

FULL PRESCRIBING INFORMATION

WARNING: ADDICTION, ABUSE AND MISUSE; RISK EVALUATION AND MITIGATION STRATEGY (REMS); LIFE-THREATENING RESPIRATORY DEPRESSION; ACCIDENTAL INGESTION; NEONATAL OPIOID WITHDRAWAL SYNDROME; CYTOCHROME P450 3A4 INTERACTION; and RISKS FROM CONCOMITANT USE WITH BENZODIAZEPINES OR OTHER CNS DEPRESSANTS

Addiction, Abuse, and Misuse

OXYCONTIN® exposes patients and other users to the risks of opioid addiction, abuse, and misuse, which can lead to overdose and death. Assess each patient's risk prior to prescribing OXYCONTIN and monitor all patients regularly for the development of these behaviors and conditions [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.1)*].

Opioid Analgesic Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategy (REMS):

To ensure that the benefits of opioid analgesics outweigh the risks of addiction, abuse, and misuse, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has required a REMS for these products [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2)*]. Under the requirements of the REMS, drug companies with approved opioid analgesic products must make REMS-compliant education programs available to healthcare providers. Healthcare providers are strongly encouraged to

- complete a REMS-compliant education program,
- counsel patients and/or their caregivers, with every prescription, on safe use, serious risks, storage, and disposal of these products,
- emphasize to patients and their caregivers the importance of reading the Medication Guide every time it is provided by their pharmacist, and
- consider other tools to improve patient, household, and community safety.

Life-Threatening Respiratory Depression

Serious, life-threatening, or fatal respiratory depression may occur with use of OXYCONTIN. Monitor for respiratory depression, especially during initiation of OXYCONTIN or following a dose increase. Instruct patients to swallow OXYCONTIN tablets whole; crushing, chewing, or dissolving OXYCONTIN tablets can cause rapid release and absorption of a potentially fatal dose of oxycodone [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.3)*].

Accidental Ingestion

Accidental ingestion of even one dose of OXYCONTIN, especially by children, can result in a fatal overdose of oxycodone [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.3)*].

Neonatal Opioid Withdrawal Syndrome

Prolonged use of OXYCONTIN during pregnancy can result in neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome, which may be life-threatening if not recognized and treated, and requires management according to protocols developed by neonatology experts. If opioid use is required for a prolonged period in a pregnant woman, advise the patient of the risk of

Conversion from Other Opioids to OXYCONTIN

Discontinue all other around-the-clock opioid drugs when OXYCONTIN therapy is initiated.

There are no established conversion ratios for conversion from other opioids to OXYCONTIN defined by clinical trials. Initiate dosing using OXYCONTIN 10 mg orally every 12 hours.

It is safer to underestimate a patient's 24-hour oral oxycodone requirements and provide rescue medication (e.g., immediate-release opioid) than to overestimate the 24-hour oral oxycodone dosage and manage an adverse reaction due to an overdose. While useful tables of opioid equivalents are readily available, there is substantial inter-patient variability in the relative potency of different opioids.

Close observation and frequent titration are warranted until pain management is stable on the new opioid. Monitor patients for signs and symptoms of opioid withdrawal and for signs of oversedation/toxicity after converting patients to OXYCONTIN.

Conversion from Methadone to OXYCONTIN

Close monitoring is of particular importance when converting from methadone to other opioid agonists. The ratio between methadone and other opioid agonists may vary widely as a function of previous dose exposure. Methadone has a long half-life and can accumulate in the plasma.

Conversion from Transdermal Fentanyl to OXYCONTIN

Treatment with OXYCONTIN can be initiated after the transdermal fentanyl patch has been removed for at least 18 hours. Although there has been no systematic assessment of such conversion, start with a conservative conversion: substitute 10 mg of OXYCONTIN every 12 hours for each 25 mcg per hour fentanyl transdermal patch. Follow the patient closely during conversion from transdermal fentanyl to OXYCONTIN, as there is limited documented experience with this conversion.

2.4 Initial Dosage in Pediatric Patients 11 Years and Older

The following dosing information is for use only in pediatric patients 11 years and older already receiving and tolerating opioids for at least five consecutive days. For the two days immediately preceding dosing with OXYCONTIN, patients must be taking a minimum of 20 mg per day of oxycodone or its equivalent. OXYCONTIN is not appropriate for use in pediatric patients requiring less than a 20 mg total daily dose. Table 1, based on clinical trial experience, displays the conversion factor when switching pediatric patients 11 years and older (under the conditions described above) from opioids to OXYCONTIN.

Discontinue all other around-the-clock opioid drugs when OXYCONTIN therapy is initiated.

There is substantial inter-patient variability in the relative potency of different opioid drugs and formulations. Therefore, a conservative approach is advised when determining the total daily dosage of OXYCONTIN. It is safer to underestimate a patient's 24-hour oral oxycodone requirements and provide rescue medication (e.g., immediate-release opioid) than to

overestimate the 24-hour oral oxycodone requirements and manage an adverse reaction due to an overdose.

Consider the following when using the information in Table 1.

- This is not a table of equianalgesic doses.
- The conversion factors in this table are only for the conversion from one of the listed oral opioid analgesics to OXYCONTIN.
- The table cannot be used to convert from OXYCONTIN to another opioid. Doing so will result in an over-estimation of the dose of the new opioid and may result in fatal overdose.
- The formula for conversion from prior opioids, including oral oxycodone, to the daily dose of OXYCONTIN is mg per day of prior opioid x factor = mg per day of OXYCONTIN. Divide the calculated total daily dose by 2 to get the every-12-hour OXYCONTIN dose. If rounding is necessary, always round the dose down to the nearest OXYCONTIN tablet strength available.

