



European Medicines Agency

London, 19 July 2007
Doc. Ref. CHMP/EWP/369963/05

**COMMITTEE FOR MEDICINAL PRODUCTS FOR HUMAN USE
(CHMP)**

DRAFT

**GUIDELINE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICINAL PRODUCTS FOR THE
TREATMENT OF NICOTINE DEPENDENCE**

DRAFT AGREED BY THE EFFICACY WORKING PARTY	June 2007
ADOPTION BY CHMP FOR RELEASE FOR CONSULTATION	19 July 2007
END OF CONSULTATION (DEADLINE FOR COMMENTS)	31 January 2008

Comments should be provided using this [template](#) to EWPSecretariat@emea.europa.eu
Fax +44 20 7418 8613

KEYWORDS	Nicotine Dependence, guidance
-----------------	-------------------------------

**GUIDELINE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF MEDICINAL PRODUCTS FOR THE
TREATMENT OF NICOTINE DEPENDENCE**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY 3

1. INTRODUCTION (BACKGROUND) 3

2. SCOPE..... 3

3. LEGAL BASIS 4

4. MAIN GUIDELINE TEXT 4

DEFINITIONS 5

REFERENCES (SCIENTIFIC AND / OR LEGAL) 8

1 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

2 The aim of the present guideline is to provide guidance in the development of clinical studies for the
3 treatment of nicotine dependence. Different treatment modalities, such as nicotine replacement therapy
4 (NRT), atypical antidepressants (bupropion) and a partial alpha 4-beta 2 nicotinic acetylcholine
5 receptor agonist (varenicline) are available; others are within the scope of development,
6 i.e. cannabinoid receptor 1 antagonists and immune therapy using nicotine-conjugate antigens¹.
7 Because of their different mode of action, and, subsequently, different approaches in the treatment of
8 nicotine dependence, clinical trials may need to be adjusted in specific situations. The present
9 document should be conceived as general guidance, and should be read in conjunction with other EU
10 and ICH guidelines that apply to the subject, and the target population to be treated (refer to
11 Section 3).

12 1. INTRODUCTION (background)

13 According to the definitions of the World Health Organisation, ICD-10, and DSM-IV-TR, dependence
14 to substances is characterised by a cluster of physiological, behavioural and cognitive phenomena, in
15 which the use of a substance takes on a much higher priority for an individual than other behaviours
16 that once had greater value. Criteria for diagnosis of dependence are, among others, a strong desire or
17 compulsion to take the substance despite knowledge or evidence of its harmful consequences,
18 difficulty in controlling the level of its use, physiological withdrawal symptoms and development of
19 tolerance.

20 Nicotine has affinity for the nicotinic cholinergic receptors, which are widely spread throughout the
21 brain, the autonomic ganglia, and the neuromuscular junction. The natural ligand for the receptor is
22 acetylcholine. Nicotine may exert both stimulating and inhibiting effects upon different organ systems.
23 Nicotine use induces arterial constriction and affects the cardiovascular tone; nicotine induces nausea
24 in naïve subjects and may induce metabolic changes (hyperglycaemia). Its addictive properties arise
25 from its pre-synaptic actions influencing neurotransmitter release in the brain (dopamine release in the
26 nucleus accumbens reward system). Nicotine withdrawal is characterized by irritability, anxiety,
27 dysphoria, difficulty concentrating, restlessness, decreased heart rate and increased appetite. Both
28 craving and the severity of withdrawal symptoms, as well as the overall presence of smoking related
29 cues are the strongest phenomena to retain dependency.

30 1.1 Epidemiology

31 Smoking is a well known risk factor for the development of cardiovascular diseases, chronic
32 obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) and many forms of cancer, and therefore represents a major
33 public health concern. Toxicity is not only related to nicotine itself, but also to the presence of carbon
34 oxide and carcinogenic polyaromatics in smoke. Nicotine passes the placenta and is also excreted in
35 mother milk. In pregnant women, smoking may lead to degenerative changes of the placenta and low
36 birth weight in the offspring. Maternal smoking is also associated with congenital malformations like
37 facial-oral clefts.

38 The prevalence of smoking in adults is currently estimated to be between 22-47% worldwide. Most
39 smokers start in early adolescence. Point prevalence rate of smoking in adolescents vary between
40 5.5 and 24.7% across Europe. It has been estimated that 10-27% of the pregnant women in the EU
41 continue to smoke during pregnancy. Nicotine dependence is more common in groups with lower
42 social-economic status.

