
Guidance for Industry

Safety Considerations for Product Design to Minimize Medication Errors

DRAFT GUIDANCE

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**U.S. Department of Health and Human Services
Food and Drug Administration
Center for Drug Evaluation and Research (CDER)**

**December 2012
Drug Safety**

Guidance for Industry

Safety Considerations for Product Design to Minimize Medication Errors

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Guidance for Industry¹

Safety Consideration for Product Design to Minimize Medication Errors

This draft guidance, when finalized, will represent the Food and Drug Administration's (FDA's) current thinking on this topic. It does not create or confer any rights for or on any person and does not operate to bind FDA or the public. You can use an alternative approach if the approach satisfies the requirements of the applicable statutes and regulations. If you want to discuss an alternative approach, contact the FDA staff responsible for implementing this guidance. If you cannot identify the appropriate FDA staff, call the appropriate number listed on the title page of this guidance.

I. INTRODUCTION

This guidance provides sponsors of investigational new drug applications (INDs), new drug applications (NDAs), biologics licensing applications (BLAs), abbreviated new drug applications (ANDAs), and nonprescription drugs marketed without an approved application (e.g., under a monograph) with a set of principles for developing drug products using a systems approach to minimize medication errors relating to product design. Improvements in a drug product's design can enhance patient safety by reducing medication errors, adverse events, and patient harm resulting from such errors. The recommendations in this guidance document are intended to improve the drug product and container closure design at the earliest stages of product development for all prescription and nonprescription drug² products. Many medication errors can be avoided by drawing upon lessons learned from other drug product errors and by evaluating the drug product using proactive risk assessments before marketing to reduce risks associated with a drug product's overall design.

This guidance, which addresses safety aspects of drug product design, is the first in a series of three planned guidances to minimize risks contributing to medication errors. The second guidance will focus on minimizing risks with the design of drug product container labels, carton labeling, and packaging configurations, and the third guidance will focus on minimizing risks with drug product nomenclature.

FDA's guidance documents, including this guidance, do not establish legally enforceable responsibilities. Instead, guidance documents describe the FDA's current thinking on a topic and should be viewed only as recommendations, unless specific regulatory or statutory requirements

¹ This guidance has been prepared by the Division of Medication Error Prevention and Analysis in the Center for Drug Evaluation and Research at the Food and Drug Administration (CDER).

² In this document the term *drug* refers to both drugs and therapeutic biologic products regulated by CDER.

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40 are cited. The use of the word *should* in FDA’s guidances means that something is suggested or
41 recommended, but not required.

42

43 **II. BACKGROUND**

44

45 On September 27, 2007, the reauthorization and expansion of the Prescription Drug User Fee Act
46 (PDUFA IV) was signed into law as part of the Food and Drug Administration Amendments Act
47 of 2007 (FDAAA) (Public Law 110-85). The reauthorization of PDUFA significantly broadens
48 and strengthens the Food and Drug Administration’s (FDA) drug safety program, facilitating
49 more efficient development of safe and effective new medications for the American public. As
50 part of the reauthorization of PDUFA, FDA committed to certain performance goals.³ One of the
51 goals was to implement various measures to reduce medication errors related to look-alike and
52 sound-alike proprietary names, unclear label abbreviations, acronyms, dose designations, and
53 error-prone labeling and packaging designs, including publishing guidance describing practices
54 for naming, labeling, and packaging to reduce medication errors, after public consultation. In
55 June 2010, FDA held a public workshop and opened a public docket to receive comments on this
56 topic.⁴

57

58 **A. Recommendations to Minimize Medication Errors**

59

60 In 2000, the Institute of Medicine (IOM) published a report entitled *To Err Is Human: Building a*
61 *Safer Health System*.⁵ The report stated that from 44,000 to 98,000 deaths occur yearly due to
62 medical errors, making medical errors the eighth leading cause of death in the United States.⁶
63 The report identified medication errors as the most common type of error in health care. Seven
64 thousand (7,000) deaths annually were attributed to medication errors.⁷ In the report, IOM
65 recommended that FDA:

66

- 67 • Develop and enforce standards for the design of drug packaging and labeling that will
68 maximize safety in use; and

³ See letters from the Secretary of Health and Human Services to the Chairman of the Committee on Health, Education, Labor, and Pensions of the Senate and the Chairman of the Committee on Energy and Commerce of the House of Representatives, as set forth in the Congressional Record (goals letter). At <http://www.fda.gov/ForIndustry/UserFees/PrescriptionDrugUserFee/ucm119243.htm>.

⁴ See April 12, 2010, Workshop Notice and Request for Comments (75 FR 18514), Docket No. FDA-2010-N-0168.