Table 1: Conversion Factors When Switching Pediatric Patients 11 Years and Older to OXYCONTIN

Prior Opioid	Conversion Factor	
	Oral	Parenteral*
Oxycodone	1	--
Hydrocodone	0.9	--
Hydromorphone	4	20
Morphine	0.5	3
Tramadol	0.17	0.2

*For patients receiving high-dose parenteral opioids, a more conservative conversion is warranted. For example, for high-dose parenteral morphine, use 1.5 instead of 3 as a multiplication factor.

Step #1: To calculate the estimated total OXYCONTIN daily dosage using Table 1:

- For pediatric patients taking a single opioid, sum the current total daily dosage of the opioid and then multiply the total daily dosage by the approximate conversion factor to calculate the approximate OXYCONTIN daily dosage.
- For pediatric patients on a regimen of more than one opioid, calculate the approximate oxycodone dose for each opioid and sum the totals to obtain the approximate OXYCONTIN daily dosage.

Assess each patient's risk for opioid addiction, abuse, or misuse prior to prescribing OXYCONTIN, and monitor all patients receiving OXYCONTIN for the development of these behaviors and conditions. Risks are increased in patients with a personal or family history of substance abuse (including drug or alcohol abuse or addiction) or mental illness (e.g., major depression). The potential for these risks should not, however, prevent the proper management of pain in any given patient. Patients at increased risk may be prescribed opioids such as OXYCONTIN, but use in such patients necessitates intensive counseling about the risks and proper use of OXYCONTIN along with intensive monitoring for signs of addiction, abuse, and misuse.

Abuse or misuse of OXYCONTIN by crushing, chewing, snorting, or injecting the dissolved product will result in the uncontrolled delivery of oxycodone and can result in overdose and death [*see Overdosage (10)*].

Opioids are sought by drug abusers and people with addiction disorders and are subject to criminal diversion. Consider these risks when prescribing or dispensing OXYCONTIN. Strategies to reduce these risks include prescribing the drug in the smallest appropriate quantity and advising the patient on the proper disposal of unused drug [*see Patient Counseling Information (17)*]. Contact local state professional licensing board or state controlled substances authority for information on how to prevent and detect abuse or diversion of this product.

5.2 Opioid Analgesic Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategy (REMS)

To ensure that the benefits of opioid analgesics outweigh the risks of addiction, abuse, and misuse, the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has required a Risk Evaluation and Mitigation Strategy (REMS) for these products. Under the requirements of the REMS, drug companies with approved opioid analgesic products must make REMS-compliant education programs available to healthcare providers. Healthcare providers are strongly encouraged to do all of the following:

- Complete a REMS-compliant education program offered by an accredited provider of continuing education (CE) or another education program that includes all the elements of the FDA Education Blueprint for Health Care Providers Involved in the Management or Support of Patients with Pain.
- Discuss the safe use, serious risks, and proper storage and disposal of opioid analgesics with patients and/or their caregivers every time these medicines are prescribed. The Patient Counseling Guide (PCG) can be obtained at this link: www.fda.gov/OpioidAnalgesicREMSPCG .
- Emphasize to patients and their caregivers the importance of reading the Medication Guide that they will receive from their pharmacist every time an opioid analgesic is dispensed to them.
- Consider using other tools to improve patient, household, and community safety, such as patient-prescriber agreements that reinforce patient-prescriber responsibilities.

To obtain further information on the opioid analgesic REMS and for a list of accredited REMS CME/CE, call 1-800-503-0784, or log on to www.opioidanalgesicrems.com. The FDA Blueprint can be found at www.fda.gov/OpioidAnalgesicREMSBlueprint .

OXYCONTIN may increase the risk of serious adverse reactions such as those observed with other opioid analgesics, including respiratory depression, apnea, respiratory arrest, circulatory depression, hypotension, or shock [see *Overdosage (10)*].

The most common adverse reactions (>5%) reported by patients in clinical trials comparing OXYCONTIN with placebo are shown in Table 2 below:

TABLE 2: Common Adverse Reactions (>5%)

Adverse Reaction	OXYCONTIN (n=227) (%)	Placebo (n=45) (%)
Constipation	(23)	(7)
Nausea	(23)	(11)
Somnolence	(23)	(4)
Dizziness	(13)	(9)
Pruritus	(13)	(2)
Vomiting	(12)	(7)
Headache	(7)	(7)
Dry Mouth	(6)	(2)
Asthenia	(6)	-
Sweating	(5)	(2)

In clinical trials, the following adverse reactions were reported in patients treated with OXYCONTIN with an incidence between 1% and 5%:

Gastrointestinal disorders: abdominal pain, diarrhea, dyspepsia, gastritis

General disorders and administration site conditions: chills, fever

Metabolism and nutrition disorders: anorexia

Musculoskeletal and connective tissue disorders: twitching

Psychiatric disorders: abnormal dreams, anxiety, confusion, dysphoria, euphoria, insomnia, nervousness, thought abnormalities

Respiratory, thoracic and mediastinal disorders: dyspnea, hiccups

Skin and subcutaneous tissue disorders: rash

Vascular disorders: postural hypotension

The following adverse reactions occurred in less than 1% of patients involved in clinical trials:

Blood and lymphatic system disorders: lymphadenopathy

Ear and labyrinth disorders: tinnitus

Eye disorders: abnormal vision

Gastrointestinal disorders: dysphagia, eructation, flatulence, gastrointestinal disorder, increased appetite, stomatitis

General disorders and administration site conditions: withdrawal syndrome (with and without seizures), edema, peripheral edema, thirst, malaise, chest pain, facial edema

Injury, poisoning and procedural complications: accidental injury

Investigations: ST depression

Metabolism and nutrition disorders: dehydration

Nervous system disorders: syncope, migraine, abnormal gait, amnesia, hyperkinesia, hypoesthesia, hypotonia, paresthesia, speech disorder, stupor, tremor, vertigo, taste perversion

Psychiatric disorders: depression, agitation, depersonalization, emotional lability, hallucination

Renal and urinary disorders: dysuria, hematuria, polyuria, urinary retention

Reproductive system and breast disorders: impotence

Respiratory, thoracic and mediastinal disorders: cough increased, voice alteration

Skin and subcutaneous tissue disorders: dry skin, exfoliative dermatitis

Clinical Trial Experience in Pediatric Patients 11 Years and Older

The safety of OXYCONTIN has been evaluated in one clinical trial with 140 patients 11 to 16 years of age. The median duration of treatment was approximately three weeks. The most frequently reported adverse events were vomiting, nausea, headache, pyrexia, and constipation.

