

- swelling, usually of legs and feet
- double vision
- feeling tired
- unusual eye movement
- fever

Tell your healthcare provider if you have any side effect that bothers you or that does not go away.

These are not all the possible side effects of gabapentin oral solution. For more information, ask your healthcare provider or pharmacist.

Call your doctor for medical advice about side effects. You may report side effects to FDA at 1-800-FDA-1088.

How should I store gabapentin oral solution?

- Store gabapentin oral solution in the refrigerator between 36°F to 46°F (2°C to 8°C).

Keep gabapentin oral solution and all medicines out of the reach of children.

General information about the safe and effective use of gabapentin oral solution.

Medicines are sometimes prescribed for purposes other than those listed in a Medication Guide. Do not use gabapentin oral solution for a condition for which it was not prescribed. Do not give gabapentin oral solution to other people, even if they have the same symptoms that you have. It may harm them. You can ask your healthcare provider for information about gabapentin oral solution that is written for health professionals.

What are the ingredients in gabapentin oral solution?

Active ingredient: gabapentin.

Inactive ingredients in the oral solution: carboxymethylcellulose sodium, methylparaben, propylene glycol, propylparaben, purified water, xylitol, anise flavor, artificial strawberry flavor and hydrochloric acid added for adjustment of pH.

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Medication Guide available at <http://camberpharma.com/medication-guides>.



Manufactured for:
Camber Pharmaceuticals, Inc.
Piscataway, NJ 08854

By: Anнора Pharma Pvt. Ltd.
Sangareddy - 502313, Telangana, India.

For more information, call Anнора Pharma Private Limited at 1-866-495-1995.

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Hydrocodone
Concomitant administration of gabapentin with hydrocodone decreases hydrocodone exposure (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.2)*). The potential for alteration in hydrocodone exposure and effect should be considered when gabapentin is started or discontinued in a patient taking hydrocodone.

Morphine
When gabapentin is administered with morphine, patients should be observed for signs of CNS depression, such as somnolence, sedation and respiratory depression (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.2)*).

7.2 Other Antiepileptic Drugs
Gabapentin is not appreciably metabolized and does not interfere with the metabolism of commonly coadministered antiepileptic drugs (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.2)*).

7.3 Maalox[®] (aluminum hydroxide, magnesium hydroxide)
The mean bioavailability of gabapentin was reduced by about 20% with concomitant use of an antacid (Maalox[®]) containing magnesium and aluminum hydroxides. It is recommended that gabapentin be taken at least 2 hours following Maalox administration (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.2)*).

7.4 Drug/Laboratory Test Interactions
Because false positive readings were reported with the Ames II Multitest SG dipstick test for urinary protein when gabapentin was added to other antiepileptic drugs, the more specific sulfosalicylic acid precipitation procedure is recommended to determine the presence of urine protein.

8. USE IN SPECIFIC POPULATIONS

8.1 Pregnancy

The totality of available data from published prospective and retrospective cohort studies pertaining to gabapentin use during pregnancy has not indicated an increased risk of major birth defects or miscarriage. There are important methodological limitations hindering interpretation of these studies (see *Data*). In nonclinical studies in mice, rats, and rabbits, gabapentin was developmentally toxic; increased fetal skeletal and visceral dysplasias, and increased embryofetal mortality when administered to pregnant animals at doses similar to or lower than those used clinically (see *Data*).

The background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage for the indicated population is unknown. All pregnancies have a background risk of birth defect, loss, or other adverse outcomes. In the U.S. general population, the estimated background risk of major birth defects and miscarriage in clinically recognized pregnancies is 2 to 4% and 15 to 20%, respectively.

Data

Human Data
An observational study based on routinely collected data from administrative and medical registers in Denmark, Finland, Norway, and Sweden, compared the prevalence of major congenital malformations in approximately 1,500 pregnancies exposed to gabapentin monotherapy in the first trimester to pregnancies unexposed to antiepileptics ($n = 2,995,816$) and pregnancies exposed to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester ($n = 7,582$). The adjusted prevalence ratios in a pooled analysis were 1.00 (95% CI: 0.80, 1.24) compared to pregnancies unexposed to antiepileptics and 1.29 (95% CI: 1.00, 1.67) compared to pregnancies exposed to lamotrigine monotherapy in the first trimester.