⁵ Kohn LT, Corrigan JM, Donaldson MS, eds. *To Err Is Human: Building a Safer Health System*. Institute of Medicine, National Academies Press: Washington DC, 2000.

⁶ American Hospital Association. Hospital Statistics. Chicago. 1999. See also: Brennan TA, Leape LL, Laird NM, et al. Incidence of Adverse Events and Negligence in Hospitalized Patients: Results of the Harvard Medical Practice Study I. *N Engl J Med*. 324:370-376, 1991; Leape LL, Brennan TA, Laird NM, et al. The Nature of Adverse Events in Hospitalized Patients: Results of the Harvard Medical Practice Study II. *N Engl J Med*. 324(6):377-384, 1991; Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (National Center for Health Statistics). Births and Deaths: Preliminary Data for 1998. *National Vital Statistics Reports*. 47(25):6, 1999, cited in *To Err Is Human*, p. 1.

⁷ Phillips, DP, Christenfeld, N, and Glynn, LM. Increase in US Medication-Error Deaths between 1983 and 1993. *The Lancet*. 351:643-644, 1998, cited in *To Err Is Human*, p. 2.

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- 69 • Require pharmaceutical companies to test proposed drug names to identify and
70 remedy potential sound-alike and look-alike confusion with existing drug names.⁸
71

72 In addition to the IOM recommendations, the Secretary of Health and Human Services published
73 a report entitled *Bringing Common Sense to Health Care Regulation: Report of the Secretary’s*
74 *Advisory Committee on Regulatory Reform* (November 2002). This report recommended that
75 FDA adopt safe labeling practices for all FDA-regulated products to improve patient safety and
76 decrease preventable adverse drug events.
77

78 In July 2006, the IOM published a report entitled *Preventing Medication Errors*. In this report,
79 the IOM cited labeling and packaging issues as the cause of 33 percent of medication errors,
80 including 30 percent of fatalities from medication errors.⁹
81

82 The July 2006 IOM report stated that “Product naming, labeling, and packaging should be
83 designed for the end user — the provider in the clinical environment and/or the consumer.¹⁰ The
84 report also urged the Agency to incorporate better principles of cognitive and human factors
85 engineering to address issues concerning information presentation in labeling and
86 nomenclature.¹¹
87

B. Safety by Design: A Systems Approach to Medication Error Prevention

89 Drug product design features that predispose end users to errors may not always be overcome by
90 product labeling and health care provider or patient¹² education; it is therefore preferable to
91 eliminate these risk factors from the drug product design to reduce the risk of medication errors.
92 It is not possible to predict all medication errors; however, errors can be minimized by assessing,
93 prior to marketing, how users interact with the drug product within the medication use system or
94 environment of use. This can be accomplished by employing proactive risk assessments using
95 well-established human factors engineering analytical methods.
96
97

98 Error prevention in manufacturing is not a new concept. Corrective and Preventive Action
99 (CAPA), Change Control, and Quality Risk Management are well-recognized current good
100 manufacturing practice (CGMP) regulatory concepts that focus on investigating, understanding,
101 and correcting identified risks, and managing the changes necessary for correction to prevent
102 their recurrence while preventing unintended consequences.¹³ The Center for Devices and

⁸ This effort is also consistent with FDA’s May 10, 1999, report to the FDA Commissioner titled *Managing the Risks From Medical Product Use*, which underscored the importance of providing an adequate risk assessment associated with the use of drug products, including a mandate to reduce medication errors from proprietary name confusion.

⁹ Aspden P, Wolcott JA, Bootman JL, Cronenwett LR, eds. *Preventing Medication Errors*. Institute of Medicine, The National Academies Press: Washington DC. 2006. Chapter 6: p. 275.

¹⁰ IOM, *Preventing Medication Errors*. Chapter 6, Recommendation 4, p. 280.

¹¹ IOM, *Preventing Medication Errors*. Chapter 6, Actions to Improve Drug Naming, Labeling, and Packaging, p. 281-282.

¹² For this document, *patient* refers to the patient and consumer to address end users of prescription and over-the-counter (OTC) drugs.

¹³ Guidance for industry on *Quality Systems Approach to Pharmaceutical CGMP Regulations*, September 2006. We update guidances periodically. To make sure you have the most recent version of a guidance, check the FDA Drugs

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103 Radiological Health (CDRH) and medical device manufacturers routinely apply the principles of
104 human factors when evaluating device design to minimize use related errors.¹⁴ The Center for
105 Food Safety and Applied Nutrition (CFSAN) uses Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Points
106 (HACCP) to address food safety through analysis and control of biological, chemical, and
107 physical raw material production, procurement, handling, manufacturing, distribution, and
108 consumption of the finished product.¹⁵ The same principles can be applied proactively to the
109 overall design of a drug product to identify and remedy risks that contribute to medication errors.

