IRISH MEDICINES BOARD ACT 1995

MEDICINAL PRODUCTS(LICENSING AND SALE)REGULATIONS, 1998

(S.I. No.142 of 1998)

PA1097/001/003
Case No: 2027938

The Irish Medicines Board in exercise of the powers conferred on it by the above mentioned Regulations hereby grants to

Lexon (UK) Ltd

Unit 18, Oxleasow Road, **East Moons Moat**, **Worcestershire B98 0RE**, **United Kingdom**

an authorisation, subject to the provisions of the said Regulations, in respect of the product

Gabapentin 400mg Capsules

The particulars of which are set out in Part I and Part II of the attached Schedule. The authorisation is also subject to the general conditions as may be specified in the said Regulations as listed on the reverse of this document.

This authorisation, unless previously revoked, shall continue in force from **31/10/2006** until **09/06/2010**.

Signed on behalf of the Irish Medicines Board this

_____

A person authorised in that behalf by the said Board.

Part II

Summary of Product Characteristics

1 NAME OF THE MEDICINAL PRODUCT

Gabapentin 400 mg Hard Capsules

2 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE COMPOSITION

Each 400 mg hard capsule contains 400 mg of gabapentin.

Each 400 mg hard capsule contains 54 mg lactose (as monohydrate).

For a full list of excipients, see section 6.1.

3 PHARMACEUTICAL FORM

Capsule, hard

A orange opaque hard gelatin capsule.

4 CLINICAL PARTICULARS

4.1 Therapeutic Indications

Epilepsy
Gabapentin is indicated as adjunctive therapy in the treatment of partial seizures with and without secondary generalization in adults and children aged 6 years and above (see section 5.1).

Gabapentin is indicated as monotherapy in the treatment of partial seizures with and without secondarygeneralization in adults and adolescents aged 12 years and above.

Treatment of peripheral neuropathic pain
Gabapentin is indicated for the treatment of peripheral neuropathic pain such as painful diabetic neuropathy and post-herpetic neuralgia in adults.

4.2 Posology and method of administration

For oral use.

Gabapentin can be given with or without food and should be swallowed whole with sufficient fluid-intake (e.g. a glass of water).

For all indications a titration scheme for the initiation of therapy is described in Table 1, which is recommended for adults and adolescents aged 12 years and above. Dosing instructions for children under 12 years of age are provided under a separate sub-heading later in this section.

Table 1		
DOSING CHART – INITIAL TITRATION		
Day 1	Day 2	Day 3
300 mg once a day	300 mg two times a day	300 mg three times a day

Epilepsy

Epilepsy typically requires long-term therapy. Dosage is determined by the treating physician according to individual tolerance and efficacy. When in the judgment of the clinician there is a need for dose reduction, discontinuation, or substitution with an alternative medication, this should be done gradually over a minimum of one week.

Adults and Adolescents:

In clinical trials, the effective dosing range was 900 to 3600 mg/day. Therapy may be initiated by titrating the dose as described in Table 1 or by administering 300 mg three times a day (TID) on Day 1. Thereafter, based on individual patient response and tolerability, the dose can be further increased in 300 mg/day increments every 2-3 days up to a maximum dose of 3600 mg/day. Slower titration of gabapentin dosage may be appropriate for individual patients. The minimum time to reach a dose of 1800 mg/day is one week, to reach 2400 mg/day is a total of 2 weeks, and to reach 3600 mg/day is a total of 3 weeks. Dosages up to 4800 mg/day have been well tolerated in long-term open-label clinical studies. The total daily dose should be divided in three single doses, the maximum time interval between the doses should not exceed 12 hours to prevent breakthrough convulsions.

Children aged 6 years and above:

The starting dose should range from 10 to 15 mg/kg/day and the effective dose is reached by upward titration over a period of approximately three days. The effective dose of gabapentin in children aged 6 years and older is 25 to 35 mg/kg/day. Dosages up to 50 mg/kg/day have been well tolerated in a long-term clinical study. The total daily dose should be divided in three single doses, the maximum time interval between doses should not exceed 12 hours.

It is not necessary to monitor gabapentin plasma concentrations to optimize gabapentin therapy. Further, gabapentin may be used in combination with other antiepileptic medicinal products without concern for alteration of the plasma concentrations of gabapentin or serum concentrations of other antiepileptic medicinal products.