Table 3 includes a summary of the incidence of treatment emergent adverse events reported in $\geq 5\%$ of patients.

Table 3: Incidence of Adverse Reactions Reported in $\geq 5.0\%$ Patients 11 to 16 Years

System Organ Class Preferred Term	11 to 16 Years (N=140) n (%)
Any Adverse Event $\geq 5\%$	71 (51)

GASTROINTESTINAL DISORDERS	56 (40)
Vomiting	30 (21)
Nausea	21 (15)
Constipation	13 (9)
Diarrhea	8 (6)
GENERAL DISORDERS AND ADMINISTRATION SITE CONDITIONS	32 (23)
Pyrexia	15 (11)
METABOLISM AND NUTRITION DISORDERS	9 (6)
Decreased appetite	7 (5)
NERVOUS SYSTEM DISORDERS	37 (26)
Headache	20 (14)
Dizziness	12 (9)
SKIN AND SUBCUTANEOUS TISSUE DISORDERS	23 (16)
Pruritus	8 (6)

The following adverse reactions occurred in a clinical trial of OXYCONTIN in patients 11 to 16 years of age with an incidence between $\geq 1.0\%$ and $< 5.0\%$. Events are listed within each System/Organ Class.

Blood and lymphatic system disorders: febrile neutropenia, neutropenia

Cardiac disorders: tachycardia

Gastrointestinal disorders: abdominal pain, gastroesophageal reflux disease

General disorders and administration site conditions: fatigue, pain, chills, asthenia

Injury, poisoning, and procedural complications: procedural pain, seroma

Investigations: oxygen saturation decreased, alanine aminotransferase increased, hemoglobin decreased, platelet count decreased, neutrophil count decreased, red blood cell count decreased, weight decreased

Metabolic and nutrition disorders: hypochloremia, hyponatremia

Musculoskeletal and connective tissue disorders: pain in extremity, musculoskeletal pain

Nervous system disorders: somnolence, hypoesthesia, lethargy, paresthesia

	<p><i>and Precautions (5.5)]</i>.</p> <p>After stopping a CYP3A4 inhibitor, as the effects of the inhibitor decline, the oxycodone plasma concentration will decrease [<i>see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)]</i>, resulting in decreased opioid efficacy or a withdrawal syndrome in patients who had developed physical dependence to oxycodone.</p>
<i>Intervention:</i>	<p>If concomitant use is necessary, consider dosage reduction of OXYCONTIN until stable drug effects are achieved. Monitor patients for respiratory depression and sedation at frequent intervals.</p> <p>If a CYP3A4 inhibitor is discontinued, consider increasing the OXYCONTIN dosage until stable drug effects are achieved. Monitor for signs of opioid withdrawal.</p>
<i>Examples</i>	Macrolide antibiotics (e.g., erythromycin), azole-antifungal agents (e.g. ketoconazole), protease inhibitors (e.g., ritonavir)
CYP3A4 Inducers	
<i>Clinical Impact:</i>	<p>The concomitant use of OXYCONTIN and CYP3A4 inducers can decrease the plasma concentration of oxycodone [<i>see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)]</i>, resulting in decreased efficacy or onset of a withdrawal syndrome in patients who have developed physical dependence to oxycodone [<i>see Warnings and Precautions (5.5)]</i>.</p> <p>After stopping a CYP3A4 inducer, as the effects of the inducer decline, the oxycodone plasma concentration will increase [<i>see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)]</i>, which could increase or prolong both the therapeutic effects and adverse reactions, and may cause serious respiratory depression.</p>
<i>Intervention:</i>	If concomitant use is necessary, consider increasing the OXYCONTIN dosage until stable drug effects are achieved. Monitor for signs of opioid withdrawal. If a CYP3A4 inducer is discontinued, consider OXYCONTIN dosage reduction and monitor for signs of respiratory depression.
<i>Examples:</i>	Rifampin, carbamazepine, phenytoin
Benzodiazepines and Other Central Nervous System (CNS) Depressants	
<i>Clinical Impact:</i>	Due to additive pharmacologic effect, the concomitant use of benzodiazepines or other CNS depressants, including alcohol, can increase the risk of hypotension, respiratory depression, profound sedation, coma, and death.
<i>Intervention:</i>	Reserve concomitant prescribing of these drugs for use in patients for whom alternative treatment options are inadequate. Limit dosages and durations to the minimum required. Follow patients closely for signs of respiratory depression and sedation [<i>see Dosage and Administration (2.6), Warnings and Precautions (5.6)]</i> .
<i>Examples:</i>	Benzodiazepines and other sedatives/hypnotics, anxiolytics, tranquilizers, muscle relaxants, general anesthetics, antipsychotics, other opioids, alcohol.
Serotonergic Drugs	
<i>Clinical Impact:</i>	The concomitant use of opioids with other drugs that affect the serotonergic neurotransmitter system has resulted in serotonin syndrome.
<i>Intervention:</i>	If concomitant use is warranted, carefully observe the patient, particularly during treatment initiation and dose adjustment. Discontinue OXYCONTIN if serotonin syndrome is suspected.
<i>Examples:</i>	Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), serotonin and norepinephrine

oxycodone hydrochloride was orally administered to rats and rabbits, during the period of organogenesis, at doses 1.3 to 40 times the adult human dose of 60 mg/day, respectively. In a pre- and postnatal toxicity study, when oxycodone was orally administered to rats, there was transiently decreased pup body weight during lactation and the early post-weaning period at the dose equivalent to an adult dose of 60 mg/day. In several published studies, treatment of pregnant rats with oxycodone hydrochloride at clinically relevant doses and below resulted in neurobehavioral effects in offspring [see Data]. Based on animal data, advise pregnant women of the potential risk to a fetus.