Data from another observational study in the US based on Medicaid data, which compared the risk for major congenital malformations in more than 4,600 pregnancies exposed to gabapentin during the first trimester to unexposed pregnancies ($n = 1,753,865$), estimated an adjusted relative risk of 1.07 (95% CI: 0.94, 1.23).

The data from these observational studies should be interpreted with caution due to the potential for exposure misclassification, outcome misclassification, and residual confounding, including by underlying disease.

Animal Data

When pregnant mice received oral doses of gabapentin (500, 1000, or 3000 mg/kg/day) during the period of organogenesis, embryofetal toxicity (increased incidences of skeletal variations) was observed at the two highest doses. The no effect dose for embryofetal developmental toxicity in mice (500 mg/kg/day) is less than the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) of 3600 mg on a body surface area (mg/m^2) basis. In studies in which rats received oral doses of gabapentin (500 to 2000 mg/kg/day) during pregnancy, adverse effect on offspring development (increased incidences of hydrocephalus and/or hydronephrosis) were observed at all doses. The lowest dose tested is similar to the MRHD on a mg/m^2 basis. When pregnant rabbits were treated with gabapentin during the period of organogenesis, an increase in embryofetal mortality was observed at all doses tested (60, 300, or 1500 mg/kg). The lowest dose tested is less than the MRHD on a mg/m^2 basis.

In a published study, gabapentin (400 mg/kg/day) was administered by intraperitoneal injection to neonatal mice during the first postnatal week, a period of synaptogenesis in rodents corresponding to the last trimester of pregnancy in humans. Gabapentin caused a marked decrease in neuronal synapse formation in brains of intact mice and abnormal neuronal synapse formation in a mouse model of synaptic repair. Gabapentin has been shown *in vitro* to interfere with activity of the $\alpha 2\delta$ subunit of voltage activated calcium channels, a receptor involved in neuronal synaptogenesis. The clinical significance of these findings is unknown.

8.2 Lactation

Risk Summary
Gabapentin is secreted in human milk following oral administration. The effects on the breastfed infant and on milk production are unknown. The developmental and health benefits of breastfeeding should be considered along with the mother's clinical need for gabapentin and any potential adverse effects on the breastfed infant from gabapentin or from the underlying maternal condition.

8.4 Pediatric Use

Safety and effectiveness of gabapentin in the management of postherpetic neuralgia in pediatric patients have not been established.

Safety and effectiveness as adjunctive therapy in the treatment of partial seizures in pediatric patients below the age of 3 years has not been established (see *Clinical Studies (14.2)*).

8.5 Geriatric Use

The total number of patients treated with gabapentin in controlled clinical trials in patients with postherpetic neuralgia was 336, of which 102 (30%) were 65 to 74 years of age, and 168 (50%) were 75 years of age and older. There was a larger treatment effect in patients 75 years of age and older compared to younger patients who received the same dosage. Since gabapentin is almost exclusively eliminated by renal excretion, the larger treatment effect observed in patients > 75 years may be a consequence of increased gabapentin exposure for a given dose that results from an age-related decrease in renal function. However, other factors cannot be excluded. The types and incidence of adverse reactions were similar across age groups except for peripheral edema and ataxia, which tended to increase in incidence with age.

Clinical studies of gabapentin in epilepsy did not include sufficient numbers of subjects aged 65 and over to determine whether they responded differently from younger subjects. Other reported clinical experience has not identified differences in responses between the elderly and younger patients. In general, dose selection for an elderly patient should be cautious, usually starting at the low end of the dosing range, reflecting the greater frequency of decreased hepatic, renal, or cardiac function, and of concomitant disease or other therapy.

This drug is known to be substantially excreted by the kidney, and the risk of toxic reactions to this drug may be greater in patients with impaired renal function. Because elderly patients are more likely to have decreased renal function, care should be taken in dose selection, and dose should be adjusted based on creatinine clearance values in these patients (see *Dosage and Administration (2.4)*, *Adverse Reactions (8)*, and *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*).

8.6 Renal Impairment

Dosage adjustment in adult patients with compromised renal function is necessary (see *Dosage and Administration (2.3)* and *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*). Pediatric patients with renal insufficiency have not been studied.

Dosage adjustment in patients undergoing hemodialysis is necessary (see *Dosage and Administration (2.3)* and *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*).