Peripheral Neuropathic Pain

Adults

The therapy may be initiated by titrating the dose as described in Table 1. Alternatively, the starting dose is 900 mg/day given as three equally divided doses. Thereafter, based on individual patient response and tolerability, the dose can be further increased in 300 mg/day increments every 2-3 days up to a maximum dose of 3600 mg/day. Slower titration of gabapentin dosage may be appropriate for individual patients. The minimum time to reach a dose of 1800 mg/day is one week, to reach 2400 mg/day is a total of 2 weeks, and to reach 3600 mg/day is a total of 3 weeks.

In the treatment of peripheral neuropathic pain such as painful diabetic neuropathy and post-herpetic neuralgia, efficacy and safety have not been examined in clinical studies for treatment periods longer than 5 months. If a patient requires dosing longer than 5 months for the treatment of peripheral neuropathic pain, the treating physician should assess the patient’s clinical status and determine the need for additional therapy.

Instruction for all areas of indication

In patients with poor general health, i.e., low body weight, after organ transplantation etc., the dose should be titrated more slowly, either by using smaller dosage strengths or longer intervals between dosage increases.

Elderly Patients (over 65 years of age)

Elderly patients may require dosage adjustment because of declining renal function with age (see Table 2). Somnolence, peripheral oedema and asthenia may be more frequent in elderly patients.

Patients with renal impairment

Dosage adjustment is recommended in patients with compromised renal function as described in Table 2 and/or those undergoing haemodialysis. Vivapentin 100mg capsules can be used to follow dosing recommendations for patients with renal insufficiency.

Table 2: Maintenance dosage of Vivapentin in adults with reduced renal function

Renal function Creatinine Clearance (ml/minute)	Total Daily Dose[a] (mg/day)
≥ 80	**900 - 3600**
50-79	600 - 1800
30-49	300 - 900
15-29	150[b] - 600
< 15[c]	150[b] - 300

[a] Total daily dose should be administered as a three divided doses. Reduced dosages are for patients with renal impairment (creatinine clearance < 79 ml/min).

[b] To be administered as 300 mg every other day.

[c] For patients with creatinine clearance <15 ml/min, the daily dose should be reduced in proportion to creatinine clearance (e.g., patients with a creatinine clearance of 7.5 ml/min should receive one-half the daily dose that patients with a creatinine clearance of 15 ml/min receive).

Use in patients undergoing haemodialysis

For anuric patients undergoing haemodialysis who have never received gabapentin, a loading dose of 300 to 400mg is recommended then 200 to 300mg of gabapentin following each 4 hours of haemodialysis. On dialysis-free days, there should be no treatment with gabapentin.

For renally impaired patients undergoing haemodialysis, the maintenance dose of gabapentin should be based on the dosing recommendations found in Table 2. In addition to the maintenance dose, an additional 200 to 300 mg dose following each 4-hour haemodialysis treatment is recommended.

4.3 Contraindications

Gabapentin is contraindicated in patients who are hypersensitive to Gabapentin or to the product's components.

4.4 Special warnings and precautions for use

If a patient develops acute pancreatitis under treatment with gabapentin, discontinuation of gabapentin should be considered (see section 4.8).

Although there is no evidence of rebound seizures with Vivapentin, abrupt withdrawal of anticonvulsant agents in epileptic patients may precipitate status epilepticus (see section 4.2).

As with other antiepileptic medicinal products, some patients may experience an increase in seizure frequency or the onset of new types of seizures with gabapentin.

As with other anti-epileptics, attempts to withdraw concomitant anti-epileptics in treatment refractory patients on more than one anti-epileptic, in order to reach gabapentin monotherapy have a low success rate.

Gabapentin is not considered effective against primary generalized seizures such as absences and may aggravate these seizures in some patients. Therefore, gabapentin should be used with caution in patients with mixed seizures including absences.

No systematic studies in patients 65 years or older have been conducted with gabapentin. In one double blind study in patients with neuropathic pain, somnolence, peripheral oedema and asthenia occurred in a somewhat higher percentage in patients aged 65 years or above, than in younger patients. Apart from these findings, clinical investigations in this age group do not indicate an adverse event profile different from that observed in younger patients.

The effects of long-term (greater than 36 weeks) gabapentin therapy on learning, intelligence, and development in children and adolescents have not been adequately studied. The benefits of prolonged therapy must therefore be weighed against the potential risks of such therapy.