The estimated 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 2-4% and 15-20%, respectively.

Clinical Considerations

Fetal/Neonatal Adverse Reactions

Prolonged use of opioid analgesics during pregnancy for medical or nonmedical purposes can result in physical dependence in the neonate and neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome shortly after birth.

Neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome presents as irritability, hyperactivity and abnormal sleep pattern, high pitched cry, tremor, vomiting, diarrhea, and failure to gain weight. The onset, duration, and severity of neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome vary based on the specific opioid used, duration of use, timing and amount of last maternal use, and rate of elimination of the drug by the newborn. Observe newborns for symptoms of neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome and manage accordingly [see Warnings and Precautions (5.4)].

Labor or Delivery

Opioids cross the placenta and may produce respiratory depression and psycho-physiologic effects in neonates. An opioid antagonist, such as naloxone, must be available for reversal of opioid-induced respiratory depression in the neonate. OXYCONTIN is not recommended for use in women immediately prior to labor, when use of shorter-acting analgesics or other analgesic techniques are more appropriate. Opioid analgesics, including OXYCONTIN, can prolong labor through actions which temporarily reduce the strength, duration, and frequency of uterine contractions. However this effect is not consistent and may be offset by an increased rate of cervical dilatation, which tends to shorten labor. Monitor neonates exposed to opioid analgesics during labor for signs of excess sedation and respiratory depression.

Data

Animal Data

Pregnant rats were treated with 0.5, 2, 4, and 8 mg/kg oxycodone hydrochloride (0.08, 0.3, 0.7, and 1.3 times the human daily dose of 60 mg/day, respectively based on a mg/m² basis) during the period of organogenesis. Oxycodone did not cause adverse effects to the fetus at exposures up to 1.3 times the human dose of 60 mg/day. The high dose produced maternal toxicity characterized by excessive gnawing on forelimbs and decreased body weight gain.

Pregnant rabbits were treated with 1, 5, 25, and 125 mg/kg oxycodone hydrochloride (0.3, 2, 8, and 40 times the human daily dose of 60 mg/day, respectively, based on a mg/m² basis) during the period of organogenesis. Oxycodone did not cause adverse effects to the fetus at exposures up to 40 times the human dose of 60 mg/day. The 25 mg/kg and 125 mg/kg doses high doses produced maternal toxicity characterized by decreased food consumption and body weight gain.

Pregnant rats were treated with 0.5, 2, and 6 mg/kg oxycodone hydrochloride (0.08, 0.32, and 1 times the human daily dose of 60 mg/kg, respective, based on a mg/m² basis, during the period of organogenesis through lactation. Decreased body weight was found during lactation and the early post-weaning phase in pups nursed by mothers given the highest dose used (6 mg/kg/day, equivalent to an adult human dose of 60 mg/day, on a mg/m² basis). However, body weight of these pups recovered.

In published studies, offspring of pregnant rats administered oxycodone hydrochloride during gestation have been reported to exhibit neurobehavioral effects including altered stress responses and increased anxiety-like behavior (2 mg/kg/day IV from Gestation Day 8 to 21 and Postnatal Day 1, 3, and 5; 0.3 times an adult human oral dose of 60 mg/day on a mg/m² basis), and altered learning and memory (15 mg/kg/day orally from breeding through parturition; 2.4 times an adult human oral dose of 60 mg/day on a mg/m² basis).

8.2 Lactation

Oxycodone is present in breast milk. Published lactation studies report variable concentrations of oxycodone in breast milk with administration of immediate-release oxycodone to nursing mothers in the early postpartum period. The lactation studies did not assess breastfed infants for potential adverse reactions. Lactation studies have not been conducted with extended-release oxycodone, including OXYCONTIN, and no information is available on the effects of the drug on the breastfed infant or the effects of the drug on milk production. Because of the potential for serious adverse reactions, including excess sedation and respiratory depression in a breastfed infant, advise patients that breastfeeding is not recommended during treatment with OXYCONTIN.

Clinical Considerations

Infants exposed to OXYCONTIN through breast milk should be monitored for excess sedation and respiratory depression. Withdrawal symptoms can occur in breast-fed infants when maternal administration of an opioid analgesic is stopped, or when breast-feeding is stopped.

8.3 Females and Males of Reproductive Potential

Infertility

Chronic use of opioids may cause reduced fertility in females and males of reproductive potential. It is not known whether these effects on fertility are reversible [*see Adverse Reactions (6.2), Clinical Pharmacology (12.2)*].

8.4 Pediatric Use

The safety and efficacy of OXYCONTIN have been established in pediatric patients ages 11 to 16 years. Use of OXYCONTIN is supported by evidence from adequate and well-controlled trials with OXYCONTIN in adults as well as an open-label study in pediatric patients ages 6 to 16 years. However, there were insufficient numbers of patients less than 11 years of age enrolled in this study to establish the safety of the product in this age group.

The safety of OXYCONTIN in pediatric patients was evaluated in 155 patients previously receiving and tolerating opioids for at least 5 consecutive days with a minimum of 20 mg per day of oxycodone or its equivalent on the two days immediately preceding dosing with OXYCONTIN. Patients were started on a total daily dose ranging between 20 mg and 100 mg depending on prior opioid dose.

The most frequent adverse events observed in pediatric patients were vomiting, nausea, headache, pyrexia, and constipation [*see Dosage and Administration (2.4), Adverse Reactions (6.1), Clinical Pharmacology (12.3) and Clinical Trials (14)*].