43 It has been estimated that if 50% of the current smokers would give up smoking, 20-30 million
44 premature deaths would be avoided in the first quarter of this century (Lancaster et al., 2000).
45 Smoking cessation by current smokers is therefore the best option by which tobacco related
46 mortality/morbidity can be reduced in the medium term.

¹ nicotine-conjugate antigens are also called nicotine vaccines in the literature.

47 **1.2 Established treatment**

48 In developed countries, smoking cessation is strongly promoted by health care professionals and the
49 government. In addition to counselling programs, there are several options for pharmacotherapeutic
50 intervention: nicotine replacement therapy (NRT) and bupropion (Zyban). NRT, in many countries, is
51 an OTC (over the counter) product, and is available in many forms, e.g. patches, lozenge, nasal spray
52 and chewing gum. Bupropion is available as oral tablet formulation. Bupropion was originally
53 developed as an antidepressant, and is a noradrenalin, dopamine, serotonin re-uptake inhibitor and a
54 non-competitive nicotine receptor antagonist. Its mechanism of action in the treatment of nicotine
55 dependence is not well understood.

56 The efficacy of both NRT and bupropion is rather similar, and in many trials it is proven that these
57 products are superior to placebo. Varenicline appears to be a relatively more effective drug in smoking
58 cessation thus far.

59 Individual preference and tolerability determines whether one or the other product will be used, albeit
60 those contraindications may prevail treatment in special groups, e.g. NRT in cardiovascular patients
61 and bupropion in patients with epilepsy.

62 Despite these treatment options, many people remain having difficulty with becoming abstinent and
63 especially maintaining abstinence over time. Craving and withdrawal symptoms are strong and
64 persistent, whereas the risk of weight gain as a consequence of smoking cessation may be unattractive.
65 Therefore, despite current treatment options, many attempts to quit smoking fail. Relapse may occur
66 even after a long-term period of cessation of several years. Moreover, there are limited treatment
67 options for some specific patients groups such as cardiovascular patients and patients once diagnosed
68 with epilepsy or psychoses.

69 Consequently, despite the proven efficacy of the current treatment options, the development of
70 alternative pharmacological therapies is encouraged.

71 **2. SCOPE**

72 The scope of the present document is to provide guidance in the definition of treatment goals, study
73 design, outcome measures, and data analysis for new products that will be developed to treat nicotine
74 dependence. The leading principle for the present guideline is that pharmacotherapy is an aid to
75 become abstinent and remaining abstinent without drug treatment. This has been the basic principle in
76 the development of products so far. Future developments, however (e.g. nicotine-conjugate antigens),
77 might lead to a concept of intermittent or chronic treatment to optimize sustained abstinence
78 throughout life. At present there is not enough data or literature to prospectively recommend on the
79 best trial design.

80 Smoking reduction is not considered an indication target. The benefit of smoking reduction on health
81 outcome is debatable. Primary prevention of smoking, e.g. by immunisation with nicotine-conjugate
82 antigens, is not considered a target indication in near future, as a target population for primary
83 prevention cannot be defined.

84 Potential Reduced Exposure Products like cigarettes with low polycyclic aromates and nitrosamine,
85 are beyond the scope of this guidance document, as these products are not therapeutic drugs.

86 **3. LEGAL BASIS**

87 This document should be read in conjunction with Directive 2001/83/EC (as amended) and all relevant
88 CHMP Guidelines, among them:

- 89 ● Dose-Response information to Support Drug Registration – CPMP/ICH/378/95 (ICH E4)
- 90 ● Statistical Principles for Clinical Trials – CPMP/ICH/363/96 (ICH E9)
- 91 ● Choice of Control Group in Clinical Trials – CPMP/ICH/364/96 (ICH E10)
- 92 ● Adjustment for Baseline covariate CHMP/EWP/2863/99
- 93 ● Missing data – CPMP/EWP/177/99
- 94 ● Extent of Population Exposure to Assess Clinical Safety – CPMP/ICH/375/95 (ICH E1A)

- 95 ● Studies in support of special populations: geriatrics – CPMP/ICH/379/99 (ICH E7)
- 96 ● Clinical investigation of medicinal products in the paediatric population – CPMP/ICH/2711/99
- 97 ICH 11)
- 98 ● Pharmacokinetic studies in man (EudraLex vol. 3C C3A)
- 99 ● Note for Guidance on the Clinical Evaluation of Vaccines CHMP/VWP/164653/2005
- 100 ● Guideline on the exposure to medicinal products during pregnancy: need for post-authorisation
- 101 data EMEA/CHMP/313666/2005
- 102 ● Note for guidance on the investigation of drug interactions EMEA/CPMP/EWP/560/95