Laboratory tests

False positive readings may be obtained in the semi-quantitative determination of total urine protein by dipstick tests. It is therefore recommended to verify such a positive dipstick test result by methods based on a different analytical principle such as the Biuret method, turbidimetric or dye-binding methods, or to use these alternative methods from the beginning.

Patients with rare hereditary problems of galactose intolerance, the Lapp lactase deficiency or glucose-galactose malabsorption should not take this medicine.

4.5 Interaction with other medicinal products and other forms of interaction

In a study involving healthy volunteers (N=12), when a 60 mg controlled-release morphine capsule was administered 2 hours prior to a 600 mg gabapentin capsule, mean gabapentin AUC increased by 44% compared to gabapentin administered without morphine. Therefore, patients should be carefully observed for signs of CNS depression, such as somnolence, and the dose of gabapentin or morphine should be reduced appropriately.

No interaction between Vivapentin and phenytoin, valproic acid, carbamazepine or phenobarbital has been observed.

Gabapentin steady-state pharmacokinetics are similar for healthy subjects and patients with epilepsy receiving these antiepileptic agents.

Co-administration of Vivapentin with oral contraceptives containing norethindrone and/or ethinyl estradiol does not influence the steady-state pharmacokinetics of either component.

Vivapentin's bioavailability can be reduced up to 24% when given at the same time as aluminium and magnesium containing antacids. It is recommended that Vivapentin is taken about two hours following any such antacid administration.

The slight decrease in renal excretion of Vivapentin observed when co-administered with cimetidine is not expected to be of clinical importance.

Renal excretion of Vivapentin is unaltered by probenecid.

4.6 Pregnancy and lactation

Risk related to epilepsy and antiepileptic medicinal products in general

The risk of birth defects is increased by a factor of 2 – 3 in the offspring of mothers treated with an antiepileptic medicinal product. Most frequently reported are cleft lip, cardiovascular malformations and neural tube defects. Multiple antiepileptic drug therapy may be associated with a higher risk of congenital malformations than monotherapy, therefore it is important that monotherapy is practised whenever possible. Specialist advice should be given to women who are likely to become pregnant or who are of childbearing potential and the need for antiepileptic treatment should be reviewed when a woman is planning to become pregnant. No sudden discontinuation of antiepileptic therapy should be undertaken as this may lead to breakthrough seizures, which could have serious consequences for both mother and child. Developmental delay in children of mothers with epilepsy has been observed rarely. It is not possible to differentiate if the developmental delay is caused by genetic, social factors, maternal epilepsy or the antiepileptic therapy.

Risk related to gabapentin

There are no adequate data from the use of gabapentin in pregnant women.

Studies in animals have shown reproductive toxicity (see section 5.3). The potential risk for humans is unknown. Gabapentin should not be used during pregnancy unless the potential benefit to the mother clearly outweighs the potential risk to the foetus.

No definite conclusion can be made as to whether gabapentin is associated with an increased risk of congenital malformations when taken during pregnancy, because of epilepsy itself and the presence of concomitant antiepileptic medicinal products during each reported pregnancy.

Gabapentin is excreted in human milk. Because the effect on the breast-fed infant is unknown, caution should be exercised when gabapentin is administered to a breast-feeding mother. Gabapentin should be used in breast-feeding mothers only if the benefits

clearly outweigh the risks.

4.7 Effects on ability to drive and use machines

Vivapentin may have minor or moderate influence on the ability to drive and use machines. Vivapentin acts on the central nervous system and may produce drowsiness, dizziness, or other related symptoms. These otherwise mild or moderate adverse events could be potentially dangerous in patients driving or operating machinery. This is especially true at the beginning of the treatment and after increase in dose.

4.8 Undesirable effects

The adverse reactions observed during clinical studies conducted in epilepsy (adjunctive and monotherapy) and neuropathic pain have been provided in a single list below by class and frequency (very common (≥ 1/10), common (≥ 1/100, < 1/10), uncommon (≥ 1/1,000, ≤ 1/100) and rare (≥ 1/10,000; ≤ 1/1,000). Where an adverse reaction was seen at different frequencies in clinical studies, it was assigned to the highest frequency reported.

Within each frequency grouping, undesirable effects are presented in order of decreasing seriousness.