8.5 Geriatric Use

In controlled pharmacokinetic studies in elderly subjects (greater than 65 years) the clearance of oxycodone was slightly reduced. Compared to young adults, the plasma concentrations of oxycodone were increased approximately 15% [*see Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*]. Of the total number of subjects (445) in clinical studies of oxycodone hydrochloride controlled-release tablets, 148 (33.3%) were age 65 and older (including those age 75 and older) while 40 (9.0%) were age 75 and older. In clinical trials with appropriate initiation of therapy and dose titration, no untoward or unexpected adverse reactions were seen in the elderly patients who received oxycodone hydrochloride controlled-release tablets. Thus, the usual doses and dosing intervals may be appropriate for elderly patients. However, a dosage reduction in debilitated, non-opioid-tolerant patients is recommended [*see Dosage and Administration (2.7)*].

The high drug content in extended-release formulations adds to the risk of adverse outcomes from abuse and misuse.

All patients treated with opioids require careful monitoring for signs of abuse and addiction, because use of opioid analgesic products carries the risk of addiction even under appropriate medical use.

Prescription drug abuse is the intentional non-therapeutic use of a prescription drug, even once, for its rewarding psychological or physiological effects. Drug addiction is a cluster of behavioral, cognitive, and physiological phenomena that develop after repeated substance use and includes: a strong desire to take the drug, difficulties in controlling its use, persisting in its use despite harmful consequences, a higher priority given to drug use than to other activities and obligations, increased tolerance, and sometimes a physical withdrawal.

"Drug-seeking" behavior is very common in persons with substance use disorders. Drug-seeking tactics include emergency calls or visits near the end of office hours, refusal to undergo appropriate examination, testing or referral, repeated "loss" of prescriptions, tampering with prescriptions, and reluctance to provide prior medical records or contact information for other treating healthcare provider(s). "Doctor shopping" (visiting multiple prescribers to obtain additional prescriptions) is common among drug abusers and people suffering from untreated addiction. Preoccupation with achieving adequate pain relief can be appropriate behavior in a patient with poor pain control.

Abuse and addiction are separate and distinct from physical dependence and tolerance. Healthcare providers should be aware that addiction may not be accompanied by concurrent tolerance and symptoms of physical dependence in all addicts. In addition, abuse of opioids can occur in the absence of true addiction.

OXYCONTIN, like other opioids, can be diverted for non-medical use into illicit channels of distribution. Careful record-keeping of prescribing information, including quantity, frequency, and renewal requests, as required by state and federal law, is strongly advised.

Proper assessment of the patient, proper prescribing practices, periodic reevaluation of therapy, and proper dispensing and storage are appropriate measures that help to limit abuse of opioid drugs.

Risks Specific to Abuse of OXYCONTIN

OXYCONTIN is for oral use only. Abuse of OXYCONTIN poses a risk of overdose and death. The risk is increased with concurrent use of OXYCONTIN with alcohol and other central nervous system depressants. Taking cut, broken, chewed, crushed, or dissolved OXYCONTIN enhances drug release and increases the risk of overdose and death.

With parenteral abuse, the inactive ingredients in OXYCONTIN can be expected to result in local tissue necrosis, infection, pulmonary granulomas, increased risk of endocarditis, valvular

heart injury, embolism, and death. Cases of thrombotic microangiopathy (a condition characterized clinically by thrombocytopenia and microangiopathic hemolytic anemia) associated with parenteral abuse have been reported.

Parenteral drug abuse is commonly associated with transmission of infectious diseases, such as hepatitis and HIV.

Abuse Deterrence Studies

OXYCONTIN is formulated with inactive ingredients intended to make the tablet more difficult to manipulate for misuse and abuse. For the purposes of describing the results of studies of the abuse-deterrent characteristics of OXYCONTIN resulting from a change in formulation, in this section, the original formulation of OXYCONTIN, which is no longer marketed, will be referred to as “original OxyContin” and the reformulated, currently marketed product will be referred to as “OXYCONTIN”.

In Vitro Testing

In vitro physical and chemical tablet manipulation studies were performed to evaluate the success of different extraction methods in defeating the extended-release formulation. Results support that, relative to original OxyContin, there is an increase in the ability of OXYCONTIN to resist crushing, breaking, and dissolution using a variety of tools and solvents. The results of these studies also support this finding for OXYCONTIN relative to an immediate-release oxycodone. When subjected to an aqueous environment, OXYCONTIN gradually forms a viscous hydrogel (i.e., a gelatinous mass) that resists passage through a needle.

Clinical Studies

In a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled 5-period crossover pharmacodynamic study, 30 recreational opioid users with a history of intranasal drug abuse received intranasally administered active and placebo drug treatments. The five treatment arms were finely crushed OXYCONTIN 30 mg tablets, coarsely crushed OXYCONTIN 30 mg tablets, finely crushed original OxyContin 30 mg tablets, powdered oxycodone HCl 30 mg, and placebo. Data for finely crushed OXYCONTIN, finely crushed original OxyContin, and powdered oxycodone HCl are described below.

Drug liking was measured on a bipolar drug liking scale of 0 to 100 where 50 represents a neutral response of neither liking nor disliking, 0 represents maximum disliking and 100 represents maximum liking. Response to whether the subject would take the study drug again was also measured on a bipolar scale of 0 to 100 where 50 represents a neutral response, 0 represents the strongest negative response (“definitely would not take drug again”) and 100 represents the strongest positive response (“definitely would take drug again”).

Twenty-seven of the subjects completed the study. Incomplete dosing due to granules falling from the subjects’ nostrils occurred in 34% (n = 10) of subjects with finely crushed OXYCONTIN, compared with 7% (n = 2) of subjects with finely crushed original OxyContin and no subjects with powdered oxycodone HCl.