103 **4. MAIN GUIDELINE TEXT**

104 **4.1 Subject characteristics and selection of subjects**

105 Subjects with the intention to quit smoking should fulfil the criteria for nicotine dependence as defined
 106 in the DSM IV (TR) or ICD-10. The number of previous quit attempts and former pharmacotherapy
 107 for smoking cessation should be documented. If in the study a mixed population is included (e.g. naïve
 108 and treatment resistant patients) the study should be stratified for these groups. Likewise subjects may
 109 be stratified according to their level of nicotine dependence, but in principle inclusion should be as
 110 broad as possible.

111 The level of dependence can be measured with the Fagerström Test for Nicotine Dependence (FTND),
 112 which is a valid instrument to be used for this purpose.

113 **4.1.1 Baseline characteristics**

114 The following descriptive features at least should be documented:

- 115 - demographic features (age, gender, ethnicity, social-economic class)
- 116 - age of onset of smoking
- 117 - the number of cigarettes smoked/day
- 118 - history of previous quit attempts and their treatment
- 119 - the level of dependence measured by the FTND
- 120 - the amount of craving/urge to smoke
- 121 - body weight
- 122 - general health score
- 123 - Co-morbidity including psychiatric disorders

124 **4.2 Methods to assess efficacy**

125 **4.2.1 Definition of the primary endpoints**

126 In smoking cessation studies so far, different definitions have been used to express abstinence
 127 (e.g. continuous abstinence, total abstinence, point prevalence abstinence, sustained abstinence,
 128 prolonged abstinence etc). Whatever the term used, its definition should reflect total abstinence for a
 129 long enough period of time under treatment.

130 According to the WHO, an ex-smoker is considered a subject who has been abstinent for a period of at
 131 least 1 year. Relapse rates are highest during the first year of abstinence. Therefore the primary
 132 endpoint should be the persistent abstinence rate off drug until 1 year after the end of the initial
 133 treatment period. A smoker's diary is considered an adequate tool to measure smoking status.
 134 However, smoking status should also be verified by biomarkers i.e. carbon oxide or cotinine.

135 **4.2.2 Definition of secondary endpoints**

- 136 - Abstinence rate at the end-of-treatment period
- 137 - Abstinence rate 6 months after end-of-treatment

- 138 - Craving/urge to smoke assessment
- 139 - Withdrawal symptoms
- 140 - Weight change
- 141 - Health outcome

142 Nicotine withdrawal symptoms (irritability, depression, restlessness, sleep disorder, vivid dreams,
143 difficulty concentrating, and increased appetite) can be measured by validated scales like the
144 Wisconsin Withdrawal Scale, the Minnesota Withdrawal Form or the Cigarette Withdrawal Scale.

145 Craving may be measured by validated by QSU-Brief (Brief Questionnaire of Smoking Urges) or as
146 an item from the withdrawal scales mentioned before. Craving feelings usually persist even years after
147 cessation, especially after certain smoking related cues, and could lead to relapse even after long-term
148 cessation. For a specific claim regarding craving, both short-term and long-term data (e.g. 1 year after
149 treatment) are needed.

150 Measuring withdrawal symptoms and craving is not only of interest during active treatment, but also
151 in the period immediate after the subjects became off-drug. This should be taken into account in the
152 study design.

153 **4.3 Strategy and design of clinical trials**

154 **4.3.1 Pharmacodynamics**

155 Craving studies may establish the proof of concept. Pharmacodynamic models for evaluating
156 withdrawal of nicotine are needed. In addition, studies evaluating psychometric functions may be
157 needed for central acting drugs, depending on the mechanism of action and duration of treatment
158 (e.g. mood-scales). Weight gain after smoking cessation and consecutive metabolic effects may be
159 evaluated.

160 For nicotine-conjugate antigens, immunogenicity and specificity of the formed antibodies should be
161 investigated in humans. Cross-immunity against endogenous acetylcholine and possible clinical
162 consequences should be tested. These studies should be performed taking the Note for Guidance on
163 the Clinical Evaluation of Vaccines CHMP/VWP/164653/2005 into account.

164 Pharmacokinetic interactions with drugs expected to be frequently used in this population of smokers
165 (e.g. cardiovascular products) should be investigated, unless there is clear evidence that a
166 pharmacokinetic interaction is unlikely to occur.