Infections and infestations
Very Common: Viral infection
Common: Pneumonia, respiratory infection, urinary tract infection, infection, otitis media

Blood and the lymphatic system disorders
Common: leucopenia
Rare: thrombocytopenia

Immune system disorders
Rare: allergic reactions (e.g. urticaria)

Metabolism and Nutrition Disorders
Common: anorexia, increased appetite

Psychiatric disorders
Common: hostility, confusion and emotional lability, depression, anxiety, nervousness, thinking abnormal
Rare: hallucinations

Nervous system disorders
Very Common: somnolence, dizziness, ataxia,
Common: convulsions, hyperkinesias, dysarthria, amnesia, tremor, insomnia, headache, sensations such as paresthesia, hypaesthesia, coordination abnormal, nystagmus, increased, decreased, or absent reflexes
Rare: movement disorders (e.g. choreoathetosis, dyskinesia, dystonia)

Eye disorders
Common: visual disturbances such as amblyopia, diplopia

Ear and Labyrinth disorders
Common: vertigo
Rare: tinnitus

Cardiac disorders
Rare: palpitations

Vascular disorder
Common: hypertension, vasodilatation

Respiratory, thoracic and mediastinal disorders
Common: dyspnoea, bronchitis, pharyngitis, cough, rhinitis

Gastrointestinal disorders
Common: vomiting, nausea, dental abnormalities, gingivitis, diarrhea, abdominal pain, dyspepsia, constipation, dry mouth or throat, flatulence

Rare: pancreatitis

Hepatobiliary disorders
Rare: hepatitis, jaundice

Skin and subcutaneous tissue disorders
Common: facial oedema, purpura most often described as bruises resulting from physical trauma, rash, pruritus, acne
Rare: Stevens-Johnson syndrome, angioedema, erythema multiforme, alopecia

Musculoskeletal, connective tissue and bone disorders
Common: arthralgia, myalgia, back pain, twitching

Renal and urinary disorders
Common: incontinence
Rare: acute renal failure

Reproductive system and breast disorders
Common: impotence

General disorders and administration site conditions
Very Common: fatigue, fever
Common: peripheral or generalized oedema, abnormal gait, asthenia, pain, malaise, flu syndrome
Rare: withdrawal reactions (mostly anxiety, insomnia, nausea, pains, sweating), chest pain. Sudden unexplained deaths have been reported where a causal relationship to treatment with gabapentin has not been established.

Investigations
Common: WBC (white blood cell count) decreased, weight gain
Rare: Blood glucose fluctuations in patients with diabetes, elevated liver function tests

Injury and poisoning
Common: accidental injury, fracture, abrasion

Under treatment with gabapentin cases of acute pancreatitis were reported. Causality with gabapentin is unclear (see section 4.4).

Respiratory tract infections, otitis media, convulsions and bronchitis were reported only in clinical studies in children. Additionally, in clinical studies in children, aggressive behaviour and hyperkinesias were reported commonly.

4.9 Overdose

Acute, life-threatening toxicity has not been observed with Vivapentin overdoses of up to 49g. Symptoms of the overdoses included dizziness, double vision, slurred speech, drowsiness, lethargy and mild diarrhoea. All patients recovered fully with supportive care. Reduced absorption of Vivapentin at higher doses may limit drug absorption at the time of overdosing and, hence, minimise toxicity from overdoses.

Although Vivapentin can be removed by haemodialysis it is not usually required. However, in patients with severe renal impairment, haemodialysis may be indicated.

An oral lethal dose of gabapentin was not identified in mice and rats given doses as high as 8000 mg/kg. Signs of acute toxicity in animals included ataxia, laboured breathing, ptosis, hypoactivity, or excitation.

5 PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES

5.1 Pharmacodynamic properties

Pharmacotherapeutic groups: Other antiepileptics ATC code: N03A X12

The precise mechanism of action of gabapentin is not known.
Vivapentin is structurally related to the neurotransmitter gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) but its mechanism of action is

different from that of several other active substances that interact with GABA synapses including valproate, barbiturates, benzodiazepines, GABA transaminase inhibitors, GABA uptake inhibitors, GABA agonists, and GABA prodrugs. *In vitro* studies with radiolabeled gabapentin have characterized a novel peptide binding site in rat brain tissues including neocortex and hippocampus that may relate to anticonvulsant and analgesic activity of gabapentin and its structural derivatives. The binding site for gabapentin has been identified as the $alpha_2$-delta subunit of voltage-gated calcium channels.

Gabapentin at relevant clinical concentrations does not bind to other common drug or neurotransmitter receptors of the brain including $GABA_A$, $GABA_B$, benzodiazepine, glutamate, glycine or N-methyl-d-aspartate receptors.