110
111 FDA expects manufactures to develop drug products by applying these analytical methods to
112 build safety into the drug product design during early development and throughout a drug
113 product's life cycle.

114 115 **III. WHAT TO CONSIDER AT EARLY STAGE OF DRUG PRODUCT DESIGN TO** 116 **MINIMIZE ERRORS**

117
118 For a drug, the product design or user interface includes the active ingredient, strength, dosage
119 form, product appearance, size, shape, palatability, storage and handling, indication, type of
120 container/closure used to package the product, the label affixed to the container/closure,
121 secondary packaging such as outer carton or overwraps into which the container/closure is
122 placed, and the labeling information describing the dose, preparation, and administration that
123 accompanies the drug product. How a user finds and interprets the information necessary to use
124 the product is critical to the safe use of the drug product. Because labeling, packaging, and
125 nomenclature have been identified as key system elements that have great influence on
126 medication use, any weaknesses or failure in the design of these elements can cause medication
127 errors that lead to patient harm.^{16,17} Therefore, the goal is to design a drug product that enables
128 safe and correct use and minimizes the chance for health care practitioners, patients, and
129 caregivers to make mistakes.

130
131 To identify and understand how a medication error might occur, it is necessary to have a
132 complete and accurate understanding of how the drug product will be used, the environments of
133 use, and how the end users will interact with the drug product design (e.g., the container closure,
134 container label, and accompanying labeling) to identify and make decisions about the use of the

guidance Web page at

<http://www.fda.gov/Drugs/GuidanceComplianceRegulatoryInformation/Guidances/default.htm>

¹⁴ See FDA guidances: *Do it by Design, An Introduction to Human Factors in Medical Devices*, December 1996; guidance for industry and FDA *Premarket and Design Control Reviewers: Medical Device Use-Safety: Incorporating Human Factors Engineering into Risk Management*, July 18, 2000; and draft guidance for industry and Food and Drug Administration staff - *Applying Human Factors and Usability Engineering to Optimize Medical Device Design*, June 22, 2011; available on FDA Medical Devices guidance Web page at <http://www.fda.gov/MedicalDevices/DeviceRegulationandGuidance/GuidanceDocuments/default.htm> (when final, this guidance will represent FDA's current thinking on this topic).

¹⁵ <http://www.fda.gov/Food/FoodSafety/HazardAnalysisCriticalControlPointsHACCP/default.htm>

¹⁶ *Medication Errors*, 2nd Edition; (Michael R. Cohen, Ed.), American Pharmacists Association; Chapter 4- Causes of Medication Errors; System elements implicated in Errors, page 56.

¹⁷ Institute of Medicine, *To Err is Human – Building a Safer Health System* (1999) and *Preventing Medication Errors* (2006).

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135 product. Additionally, it is necessary to consider any regulatory or professional standards that
136 may apply to the preparation and administration of the type of drug product. To ensure that the
137 proposed product is safely used, the intended users and use environments should be considered at
138 the start of product development, before the design is finalized, so that modifications to the
139 product can be made in the interest of avoiding errors.

140 **A. End Users and Environments of Use**

141 In U.S. health care, there are many process steps involved in the procurement, preparation,
142 dispensing, and administration of a drug product. A drug product can have multiple end users
143 with different levels of education and training across multiple environments of care.

144 For a drug product, the end users include, but are not limited to, the patient, patient’s caregiver,
145 the prescribing physician, nurse, pharmacist, pharmacy technician, and other individuals who are
146 involved in routine procurement, stocking, storage, and administration of medications (e.g.,
147 medication technicians). Sponsors should evaluate and understand essential characteristics of all
148 intended user groups for the purpose of evaluation and design activities using proactive risk
149 assessments. All individuals in the intended user population should be able to use the drug
150 product without making unintentional errors or without being exposed to unnecessary safety
151 risks. Considering the end users and environments of use during drug development can allow
152 identification of risks that could lead to error within the environment of use. Because the
153 environment of use is unlikely to adapt to accommodate a particular product, the drug product-
154 user interface or design should fit the end users’ needs within that fixed environment of use,
155 rather than considering that the end users or the environment of use will change to fit the use of
156 the drug product.