167 PK/PD studies should be performed in accordance to guidance on Pharmacokinetic Studies in Man.

168 **4.3.2 Dose response studies**

169 Dose-ranging studies should be preferably performed in a controlled, parallel fixed-dose design, using
170 at least three dosages, to establish the optimal dose. Plasma levels may be informative.

171 **4.3.3 Therapeutic studies**

172 **a. Exploratory trials**

173 To assess the effect and the safety of a medicinal product in nicotine dependence, parallel group,
174 double blind randomised placebo-controlled trials are recommended. Since medicinal products are
175 available for this indication, it could be considered to use a comparator-controlled parallel group
176 design. The choice and dose of the comparator should be justified on the basis of placebo-controlled
177 evidence of efficacy of the comparator.

178 A range of treatment durations should be evaluated also taking into account the posology of the
179 comparator (typically 8-12 weeks). At the start of treatment a Target Quit Date (TQD) is defined.
180 Usually a TQD is set within two weeks after initiating treatment. Evaluation of the treatment effect
181 can only take place after a patient is stabilised (e.g. titration is completed, acute withdrawal and
182 craving has subdued, steady state is reached, etc). This period of stabilisation is called the grace
183 period. In the grace period, no complete abstinence is expected, and this period need not be
184 incorporated in the evaluation of efficacy.

185 For studies with nicotine-conjugate antigens, the number of booster applications and immunisation
186 schedule should be justified. Moreover, the relationship between antibody-titre levels and clinical
187 efficacy, the need for monitoring of the antibody titre and the need for booster immunisation should be
188 explored.

189 **b. Confirmatory trials**

190 The confirmatory studies should be randomised placebo and active controlled trials. The comparator
191 should be justified. For new non-oral products double dummies could be applied. Follow-up, up to
192 1 year off drug, is obligatory for obtaining the primary outcome (see Section 4.2.1 for definition of
193 primary outcome). Regular visits should be scheduled to verify smoking status throughout this period,
194 at least at the end of the grace period, at the end of treatment, and 6 months and 12 months after end of
195 therapy. Any form of therapeutic counselling should be standardised in trials that aim at a primary
196 indication for smoking cessation.

197 For nicotine-conjugate antigens, the off-treatment phase may be difficult to define, as some level of
198 immunity may persist long-term after administration of the last application. Therefore, a follow up to
199 1 year after the last immunisation may be acceptable.

200 **c. Duration of Treatment**

201 Claims that prolongation of the treatment would be beneficial in either responders or failures should
202 be based on randomised parallel studies, where treatment continuation after the regular prescription
203 period is compared to placebo. For evaluation of an additional benefit of maintenance treatment, the
204 follow-up of 1 year off drug is, again, obligatory.

205 In the case of nicotine-conjugate antigens, the efficacy of various short-term and long-term schedules
206 of booster injections may be compared.

207 **d. Methodological considerations**

208 For references to the methodological EMEA guidance documents, see Section 3.

209 It is important to demonstrate that the effect of the agent is specific in the treatment of nicotine
210 dependence and not due to secondary therapeutic effects, e.g. (therapeutic) counselling. Either any
211 kind of external non-medical support or counselling should be prospectively defined in the protocol
212 and should remain constant during the study or formal psychotherapy with proven efficacy on
213 smoking cessation should be excluded.

214 **4.4 Studies in special populations**

215 *Children*

216 Studies in children are not deemed necessary, since smoking is not a major public health problem of
217 this age group. In case of the development of prevention strategies with pharmaceutical products
218 (e.g. nicotine-conjugate antigens), this age group may come into focus.

219 *Adolescents*

220 Cravings and withdrawal symptoms occurs rapidly after the first experience with nicotine. Hence
221 nicotine dependence in adolescents also develops rapidly, even before daily use. In general,
222 adolescents may be less motivated to stop smoking, which may affect efficacy outcomes. No specific
223 efficacy studies in adolescents are considered necessary as the pathophysiology of nicotine
224 dependence is not considered different from that of adults. However, the generation of
225 pharmacokinetic and safety data is relevant if adolescents are included in the labelling.

226 *Elderly*

227 Even after long-term smoking for decades, there is always benefit of smoking cessation.
228 Pharmacokinetic data may be relevant as guidance for dose adjustments for this special age group. For
229 safety assessments a sufficient number of elderly subjects should be included in the trials (see also
230 Section 4.5.1 of this guidance document).

