. Anaesth.*, **1989**. 36(1): p. 64–74.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/htbin-post/Entrez/query?db=m&form=6&dopt=r&uid=0002563341>
309. Bazire, SR, Sudden death associated with switching monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *Drug Intell. Clin. Pharm.*, **1986**. 20(12): p. 954–6.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3816543>
310. Torre, LE, Menon, R, and Power, BM, Prolonged serotonin toxicity with proserotonergic drugs in the intensive care unit. *Crit Care Resusc*, **2009**. 11(4): p. 272–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=20001877
http://www.cicm.org.au/CICM_Media/CICMSite/CICM-Website/Resources/Publications/CCR%20Journal/Previous%20Editions/December%202009/11_2009_Dec_Prolonged-serotonin-toxicity.pdf

311. Mattes, JA, Stroke resulting from a rapid switch from phenelzine to tranylcypromine. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **1998**. 59(7): p. 382.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9714269
312. Safferman, AZ and Masiar, SJ, Central nervous system toxicity after abrupt Monoamine on today's inhibitor switch: a case report. *Pharmacotherapy*, **1992**. 26: p. 337–338.
313. Chandler, JD, Switching MAOIs. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1987**. 7: p. 438.
314. Jefferson, JW, Problems with switching rapidly from one MAOI to another. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **1998**. 59(2): p. 87.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9501898>
315. True, BL, Alexander, B, and Carter, B, Switching monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *Drug Intell. Clin. Pharm.*, **1985**. 19(11): p. 825–7.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/4064915>
316. True, BL, Alexander, B, and Carter, BL, Comment: Switching MAO inhibitors. *Drug Intell Clin Pharm*, **1986**. 20(5): p. 384–5.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3709351>
317. Gelenberg, A, Switching MAOIs. *Biological Therapies in Psychiatry*, **1984**. 7(9): p. 33–36.
318. Gelenberg, A, Switching MAOIs----the sequel. *Biological Therapies in Psychiatry*, **1985**. 8: p. 41.
319. Szuba, MP, Hornig–Rohan, M, and Amsterdam, JD, Rapid conversion from one monoamine oxidase inhibitor to another [see comments]. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **1997**. 58(7): p. 307–10.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=9269251
320. Freyschuss, U, Sjoqvist, F, and Tuck, D, Tyramine pressor effects in man before and during treatment with nortriptyline or ECT: Correlation between plasma level and effect of nortriptyline. *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*, **1970**. 2(33): p. 72–78.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5453773

321. Pare, CM, Al Mousawi, M, Sandler, M, and Glover, V, Attempts to attenuate the 'cheese effect'. Combined drug therapy in depressive illness. *J Affect Disord*, **1985**. 9(2): p. 137–41.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2932486
322. Pare, CM, Kline, N, Hallstrom, C, and Cooper, TB, Will amitriptyline prevent the "cheese" reaction of monoamine-oxidase inhibitors? *Lancet*, **1982**. 2(8291): p. 183–6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=6123888
323. Chalon, SA, Granier, LA, Vandenhende, FR, Bieck, PR, et al., Duloxetine increases serotonin and norepinephrine availability in healthy subjects: a double-blind, controlled study. *Neuropsychopharmacology*, **2003**. 28(9): p. 1685–93.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=12784100
324. Rudnick, G, Mechanisms of biogenic amine transporters, in *Neurotransmitter Transporters: Structure, Function and Regulation.*, MEA Reith, Editor. 1997: Humana Press, Totowa, NJ. p. 73– 100.
325. Ghose, K, Gifford, LA, Turner, P, and Leighton, M, Studies of the interaction of desmethylimipramine with tyramine in man after a single oral dose, and its correlation with plasma concentration. *Br J Clin Pharmacol*, **1976**. 3(2): p. 334–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=973968
326. Reimann, IW, Firkusny, L, Antonin, KH, and Bieck, PR, Oxaprotiline: enantioselective noradrenaline uptake inhibition indicated by intravenous amine pressor tests but not alpha 2-adrenoceptor binding to intact platelets in man. *Eur. J. Clin. Pharmacol.*, **1993**. 44(1): p. 93–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=8382162
327. Graefe, KH, Bossle, F, Wolfel, R, Burger, A, et al., Sympathomimetic effects of MIBG: comparison with tyramine. *J Nucl Med*, **1999**. 40(8): p. 1342–51.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=10450687
328. Dostert, P, Castelli, MG, Cicioni, P, and Strolin Benedetti, M, Reboxetine prevents the tranylcypromine-induced increase in tyramine levels in rat heart. *J Neural Transm*, **1994**. 41: p. 149–53.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=7931221