9. DRUG ABUSE AND DEPENDENCY

9.1 Controlled Substance

Gabapentin is not a scheduled drug.

9.2 Abuse

Abuse is the intentional, non-therapeutic use of a drug, even once, for its desirable psychological or physiological effects. Misuse is the intentional use, for therapeutic purposes, of a drug by an individual in a way other than prescribed by a health care provider or for whom it was not prescribed. Gabapentin does not exhibit affinity for benzodiazepine, opioid (μ , δ , or κ), or cannabinoid 1 receptor sites. Gabapentin misuse and abuse have been reported in the postmarketing setting and published literature. Most of the individuals described in these reports had a history of polysubstance abuse. Some of these individuals were taking higher than recommended doses of gabapentin for approved uses. When prescribing gabapentin, carefully evaluate patients for a history of drug abuse and observe them for signs and symptoms of gabapentin misuse or abuse (e.g., self-dose escalation and drug-seeking behavior). The abuse potential of gabapentin has not been evaluated in human studies.

9.3 Dependence

Physical dependence is a state that develops as a result of physiological adaptation in response to repeated drug use, manifested by withdrawal signs and symptoms after abrupt discontinuation or a significant dose reduction of a drug. There are no published reports of individuals experiencing withdrawal symptoms shortly after discontinuing higher than recommended doses of gabapentin used to treat illnesses for which the drug is not approved. Such symptoms included agitation, disorientation and confusion after abruptly discontinuing gabapentin that resolved after restarting gabapentin. The dependence potential of gabapentin has not been evaluated in human studies.

10. OVERDOSAGE

Signs of acute toxicity in animals included ataxia, labored breathing, ptosis, sedation, hypocoxyctia, or excitation.

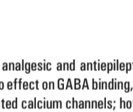
Acute oral overdoses of gabapentin have been reported. Symptoms have included double vision, tremor, slurred speech, drowsiness, altered mental status, dizziness, lethargy, and diarrhea. Fatal respiratory depression has been reported with gabapentin overdose, alone and in combination with other CNS depressants.

Gabapentin can be removed by hemodialysis.

If an overdose occurs, call your poison control center at 1-800-222-1222.

11. DESCRIPTION

The active ingredient in gabapentin oral solution is gabapentin, USP which has the chemical name 1-(aminomethyl)cyclohexanecarboxylic acid. The molecular formula of gabapentin is $C_8H_{15}NO_2$ and the molecular weight is 171.24. The structural formula of gabapentin is:



Gabapentin, USP is a white to off-white crystalline solid with pK_a of 3.7 and pK_a of 10.7. It is freely soluble in water and both basic and acidic aqueous solutions. The log of the partition coefficient is -1.1 .

Gabapentin oral solution contains 250 mg of gabapentin per 5 mL (50 mg per mL) and the following inactive ingredients: carboxymethylcellulose sodium, methylparaben, propylene glycol, propylparaben, purified water, xylitol, anise flavor, artificial strawberry flavor and hydrochloric acid added for adjustment of pH.

12. CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY

12.1 Mechanism of Action

The precise mechanism by which gabapentin produces its analgesic and antiepileptic actions are unknown. Gabapentin is structurally related to the neurotransmitter gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA) but has no effect on GABA binding, uptake, or degradation. *In vitro* studies have shown that gabapentin binds with high affinity to the $\alpha 2\delta$ subunit of voltage activated calcium channels; however, the relationship of this binding to the therapeutic effects of gabapentin is unknown.

12.2 Pharmacokinetics

All pharmacological actions following gabapentin administration are due to the activity of the parent compound; gabapentin is not appreciably metabolized in humans.

Oral Bioavailability

Gabapentin bioavailability is not dose proportional; i.e., as dose is increased, bioavailability decreases. Bioavailability of gabapentin is approximately 60%, 47%, 34%, 33%, and 27% following 900, 1200, 2400, 3600, and 4800 mg/day given in 2 divided doses, respectively. Food has only a slight effect on the rate and extent of absorption of gabapentin (14% increase in AUC and C_{max}).

Distribution

Less than 3% of gabapentin circulates bound to plasma protein. The apparent volume of distribution of gabapentin after 150 mg intravenous administration is 56 ± 6 L (mean \pm SD). In patients with epilepsy, steady-state plasma (C_{ss}) concentrations of gabapentin in cerebrospinal fluid were approximately 20% of the corresponding plasma concentrations.