Gabapentin does not interact with sodium channels *in vitro* and so differs from phenytoin and carbamazepine. Gabapentin partially reduces responses to the glutamate agonist N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) in some test systems *in vitro*, but only at concentrations greater than 100 µM, which are not achieved *in vivo*. Gabapentin slightly reduces the release of monoamine neurotransmitters *in vitro*. Gabapentin administration to rats increases GABA turnover in several brain regions in a manner similar to valproate sodium, although in different regions of brain. The relevance of these various actions of gabapentin to the anticonvulsant effects remains to be established. In animals, gabapentin readily enters the brain and prevents seizures from maximal electroshock, from chemical convulsants including inhibitors of GABA synthesis, and in genetic models of seizures.

A clinical trial of adjunctive treatment of partial seizures in paediatric subjects, ranging in age from 3 to 12 years, showed a numerical but not statistically significant difference in the 50% responder rate in favour of the gabapentin group compared to placebo. Additional post-hoc analyses of the responder rates by age did not reveal a statistically significant effect of age, either as a continuous or dichotomous variable (age groups 3-5 and 6-12 years). The data from this additional post-hoc analysis are summarised in the table below:

Response (≥ 50 % Improved) by Treatment and Age MITT* Population			
Age Category	Placebo	Gabapentin	P-Value
< 6 Years Old	4/21 (19.0%)	4/17 (23.5%)	0.7362
6 to 12 Years Old	17/99 (17.2%)	20/96 (20.8%)	0.5144

* The modified intent to treat population was defined as all patients randomised to study medication who also had evaluable seizure diaries available for 28 days during both the baseline and double-blind phases.

5.2 Pharmacokinetic properties

Absorption

Following oral administration, peak plasma gabapentin concentrations are observed within 2 to 3 hours. Gabapentin bioavailability (fraction of dose absorbed) tends to decrease with increasing dose. Absolute bioavailability of a 300 mg capsule is approximately 60 %. Food, including a high-fat diet, has no clinically significant effect on gabapentin pharmacokinetics.

Gabapentin pharmacokinetics are not affected by repeated administration. Although plasma gabapentin concentrations were generally between 2 µg/ml and 20 µg/ml in clinical studies, such concentrations were not predictive of safety or efficacy. Pharmacokinetic parameters are given in Table 3.

Table 3
Summary of gabapentin mean (% CV) steady-state pharmacokinetic parameters following every eight hours administration

Pharmacokinetic parameter	300 mg (N = 7)		400 mg (N = 14)		800 mg (N=14)	
	Mean	**% CV**	**Mean**	**% CV**	**Mean**	**% CV**
C_{max} (µg/ml)	4.02	(24)	5.74	(38)	8.71	(29)
t_{max} (hr)	2.7	(18)	2.1	(54)	1.6	(76)
T1/2 (hr)	5.2	(12)	10.8	(89)	10.6	(41)
AUC (0-8) µg•hr/ml)	24.8	(24)	34.5	(34)	51.4	(27)
Ae % (%)	NA	NA	47.2	(25)	34.4	(37)

C_{max} = Maximum steady state plasma concentration
t_{max} = Time for C_{max}
T1/2 = Elimination half-life
AUC(0-8) = Steady state area under plasma concentration-time curve from time 0 to 8 hours postdose
Ae % = Percent of dose excreted unchanged into the urine from time 0 to 8 hours postdose
NA = Not available

Distribution

Gabapentin is not bound to plasma proteins and has a volume of distribution equal to 57.7 litres. In patients with epilepsy, gabapentin concentrations in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) are approximately 20% of corresponding steady-state trough plasma concentrations. Gabapentin is present in the breast milk of breast-feeding women.

Metabolism

There is no evidence of gabapentin metabolism in humans. Gabapentin does not induce hepatic mixed function oxidase enzymes responsible for drug metabolism.

Elimination

Gabapentin is eliminated unchanged solely by renal excretion. The elimination half-life of gabapentin is independent of dose and averages 5 to 7 hours.

In elderly patients, and in patients with impaired renal function, gabapentin plasma clearance is reduced. Gabapentin elimination-rate constant, plasma clearance, and renal clearance are directly proportional to creatinine clearance.

Gabapentin is removed from plasma by haemodialysis. Dosage adjustment in patients with compromised renal function or undergoing haemodialysis is recommended (see section 4.2).