The intranasal administration of finely crushed OXYCONTIN was associated with a numerically lower mean and median drug liking score and a lower mean and median score for take drug again, compared to finely crushed original OxyContin or powdered oxycodone HCl as summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: Summary of Maximum Drug Liking (E_{max}) Data Following Intranasal Administration

VAS Scale (100 mm)*		OXYCONTIN (finely crushed)	Original OxyContin (finely crushed)	Oxycodone HCl (powdered)
Drug Liking	Mean (SE)	80.4 (3.9)	94.0 (2.7)	89.3 (3.1)
	Median (Range)	88 (36-100)	100 (51-100)	100 (50-100)
Take Drug Again	Mean (SE)	64.0 (7.1)	89.6 (3.9)	86.6 (4.4)
	Median (Range)	78 (0-100)	100 (20-100)	100 (0-100)

* Bipolar scales (0 = maximum negative response, 50 = neutral response, 100 = maximum positive response)

Figure 1 demonstrates a comparison of drug liking for finely crushed OXYCONTIN compared to powdered oxycodone HCl in subjects who received both treatments. The Y-axis represents the percent of subjects attaining a percent reduction in drug liking for OXYCONTIN vs. oxycodone HCl powder greater than or equal to the value on the X-axis. Approximately 44% (n = 12) had no reduction in liking with OXYCONTIN relative to oxycodone HCl. Approximately 56% (n = 15) of subjects had some reduction in drug liking with OXYCONTIN relative to oxycodone HCl. Thirty-three percent (n = 9) of subjects had a reduction of at least 30% in drug liking with OXYCONTIN compared to oxycodone HCl, and approximately 22% (n = 6) of subjects had a reduction of at least 50% in drug liking with OXYCONTIN compared to oxycodone HCl.

Figure 1: Percent Reduction Profiles for E_{max} of Drug Liking VAS for OXYCONTIN vs. oxycodone HCl, N=27 Following Intranasal Administration

The results of a similar analysis of drug liking for finely crushed OXYCONTIN relative to finely crushed original OxyContin were comparable to the results of finely crushed OXYCONTIN relative to powdered oxycodone HCl. Approximately 43% (n = 12) of subjects had no reduction in liking with OXYCONTIN relative to original OxyContin. Approximately 57% (n = 16) of subjects had some reduction in drug liking, 36% (n = 10) of subjects had a reduction of at least 30% in drug liking, and approximately 29% (n = 8) of subjects had a reduction of at least 50% in drug liking with OXYCONTIN compared to original OxyContin.

Summary

The *in vitro* data demonstrate that OXYCONTIN has physicochemical properties expected to make abuse via injection difficult. The data from the clinical study, along with support from the *in vitro* data, also indicate that OXYCONTIN has physicochemical properties that are expected to reduce abuse via the intranasal route. However, abuse of OXYCONTIN by these routes, as well as by the oral route, is still possible.

Additional data, including epidemiological data, when available, may provide further information on the impact of the current formulation of OXYCONTIN on the abuse liability of the drug. Accordingly, this section may be updated in the future as appropriate.

OXYCONTIN contains oxycodone, an opioid agonist and Schedule II controlled substance with an abuse liability similar to other opioid agonists, legal or illicit, including fentanyl, hydromorphone, methadone, morphine, and oxymorphone. OXYCONTIN can be abused and is

12.2 Pharmacodynamics

Effects on the Central Nervous System

Oxycodone produces respiratory depression by direct action on brain stem respiratory centers. The respiratory depression involves a reduction in the responsiveness of the brain stem respiratory centers to both increases in CO₂ tension and electrical stimulation.

Oxycodone causes miosis, even in total darkness. Pinpoint pupils are a sign of opioid overdose but are not pathognomonic (e.g., pontine lesions of hemorrhagic or ischemic origin may produce similar findings). Marked mydriasis rather than miosis may be seen with hypoxia in overdose situations [*see Overdosage (10)*].

Effects on the Gastrointestinal Tract and Other Smooth Muscle

Oxycodone causes a reduction in motility associated with an increase in smooth muscle tone in the antrum of the stomach and duodenum. Digestion of food in the small intestine is delayed and propulsive contractions are decreased. Propulsive peristaltic waves in the colon are decreased, while tone may be increased to the point of spasm, resulting in constipation. Other opioid-induced effects may include a reduction in biliary and pancreatic secretions, spasm of sphincter of Oddi, and transient elevations in serum amylase.

Effects on the Cardiovascular System

Oxycodone produces peripheral vasodilation which may result in orthostatic hypotension or syncope. Manifestations of histamine release and/or peripheral vasodilation may include pruritus, flushing, red eyes, sweating, and/or orthostatic hypotension.

Effects on the Endocrine System

Opioids inhibit the secretion of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), cortisol, and luteinizing hormone (LH) in humans [*see Adverse Reactions (6.2)*]. They also stimulate prolactin, growth hormone (GH) secretion, and pancreatic secretion of insulin and glucagon.

Chronic use of opioids may influence the hypothalamic-pituitary-gonadal axis, leading to androgen deficiency that may manifest as low libido, impotence, erectile dysfunction, amenorrhea, or infertility. The causal role of opioids in the clinical syndrome of hypogonadism is unknown because the various medical, physical, lifestyle, and psychological stressors that may influence gonadal hormone levels have not been adequately controlled for in studies conducted to date [*see Adverse Reactions (6.2)*].

Effects on the Immune System

Opioids have been shown to have a variety of effects on components of the immune system in in vitro and animal models. The clinical significance of these findings is unknown. Overall, the effects of opioids appear to be modestly immunosuppressive.

Concentration –Efficacy Relationships

Studies in normal volunteers and patients reveal predictable relationships between oxycodone dosage and plasma oxycodone concentrations, as well as between concentration and certain expected opioid effects, such as pupillary constriction, sedation, overall subjective “drug effect”, analgesia and feelings of relaxation.