Elimination

Gabapentin is eliminated from the systemic circulation by renal excretion as unchanged drug. Gabapentin is not appreciably metabolized in humans. Gabapentin elimination half life is 5 to 7 hours and is unaffected by dose or following multiple dosing. Gabapentin elimination rate constant, plasma clearance, and renal clearance are directly proportional to creatinine clearance. In healthy patients, and in patients with impaired renal function, gabapentin plasma clearance is reduced. Gabapentin can be removed from plasma by hemodialysis.

Specific Populations

Age

The effect of age was studied in subjects 20 to 80 years of age. Apparent oral clearance (CL_R) of gabapentin decreased as age increased, from about 225 mL/min in those under 30 years of age to about 125 mL/min in those over 70 years of age. Renal clearance (CL_R) and CL_T adjusted for body surface area also declined with age; however, the decline in the renal clearance of gabapentin with age can largely be explained by the decline in renal function (see *Dosage and Administration (2.4)* and *Use in Specific Populations (8.6)*).

Gender

Although no formal study has been conducted to compare the pharmacokinetics of gabapentin in men and women, it appears that the pharmacokinetic parameters for males and females are similar and there are no significant gender differences.

Race

Pharmacokinetic differences due to race have not been studied. Because gabapentin is primarily renally excreted and there are no important racial differences in creatinine clearance, pharmacokinetic differences due to race are not expected.

Pediatric

Gabapentin pharmacokinetics were determined in 48 pediatric subjects between the ages of 1 month and 12 years following a dose of approximately 10 mg/kg. Peak plasma concentrations were similar across the entire age group and occurred 2 to 3 hours postdose. In general, pediatric subjects between 1 month and < 5 years of age achieved approximately 30% lower exposure (AUC) than that observed in those between 5 years of age and older. Accordingly, oral clearance normalized for body weight was higher in the younger children. Apparent oral clearance of gabapentin was directly proportional to creatinine clearance. Gabapentin elimination half-life averaged 4.7 hours and was similar across the age group studied.

A population pharmacokinetic analysis was performed in 253 pediatric subjects between 1 month and 13 years of age. Patients received 10 to 65 mg/kg/day given three times a day. Apparent oral clearance (CL_R) was directly proportional to creatinine clearance and this relationship was similar following a single dose and at steady state. Higher oral clearance values were observed in children < 5 years of age compared to those observed in children 5 years of age and older, when normalized per body weight. The clearance was highly variable in infants < 1 year of age. The oral volume of distribution normalized per body weight was constant across the age range.

These pharmacokinetic data indicate that the effective daily doses in pediatric patients with epilepsy ages 3 and 4 years should be 40 mg/kg/day to achieve average plasma concentrations similar to those achieved in patients 5 years of age and older receiving gabapentin at 30 mg/kg/day (see *Dosage and Administration (2.2)*).

Adult Patients with Renal Impairment

Subjects ($n = 60$) with renal impairment (mean creatinine clearance ranging from 13 to 114 mL/min) were administered single 400 mg oral doses of gabapentin. Mean gabapentin half-life ranged from about 6.5 hours (patients with creatinine clearance > 60 mL/min) to 5.2 hours (creatinine clearance < 30 mL/min) and gabapentin renal clearance from about 80 mL/min ($n = 40$ mL/min group) to about 10 mL/min ($n = 20$ mL/min). Mean plasma clearance (CL_R) decreased from approximately 190 mL/min to 20 mL/min (see *Dosage and Administration (2.3)* and *Use in Specific Populations (8.6)*). Pediatric patients with renal insufficiency have not been studied.

Hemodialysis

In a study in anuric adult subjects ($n = 11$), the apparent elimination half-life of gabapentin on nondialysis days was about 132 hours; during dialysis the apparent half-life of gabapentin was reduced to 3.8 hours. Hemodialysis thus has a significant effect on gabapentin elimination in anuric subjects (see *Dosage and Administration (2.3)* and *Use in Specific Populations (8.6)*).

Renal Clearance

Because gabapentin is not metabolized, no study was performed in patients with hepatic impairment.