231 *Psychiatric co-morbidity*

232 The prevalence of smoking is high in patients with psychiatric disorders like (major) depression and
233 schizophrenia. Psychiatric patients may have more problems to abstain from smoking than other

234 smokers. Specific efficacy studies in psychiatric patients are not needed. Potential pharmacokinetic
235 interactions with antipsychotics and antidepressants should be evaluated, unless there are strong
236 indications from *in-vitro* interaction studies that such interactions are unlikely to occur. Potential
237 pharmacodynamic interactions should be evaluated if there are signs that such interactions may occur
238 based on the safety and pharmacodynamic profile of the drug under investigation (e.g. somnolence,
239 psychoses).

240 **4.5 Clinical safety evaluation**

241 **4.5.1 General considerations**

242 For references to the relevant safety guidance, see Section 3. Most subjects included in the clinical
243 trials for smoking cessation will be relatively healthy. The safety profile of a Test product should also
244 be known for cardiovascular and pulmonary compromised smokers, as these patients form a potential
245 users group.

246 **4.5.2 Specific adverse events**

247 Pharmacodynamic interaction studies with nicotine are obligatory, since some subject will still
248 continue to smoke during treatment with a new compound. Pharmacokinetic interaction studies with
249 nicotine are only indicated if CYP1A2 enzyme is involved in metabolism of the drug.
250 Pharmacodynamic interactions with other CNS medicinal products than mentioned in Section 4.4
251 before or central active substances (e.g. alcohol) should be investigated if these are expected.

252 **Nicotine-conjugate antigens**

253 For nicotine-conjugate antigens, compensatory smoking is a specific safety issue, and should be
254 evaluated. In addition, local reactivity and systemic reactions should be investigated. The risk of
255 placenta-transfer of the antigens or antibodies in humans should be clear.

256 **Rebound and withdrawal and addiction potential**

257 Subjects should be monitored for rebound and withdrawal phenomena during treatment, especially in
258 the grace period, and at discontinuation of the drug. These phenomena should be regularly monitored
259 for a substantial amount of time after discontinuation of the drug. Efforts should be made to
260 distinguish withdrawal and rebound phenomena of the drug from nicotine-withdrawal. Nicotine
261 withdrawal symptoms should be separated from craving symptoms and measured with different
262 (validated) tools (see Section 4.2.2). Compensatory smoking should be assessed for safety reasons.
263 Testing of reinforcing/addiction potential of the drug may be relevant for nicotine agonists or other
264 psychoactive drugs.

265 **DEFINITIONS**

266 Not applicable.

267 **REFERENCES**

- 268 Anthonisen et al., The effects of a smoking cessation intervention on 14.5-year mortality: a
269 randomized clinical trial. *Ann Intern Med.* 2005 Feb 15;142(4):233-9.
- 270 Cnattingius S. The epidemiology of smoking during pregnancy: smoking prevalence, maternal
271 characteristics, and pregnancy outcomes. *Nicotine Tob. Res.* 2004 Apr;6 Suppl 2:S125-40.
- 272 DSM-IV-TR; Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders DSM-IV-TR, by the American
273 Psychiatric Association, May 2000
- 274 Fagerstrom K. The epidemiology of smoking: health consequences and benefits of cessation. *Drugs.*
275 2002;62 Suppl 2:1-9.
- 276 Gervais et al., Milestones in the natural course of onset of cigarette use among adolescents. *CMAJ.*
277 2006 Aug 1;175(3):255-61.
- 278 Henningfield JE, et al., Pharmacotherapy for nicotine dependence. *CA Cancer J Clin.* 2005 Sep-
279 Oct;55(5):281-99

280 Hublet et al., Smoking trends among adolescents from 1990 to 2002 in ten European countries and
281 Canada. BMC Public Health. 2006 Nov 10;6:280.

282 Hughes JR, Hatsukami D. Signs and symptoms of tobacco withdrawal.
283 Arch Gen Psychiatry. 1986 Mar;43(3):289-94.
284

285 Lancaster et al., Effectiveness of interventions to help people stop smoking: findings from the
286 Cochrane Library. BMJ. 2000 Aug 5;321(7257):355-8.

287 Ranney et al., Systematic review: smoking cessation intervention strategies for adults and adults in
288 special populations. Ann Intern Med. 2006 Dec 5;145(11):845-56.

289 Teo et al., Tobacco use and risk of myocardial infarction in 52 countries in the INTERHEART study:
290 a case-control study. Lancet. 2006 Aug 19; 368 (9536): 647-58.

291 WHO; World Health Organization Classification of Diseases ICD 10, 2007; Chapter Mental and
292 behavioural disorders due to psychoactive substance use (F10-F19).
293 <http://www.who.int/classifications/apps/icd/icd10online/>