The minimum effective analgesic concentration will vary widely among patients, especially among patients who have been previously treated with potent agonist opioids. The minimum effective analgesic concentration of oxycodone for any individual patient may increase over time due to an increase in pain, the development of a new pain syndrome, and/or the development of analgesic tolerance [*see Dosage and Administration (2.1, 2.5)*].

Concentration –Adverse Reaction Relationships

There is a relationship between increasing oxycodone plasma concentration and increasing frequency of dose-related opioid adverse reactions such as nausea, vomiting, CNS effects, and respiratory depression. In opioid-tolerant patients, the situation may be altered by the development of tolerance to opioid-related adverse reactions [*see Dosage and Administration (2.1, 2.5)*].

12.3 Pharmacokinetics

The activity of OXYCONTIN is primarily due to the parent drug oxycodone. OXYCONTIN is designed to provide delivery of oxycodone over 12 hours.

Cutting, breaking, chewing, crushing or dissolving OXYCONTIN impairs the controlled-release delivery mechanism and results in the rapid release and absorption of a potentially fatal dose of oxycodone.

Oxycodone release from OXYCONTIN is pH independent. The oral bioavailability of oxycodone is 60% to 87%. The relative oral bioavailability of oxycodone from OXYCONTIN to that from immediate-release oral dosage forms is 100%. Upon repeated dosing with OXYCONTIN in healthy subjects in pharmacokinetic studies, steady-state levels were achieved within 24-36 hours. Oxycodone is extensively metabolized and eliminated primarily in the urine as both conjugated and unconjugated metabolites. The apparent elimination half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of oxycodone following the administration of OXYCONTIN was 4.5 hours compared to 3.2 hours for immediate-release oxycodone.

Absorption

About 60% to 87% of an oral dose of oxycodone reaches the central compartment in comparison to a parenteral dose. This high oral bioavailability is due to low pre-systemic and/or first-pass metabolism.

Plasma Oxycodone Concentration over Time

Dose proportionality has been established for OXYCONTIN 10 mg, 15 mg, 20 mg, 30 mg, 40 mg, 60 mg, and 80 mg tablet strengths for both peak plasma concentrations (C_{max}) and extent of absorption (AUC) (see Table 6). Given the short elimination $t_{1/2}$ of oxycodone, steady-state plasma concentrations of oxycodone are achieved within 24-36 hours of initiation of dosing with OXYCONTIN. In a study comparing 10 mg of OXYCONTIN every 12 hours to 5 mg of immediate-release oxycodone every 6 hours, the two treatments were found to be equivalent for AUC and C_{max} , and similar for C_{min} (trough) concentrations.

TABLE 6

Mean [% coefficient of variation]

Regimen	Dosage Form	AUC (ng·hr/mL)*	C_{max} (ng/mL)	T_{max} (hr)
Single Dose†	10 mg	136 [27]	11.5 [27]	5.11 [21]
	15 mg	196 [28]	16.8 [29]	4.59 [19]
	20 mg	248 [25]	22.7 [25]	4.63 [22]
	30 mg	377 [24]	34.6 [21]	4.61 [19]
	40 mg	497 [27]	47.4 [30]	4.40 [22]
	60 mg	705 [22]	64.6 [24]	4.15 [26]
	80 mg	908 [21]	87.1 [29]	4.27 [26]

* for single-dose AUC = AUC_{0-inf}

†data obtained while subjects received naltrexone, which can enhance absorption

Food Effects

Food has no significant effect on the extent of absorption of oxycodone from OXYCONTIN.

Distribution

Following intravenous administration, the steady-state volume of distribution (V_{ss}) for oxycodone was 2.6 L/kg. Oxycodone binding to plasma protein at 37°C and a pH of 7.4 was about 45%. Once absorbed, oxycodone is distributed to skeletal muscle, liver, intestinal tract, lungs, spleen, and brain. Oxycodone has been found in breast milk [see *Use in Specific Populations* (8.4)].

Elimination

Metabolism

Oxycodone is extensively metabolized by multiple metabolic pathways to produce noroxycodone, oxymorphone and noroxymorphone, which are subsequently glucuronidated. Noroxycodone and noroxymorphone are the major circulating metabolites. CYP3A mediated *N*-demethylation to noroxycodone is the primary metabolic pathway of oxycodone with a lower contribution from CYP2D6 mediated *O*-demethylation to oxymorphone. Therefore, the formation of these and related metabolites can, in theory, be affected by other drugs [*see Drug Interactions (7)*].

Noroxycodone exhibits very weak anti-nociceptive potency compared to oxycodone, however, it undergoes further oxidation to produce noroxymorphone, which is active at opioid receptors. Although noroxymorphone is an active metabolite and present at relatively high concentrations in circulation, it does not appear to cross the blood-brain barrier to a significant extent. Oxymorphone is present in the plasma only at low concentrations and undergoes further metabolism to form its glucuronide and noroxymorphone. Oxymorphone has been shown to be active and possessing analgesic activity but its contribution to analgesia following oxycodone administration is thought to be clinically insignificant. Other metabolites (α - and β -oxycodol, noroxycodol and oxymorphol) may be present at very low concentrations and demonstrate limited penetration into the brain as compared to oxycodone. The enzymes responsible for keto-reduction and glucuronidation pathways in oxycodone metabolism have not been established.

Excretion

Oxycodone and its metabolites are excreted primarily via the kidney. The amounts measured in the urine have been reported as follows: free and conjugated oxycodone 8.9%, free noroxycodone 23%, free oxymorphone less than 1%, conjugated oxymorphone 10%, free and conjugated noroxymorphone 14%, reduced free and conjugated metabolites up to 18%. The total plasma clearance was approximately 1.4 L/min in adults.

Specific Populations

Age: Geriatric Population

The plasma concentrations of oxycodone are only nominally affected by age, being 15% greater in elderly as compared to young subjects (age 21-45).