Drug Interactions

In Vitro Studies

In vitro studies were conducted to investigate the potential of gabapentin to inhibit the major cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYP1A2, CYP2A6, CYP2C2, CYP2C19, CYP2D6, CYP2E1, and CYP3A4) that mediate drug and xenobiotic metabolism using isoform selective marker substrates and human liver microsomal preparations. Only at the highest concentration tested (171 mcg/mL) was a slight degree of inhibition (14% to 30%) of isoform CYP2A6 observed. No inhibition of any of the other isoforms tested was observed at gabapentin concentrations up to 171 mcg/mL. Approximately 15 times the C_{50} at 3600 mg/day).

In Vivo Studies

The drug interaction data described in this section were obtained from studies involving healthy adults and adult patients with epilepsy.

Phenytoin

In a single 400 mg oral and multiple dose (400 mg three times a day) study of gabapentin in epileptic patients ($n = 8$) maintained on phenytoin monotherapy for at least 2 months, gabapentin had no effect on the steady state trough plasma concentrations of phenytoin and phenytoin had no effect on gabapentin pharmacokinetics.

Carbamazepine

Steady state trough plasma carbamazepine and carbamazepine 10, 11 epoxide concentrations were not affected by concomitant gabapentin (400 mg three times a day, $n = 12$) administration. Likewise, gabapentin pharmacokinetics were unaltered by carbamazepine administration.

Valproic Acid

The mean steady state trough serum valproic acid concentrations prior to and during concomitant gabapentin administration (400 mg three times a day, $n = 17$) were not different and neither were gabapentin pharmacokinetic parameters affected by valproic acid.

Phenobarbital

Estimates of steady state pharmacokinetic parameters for phenobarbital or gabapentin (300 mg three times a day, $n = 12$) are identical whether the drugs are administered alone or together.

Negatives

Coadministration ($n = 18$) of negative sodium captopril (250 mg) with gabapentin (125 mg) appears to increase the amount of gabapentin absorbed by 12% to 15%. Gabapentin had no effect on negative pharmacokinetic parameters. These doses are lower than the therapeutic doses for both drugs. The magnitude of interaction within the recommended dose ranges of either drug is not known.

Hydrocodone

Coadministration of gabapentin (125 to 500 mg, $n = 48$) decreases hydrocodone (10 mg, $n = 50$) C_{max} and AUC values in a dose-dependent manner relative to administration of hydrocodone alone. C_{max} and AUC values are 5% to 4% lower, respectively, after administration of 125 mg gabapentin and 21% to 22% lower, respectively, after administration of 500 mg gabapentin. The mechanism for this interaction is unknown. Hydrocodone increases gabapentin AUC values by 14%. The magnitude of interaction at other doses is not known.

Morphine

A literature article reported that when a 60 mg controlled release morphine capsule was administered 2 hours prior to a 600 mg gabapentin capsule ($n = 12$), mean gabapentin AUC increased by 44% compared to gabapentin administered without morphine. Morphine pharmacokinetic parameter values were not affected by administration of gabapentin 2 hours after morphine. The magnitude of interaction at other doses is not known.

Cimetidine

In the presence of cimetidine at 300 mg four times a day ($n = 12$), the mean apparent oral clearance of gabapentin fell by 14% and creatinine clearance fell by 10%. Thus, cimetidine appeared to alter the renal excretion of both gabapentin and creatinine, an endogenous marker of renal function. This decrease in excretion of gabapentin by cimetidine is not expected to be of clinical importance. The effect of gabapentin on cimetidine was not evaluated.

Oral Contraceptives

Based on AUC and half-life, multiple dose pharmacokinetic profiles of norethindrone and ethinyl estradiol following administration of tablets containing 2.5 mg of norethindrone acetate and 50 mcg of ethinyl estradiol were similar with and without coadministration of gabapentin (400 mg three times a day, $n = 12$). The C_{50} of norethindrone was 13% higher when it was coadministered with gabapentin; this interaction is not expected to be of clinical importance.

Antacid (Maalox[®]) (aluminum hydroxide, magnesium hydroxide)

Antacid (Maalox[®]) containing magnesium and aluminum hydroxides reduced the mean bioavailability of gabapentin ($n = 18$) by about 20%. This decrease in bioavailability was about 10% when gabapentin was administered 2 hours after Maalox.