Gabapentin pharmacokinetics in children were determined in 50 healthy subjects between the ages of 1 month and 12 years. In general, plasma gabapentin concentrations in children > 5 years of age are similar to those in adults when dosed on a mg/kg basis.

Linearity/Non-linearity

Gabapentin bioavailability (fraction of dose absorbed) decreases with increasing dose which imparts non-linearity to pharmacokinetic parameters which include the bioavailability parameter (F) e.g. Ae%, CL/F, Vd/F. Elimination pharmacokinetics (pharmacokinetic parameters which do not include F such as CLr and T1/2), are best described by linear pharmacokinetics. Steady state plasma gabapentin concentrations are predictable from single-dose data.

5.3 Preclinical safety data

Carcinogenesis

Gabapentin was given in the diet to mice at 200, 600, and 2000 mg/kg/day and to rats at 250, 1000, and 2000 mg/kg/day for two years. A statistically significant increase in the incidence of pancreatic acinar cell tumours was found only in male rats at the highest dose. Peak plasma drug concentrations in rats at 2000 mg/kg are 10 times higher than plasma concentrations in humans given 3600 mg/day.

The pancreatic acinar cell tumours in male rats are low-grade malignancies, they did not affect survival, they did not metastasise or invade surrounding tissue, and were similar to those seen in concurrent controls. The relevance of these pancreatic acinar cell tumours in male rats to carcinogenic risk in humans is unclear.

Mutagenesis

Gabapentin demonstrated no genotoxic potential. It was not mutagenic in vitro in standard assays using bacterial or mammalian cells. Gabapentin did not induce structural chromosome aberrations in mammalian cells in *vitro* or *in vivo*, and did not induce micronucleus formation in the bone marrow of hamsters.

Impairment of Fertility

No adverse effects on fertility or reproduction were observed in rats at doses up to 2000 mg/kg (approximately five times the maximum daily human dose on a mg/m^2 of body surface area basis).

Teratogenesis

Gabapentin did not increase the incidence of malformations, compared to controls, in the offspring of mice, rats, or rabbits at doses up to 50, 30 and 25 times respectively, the daily human dose of 3600 mg, (four, five or eight times, respectively, the human daily dose on a mg/m^2 basis).

Gabapentin induced delayed ossification in the skull, vertebrae, forelimbs, and hindlimbs in rodents, indicative of fetal growth retardation. These effects occurred when pregnant mice received oral doses of 1000 or 3000 mg/kg/day during organogenesis and in rats given 500, 1000, or 2000 mg/kg prior to and during mating and throughout gestation. These doses are approximately 1 to 5 times the human dose of 3600 mg on a mg/m^2 basis.

No effects were observed in pregnant mice given 500 mg/kg/day (approximately 1/2 of the daily human dose on a mg/m^2 basis).

An increased incidence of hydroureter and/or hydronephrosis was observed in rats given 2000 mg/kg/day in a fertility and general reproduction study, 1500 mg/kg/day in a teratology study, and 500, 1000, and 2000 mg/kg/day in a perinatal and postnatal study. The significance of these findings is unknown, but they have been associated with delayed development. These doses are also approximately 1 to 5 times the human dose of 3600 mg on a mg/m^2 basis.

In a teratology study in rabbits, an increased incidence of post-implantation fetal loss, occurred in doses given 60, 300, and 1500 mg/kg/day during organogenesis. These doses are approximately 1/4 to 8 times the daily human dose of 3600 mg on a mg/m^2 basis.

6 PHARMACEUTICAL PARTICULARS

6.1 List of excipients

Lactose
Maize starch
Talc

Capsule shell
Titanium Dioxide (E171)
Yellow Iron Oxide (E172)
Red Iron Oxide (E172)
Gelatin

6.2 Incompatibilities

Not applicable.

6.3 Shelf Life

Two Years.

6.4 Special precautions for storage

Store below 25°C.

6.5 Nature and contents of container

30 and 100 capsules in PVC/Aluminium blister strips.

6.6 Special precautions for disposal of a used medicinal product or waste materials derived from

such medicinal product and other handling of the product

No special requirements.

7 MARKETING AUTHORISATION HOLDER

Lexon (UK) Ltd
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8 MARKETING AUTHORISATION NUMBER

PA 1097/1/3

9 DATE OF FIRST AUTHORISATION/RENEWAL OF THE AUTHORISATION

Date of first authorisation: 10 June 2005

10 DATE OF REVISION OF THE TEXT

October 2006