329. Doggrell, SA and Woodruff, GN, Effects of antidepressant drugs on noradrenaline accumulation and contractile responses in the rat anococcygeus muscle. *Br J Pharmacol*, **1977**. 59(3): p. 403–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=843683
330. Burkard, W, d'Agostini, F, Kettler, R, and Da Prada, M, Interaction of moclobemide and tricyclic antidepressants with the tyramine pressor effect in rats. *Psychopharmacology*, **1992**. 106 Suppl: p. S35–6.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=1546137
331. Brodie, BB, Costa, E, Groppetti, A, and Matsumoto, C, Interaction between desipramine, tyramine, and amphetamine at adrenergic neurones. *Br J Pharmacol*, **1968**. 34(3): p. 648–58.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5726793
332. Matsumoto, C, Costa, E, and Brodie, BB, The interaction of tyramine and desmethylimipramine (DMI) with NE stores of rat hearts. *Pharmacologist*, **1964**. 6: p. 206.
333. Oates, JA, Seligmann, AW, Clark, MA, Rousseau, P, et al., The relative efficacy of guanethidine, methyl dopa and pargyline as antihypertensive agents. *N. Engl. J. Med.*, **1965**. 273(14): p. 729–34.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=5317954
334. Van Dyne, JR, Pargyline Hydrochloride in Treatment of Resistant Hypertension. *N. Y. State J. Med.*, **1965**. 65: p. 1672–5.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14302202
335. Colliard, M, Michelet, A, and Tcherdakoff, P, [Treatment of certain refractory arterial hypertension with a monoamine oxidase inhibitor]. *Arch. Mal. Coeur Vaiss.*, **1981**. 74 Spec No: p. 99–106.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=6794533
336. Lavin, MR, Mendelowitz, A, and Kronig, MH, Spontaneous hypertensive reactions with monoamine oxidase inhibitors. *Biol Psychiatry*, **1993**. 34(3): p. 146–51.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=8399806
337. Plass, HF, Monoamine–Oxidase Inhibitor Reactions Simulating Phenochromocytoma Attacks. *Ann Intern Med*, **1964**. 61: p. 924–7.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=14233813

338. Keck, PE, Jr., Vuckovic, A, Pope, HG, Jr., Nierenberg, AA, et al., Acute cardiovascular response to monoamine oxidase inhibitors: a prospective assessment. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **1989**. 9(3): p. 203–6.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=2738182

339. Bosscher, MR, Wentholt, IM, Ackermans, MT, and Nieveen van Dijkum, EJ, An adrenal mass and increased catecholamines: monoamine oxidase or pheochromocytoma effect? *J Clin Med Res*, **2015**. 7(3): p. 199–201.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/25584109>

340. Cook, RF and Katritsis, D, Hypertensive crisis precipitated by a monoamine oxidase inhibitor in a patient with phaeochromocytoma. *BMJ*, **1990**. 300(6724): p. 614.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2108780>

341. Ahsberg, K, Ye, W, Lu, Y, Zheng, Z, et al., Hospitalisation of and mortality from bleeding peptic ulcer in Sweden: a nationwide time-trend analysis. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*, **2011**. 33(5): p. 578–84.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21210831

342. Andrade, C, Sandarsh, S, Chethan, KB, and Nagesh, KS, Serotonin reuptake inhibitor antidepressants and abnormal bleeding: a review for clinicians and a reconsideration of mechanisms. *J Clin Psychiatry*, **2010**. 71(12): p. 1565–75.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21190637

343. Carvajal, A, Ortega, S, Del Olmo, L, Vidal, X, et al., Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors and gastrointestinal bleeding: a case-control study. *PLoS One*, **2011**. 6(5): p. e19819.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21625637

344. Richter, JA, Patrie, JT, Richter, RP, Henry, ZH, et al., Bleeding after percutaneous endoscopic gastrostomy is linked to serotonin reuptake inhibitors, not aspirin or clopidogrel. *Gastrointest. Endosc.*, **2011**. 74(1): p. 22–34 e1.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=21704806

345. Dall, M, dePont Christensen, R, Schaffalitzky de Muckadell, OB, Lassen, AT, et al., Re-prescribing of causative drugs in persons

discharged after serious drug-induced upper gastrointestinal bleeding. *Aliment Pharmacol Ther*, **2012**. 35(8): p. 948–54.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22313346