Clonidine

Clonidine is a blocker of renal tubular secretion. Gabapentin pharmacokinetic parameters without and with probenecid were comparable. This indicates that gabapentin does not undergo renal tubular secretion by the pathway that is blocked by probenecid.

13. NONCLINICAL TOXICOLOGY

13.1 Carcinogenesis, Mutagenesis, Impairment of Fertility

Carcinogenesis
Gabapentin was administered orally to mice and rats in 2-year carcinogenicity studies. No evidence of drug-related carcinogenicity was observed in mice treated at doses up to 2000 mg/kg/day. At 2000 mg/kg, the plasma gabapentin exposure (AUC) in mice was approximately 2 times that in humans at the MRHD of 3600 mg/day. In rats, increases in the incidence of pancreatic acinar cell adenoma and carcinoma were found in male rats receiving the highest

dose (2000 mg/kg), but not at doses of 250 or 1000 mg/kg/day. At 1000 mg/kg, the plasma gabapentin exposure (AUC) in rats was approximately 5 times that in humans at the MRHD.

Studies designed to investigate the mechanism of gabapentin-induced pancreatic carcinogenesis in rats indicate that gabapentin stimulates DNA synthesis in rat pancreatic acinar cells *in vivo* and, thus, may be acting as a tumor promoter by enhancing mitogenic activity. It is not known whether gabapentin has the ability to increase cell proliferation of other cell types or in other species, including humans.

Mutagenesis

Gabapentin did not demonstrate mutagenic or genotoxic potential in *in vitro* Ames test, HGPRT forward mutation assay in Chinese hamster lung cells and *in vivo* chromosomal aberration and micronucleus test in Chinese hamster bone marrow, mouse micronucleus, unscheduled DNA synthesis in rat hepatocytes assays.

Impairment of Fertility

No adverse effects on fertility or reproduction were observed in rats at doses up to 2000 mg/kg. At 2000 mg/kg, the plasma gabapentin exposure (AUC) in rats is approximately 8 times that in humans at the MRHD.

14. CLINICAL STUDIES

14.1 Postherpetic Neuralgia

Gabapentin was evaluated for the management of postherpetic neuralgia (PHN) in two randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled, multicenter studies. The intent to treat (ITT) population consisted of a total of 1953 patients with pain for more than 3 months after healing of the herpes zoster skin rash (Table 8).

Study	Study Duration	Gabapentin (mg/day) ^a Target Dose	Patients Receiving Gabapentin	Patients Receiving Placebo
1	8 weeks	3600	113	118
2	7 weeks	1800, 2400	223	111
	Total		336	227

^aGiven in 3 divided doses (TD)
Each study included a 7 or 8-week double-blind phase (3 or 4 weeks of titration and 4 weeks of fixed dose). Patients initiated treatment with titration to a maximum of 600 mg/day gabapentin over 3 days. Dosage was then to be titrated to 600 to 1200 mg/day increments at 3 to 7 day intervals to the target dose over 3 to 4 weeks. Patients recorded their pain in a daily diary using an 11-point numeric pain rating scale ranging from (0= pain) to (10=worst possible pain). A mean pain score during baseline of at least 4 was required for randomization. Analyses were conducted using the ITT population (all randomized patients who received at least one dose of study medication).

Both studies demonstrated efficacy compared to placebo at all doses tested. The reduction in weekly mean pain scores was seen by Week 1 in both studies, and were maintained to the end of treatment. Comparable treatment effects were observed in all active treatment arms. Pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic modeling provided confirmatory evidence of efficacy across all doses. Figures 1 and 2 show baseline and observed cases in ITT population for Studies 1 and 2.

Figure 1. Weekly Mean Pain Scores (Observed Cases in ITT Population): Study 1

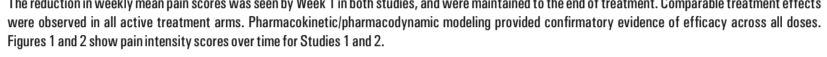


Figure 2. Weekly Mean Pain Scores (Observed Cases in ITT Population): Study 2



The proportion of responders (those patients reporting at least 50% improvement in endpoint pain score compared to baseline) was calculated for each study (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Proportion of Responders (Patients with $> 50\%$ reduction in pain score) at Endpoint: Controlled PHN Studies