Age: Pediatric Population

In the pediatric age group of 11 years of age and older, systemic exposure of oxycodone is expected to be similar to adults at any given dose of OXYCONTIN.

Sex

Across individual pharmacokinetic studies, average plasma oxycodone concentrations for female subjects were up to 25% higher than for male subjects on a body weight-adjusted basis. The reason for this difference is unknown [*see Use in Specific Populations (8.9)*].

Hepatic Impairment

Data from a study involving 24 patients with mild to moderate hepatic dysfunction show peak plasma oxycodone and noroxycodone concentrations 50% and 20% higher, respectively, than healthy subjects. AUC values are 95% and 65% higher, respectively. Oxymorphone peak plasma concentrations and AUC values are lower by 30% and 40%. These differences are accompanied by increases in some, but not other, drug effects. The mean elimination $t_{1/2}$ for oxycodone increased by 2.3 hours.

Renal Impairment

Data from a pharmacokinetic study involving 13 patients with mild to severe renal dysfunction (creatinine clearance <60 mL/min) showed peak plasma oxycodone and noroxycodone concentrations 50% and 20% higher, respectively, and AUC values for oxycodone, noroxycodone, and oxymorphone 60%, 50%, and 40% higher than normal subjects, respectively. This was accompanied by an increase in sedation but not by differences in respiratory rate, pupillary constriction, or several other measures of drug effect. There was an increase in mean elimination $t_{1/2}$ for oxycodone of 1 hour.

Drug Interaction Studies

CYP3A4 Inhibitors

CYP3A4 is the major isoenzyme involved in noroxycodone formation. Co-administration of OXYCONTIN (10 mg single dose) and the CYP3A4 inhibitor ketoconazole (200 mg BID) increased oxycodone AUC and C_{max} by 170% and 100%, respectively [*see Drug Interactions (7)*].

CYP3A4 Inducers

A published study showed that the co-administration of rifampin, a drug metabolizing enzyme inducer, decreased oxycodone AUC and C_{max} values by 86% and 63%, respectively [*see Drug Interactions (7)*].

CYP2D6 Inhibitors

Oxycodone is metabolized in part to oxymorphone via CYP2D6. While this pathway may be blocked by a variety of drugs such as certain cardiovascular drugs (e.g., quinidine) and antidepressants (e.g., fluoxetine), such blockade has not been shown to be of clinical significance with OXYCONTIN [*see Drug Interactions (7)*].

MAOI Interaction

Inform patients to avoid taking OXYCONTIN while using any drugs that inhibit monoamine oxidase. Patients should not start MAOIs while taking OXYCONTIN [see *Drug Interactions (7)*].

Adrenal Insufficiency

Inform patients that opioids could cause adrenal insufficiency, a potentially life-threatening condition. Adrenal insufficiency may present with non-specific symptoms and signs such as nausea, vomiting, anorexia, fatigue, weakness, dizziness, and low blood pressure. Advise patients to seek medical attention if they experience a constellation of these symptoms [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.8)*].

Important Administration Instructions

Instruct patients how to properly take OXYCONTIN, including the following:

- OXYCONTIN is designed to work properly only if swallowed intact. Taking cut, broken, chewed, crushed, or dissolved OXYCONTIN tablets can result in a fatal overdose [see *Dosage and Administration (2.1)*].
- OXYCONTIN tablets should be taken one tablet at a time [see *Dosage and Administration (2.1)*].
- Do not pre-soak, lick, or otherwise wet the tablet prior to placing in the mouth [see *Dosage and Administration (2.1)*].
- Take each tablet with enough water to ensure complete swallowing immediately after placing in the mouth [see *Dosage and Administration (2.1)*].
- Do not discontinue OXYCONTIN without first discussing the need for a tapering regimen with the prescriber [see *Dosage and Administration (2.9)*].

Hypotension

Inform patients that OXYCONTIN may cause orthostatic hypotension and syncope. Instruct patients how to recognize symptoms of low blood pressure and how to reduce the risk of serious consequences should hypotension occur (e.g., sit or lie down, carefully rise from a sitting or lying position) [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.9)*].

Anaphylaxis

Inform patients that anaphylaxis has been reported with ingredients contained in OXYCONTIN. Advise patients how to recognize such a reaction and when to seek medical attention [see *Contraindications (4), Adverse Reactions (6)*].

Pregnancy

Neonatal Opioid Withdrawal Syndrome

Inform female patients of reproductive potential that prolonged use of OXYCONTIN during pregnancy can result in neonatal opioid withdrawal syndrome, which may be life-threatening if not recognized and treated [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.4), Use in Specific Populations (8.1)*].

Embryo-Fetal Toxicity

Inform female patients of reproductive potential that OXYCONTIN can cause fetal harm and to inform their healthcare provider of a known or suspected pregnancy [*see Use in Specific Populations (8.1)*].

Lactation:

Advise patients that breastfeeding is not recommended during treatment with OXYCONTIN [*see Use in Specific Populations (8.2)*].

Infertility

Inform patients that chronic use of opioids may cause reduced fertility. It is not known whether these effects on fertility are reversible [*see Use in Specific Populations (8.3)*].

Driving or Operating Heavy Machinery

Inform patients that OXYCONTIN may impair the ability to perform potentially hazardous activities such as driving a car or operating heavy machinery. Advise patients not to perform such tasks until they know how they will react to the medication [*see Warnings and Precautions (5.15)*].

Constipation

Advise patients of the potential for severe constipation, including management instructions and when to seek medical attention [*see Adverse Reactions (6)*].

Disposal of Unused OXYCONTIN

Advise patients to flush the unused tablets down the toilet when OXYCONTIN is no longer needed.

Healthcare professionals can telephone Purdue Pharma's Medical Services Department (1-888-726-7535) for information on this product.

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OXYCONTIN® II
(OXYCODONE HCl) EXTENDED-RELEASE TABLETS