346. Lee, YC, Shau, WY, Chang, CH, Chen, ST, et al., Antidepressant use and the risk of upper gastrointestinal bleeding in psychiatric patients: a nationwide cohort study in Taiwan. *J Clin Psychopharmacol*, **2012**. 32(4): p. 518–24.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=22722503

347. Kurl, S, Laukkanen, JA, Rauramaa, R, Lakka, TA, et al., Systolic blood pressure response to exercise stress test and risk of stroke. *Stroke*, **2001**. 32(9): p. 2036–41.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=11546894

348. Laukkanen, JA, Kurl, S, Salonen, R, Lakka, TA, et al., Systolic blood pressure during recovery from exercise and the risk of acute myocardial infarction in middle-aged men. *Hypertension*, **2004**. 44(6): p. 820–5.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15534077>

349. Haykowsky, MJ, Findlay, JM, and Ignaszewski, AP, Aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage associated with weight training: three case reports. *Clin J Sport Med*, **1996**. 6(1): p. 52–5.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=8925367

350. Matsuda, M, Watanabe, K, Saito, A, Matsumura, K, et al., Circumstances, activities, and events precipitating aneurysmal subarachnoid hemorrhage. *J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis*, **2007**. 16(1): p. 25–9.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17689388>

351. Marik, PE and Rivera, R, Hypertensive emergencies: an update. *Curr Opin Crit Care*, **2011**. 17(6): p. 569–80.

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21986463>

352. Flanigan, JS and Vitberg, D, Hypertensive emergency and severe hypertension: what to treat, who to treat, and how to treat. *Med. Clin. North Am.*, **2006**. 90(3): p. 439–51.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16473099

353. Migneco, A, Ojetti, V, De Lorenzo, A, Silveri, NG, et al., Hypertensive crises: diagnosis and management in the emergency room. *Eur. Rev. Med. Pharmacol. Sci.*, **2004**. 8(4): p. 143–52.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=15636400

354. Feldstein, C, Management of hypertensive crises. *Am. J. Ther.*, **2007**. 14(2): p. 135–9.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17414580
355. Marik, PE and Varon, J, Hypertensive crises: challenges and management. *Chest*, **2007**. 131(6): p. 1949–62.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=17565029
356. Schwartz, M, Naschitz, JE, Yeshurun, D, and Sharf, B, Oral nifedipine in the treatment of hypertensive urgency: cerebrovascular accident following a single dose. *Arch Intern Med*, **1990**. 150(3): p. 686–7.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2310288>
357. Bulling, M and Burns, R, Occipital cortical "angina" induced by nifedipine. *Med. J. Aust.*, **1988**. 148(5): p. 266.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3343961>
358. Burton, TJ and Wilkinson, IB, The dangers of immediate-release nifedipine in the emergency treatment of hypertension. *J. Hum. Hypertens.*, **2008**. 22(4): p. 301–2.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18239624>
359. Grossman, E, Messerli, FH, Grodzicki, T, and Kowey, P, Should a moratorium be placed on sublingual nifedipine capsules given for hypertensive emergencies and pseudoemergencies? *JAMA*, **1996**. 276(16): p. 1328–1331.
360. McCormack, D and Buckley, N, Psychostimulant poisoning. *Australian Prescriber*, **2006**. 29: p. 109–11.
<http://www.australianprescriber.com/magazine/29/4/article/824.pdf>
361. Murray, L, Daly, F, Little, M, and Cadogan, M, *Toxicology handbook*. 2011: Elsevier Australia.
362. Grossman, E, Nadler, M, Sharabi, Y, Thaler, M, et al., Antianxiety treatment in patients with excessive hypertension. *Am. J. Hypertens.*, **2005**. 18(9 Pt 1): p. 1174–7.
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=16182105
363. Yilmaz, S, Pekdemir, M, Tural, U, and Uygun, M, Comparison of alprazolam versus captopril in high blood pressure: a randomized controlled trial. *Blood Press.*, **2011**. 20(4): p. 239–43.
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21288144>

364. Jorm, CM, White, S, and Kaneen, T, Clinical handover: critical communications. *Med. J. Aust.*, **2009**. 190(11 Suppl): p. S108–9.

http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?cmd=Retrieve&db=PubMed&dopt=Citation&list_uids=19485856