157 Furthermore, there may be multiple environments of use depending on the medication and
158 indication. Common environments of use for drug products include hospitals, long-term care
159 facilities, physician offices, dialysis centers, other free-standing outpatient care centers, retail
160 pharmacies, retail outlets for OTC drugs, specialty pharmacies, emergency transport, and the
161 patient’s home. There are also a variety of subenvironments of use within each one of these
162 larger environments of care. For example, a hospital environment of use can include the
163 pharmacy, operating room, emergency department, patient unit, critical care facilities, and
164 outpatient clinic.

165 In addition to the numerous types of environments of use for a drug product, there are many
166 environmental factors that influence the medication use within each of these settings, such as
167 equipment, tools, computer software, lighting, distractions, workplace interruptions, background
168 noises, and institutional policies, common professional standards and procedures. These factors
169 should also be considered with respect to how they may influence the end user’s behavior and
170 use of the drug product.

171
172 When designing a product, sponsors should consider the following factors with respect to the
173 intended user population and environments of use. This analysis informs drug product design

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174 and enables sponsors to make choices that can avoid elements that may predispose the product to
175 use error.

176

177 *1. End Users*

178

179 The following questions should be considered with respect to the end users:

180

181 • Who are the end users? Are there multiple user groups that might use the product
182 differently?

183

184 • How diverse are the end users in terms of age (e.g., children, adults, elders),
185 education, experience, and training?

186

187 • What is the complexity of the proposed product? Does it take multiple steps to
188 deliver the product? Is extensive manipulation by the end users required? Is user
189 training expected or required?

190

191 • What critical tasks must the user perform?

192

193 • What characteristics might the end users have that could affect their ability to use the
194 drug correctly (e.g., physical strength, stamina, dexterity, flexibility, coordination,
195 vision, hearing, memory, disease state, mental clarity, ability to swallow, tolerance of
196 medications that are unpalatable or difficult to swallow or ingest)?

197

198 • How knowledgeable is the typical end user (e.g., physician, nurse, technician,
199 caregiver, and patient)? What is the end user's understanding of the product or
200 similar products?

201

202 • Does the end user require a specific skill set to use the product and administer the
203 product safely? Is this skill set similar or dissimilar for closely related products?

204

205 • Is knowledge gained from previous use of the same or closely related products, or
206 non-similar products packaged in similar container closures, likely to influence users'
207 understanding or expectations of the product under development?

208

209 *2. Environments of Use*

210

211 The following questions should be considered with respect to the environments of use:

212

213 • In what environments might the product be used? What are the lighting levels, noise
214 levels, distractions, physical environment, and available technology? What else might
215 the end users be attending to while using the product? How likely are the end users to
216 be distracted when using the product?

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- How are drugs stored and obtained within this environment? Are there other areas where the product might be used or stored that are not typical?
 - Are there similar products used within this environment? If so, is their use similar to use of the product being proposed? Have there been medication errors associated with the use of similar products in this environment?
 - Is the product a variant of something already used in this environment (i.e., extended-release dosage form of immediate release product)? Do the products have characteristics that might make the variation between these products difficult to distinguish, allowing possible errors to go undetected?
 - Is this product atypical for use within this environment? What impact will the introduction of this new product have within this environment?
 - Are there established standard practice guidelines for the dispensing and administration of the product or similar products?

B. Drug Product-User Interface

236

237

238 The most effective strategies to address use-related errors focus on improvements to the design

239 of the drug product user interface. A well-designed user interface facilitates correct actions and

240 prevents or discourages actions that could result in error.¹⁸

241

242 It is critical to evaluate what effect each design choice and modification will have on the end

243 user. At the early stages of a drug product's development, the primary focus is generally on

244 clinical safety and efficacy of the drug. It is at this time that the indication, patient population,

245 dosing, finished dosage form, and strength are usually established. Many decisions regarding the

246 design of a drug product are driven by clinical studies and manufacturing constraints to ensure

247 the drug product is safe, effective, and meets CGMP quality standards. However, certain product

248 modifications based on manufacturing constraints or clinical issues may inadvertently create the

249 opportunity for use error when the finished dosage form of the drug product is finalized.

250 Additionally, influences independent of clinical and manufacturing constraints such as marketing

251 also drive the product design. Relying solely on controlled clinical trials to evaluate product

252 performance and user interactions is often an inadequate means of assessing a product's

253 performance from a user's perspective because the controlled environment in place during

254 clinical trials does not reflect use in the "real world."

255

256 Therefore, it is crucial to evaluate the product design using proactive risk assessments before

257 finalizing the design. Testing the design using proactive risk assessments before finalizing the

¹⁸ FDA draft guidance, *Applying Human Factors and Usability Engineering to Optimize Medical Device Design*, June 22, 2011. When final, this guidance will represent FDA's current thinking on this topic.

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258 design helps identify risks that can contribute to medication error and provides qualitative
259 information that is informative for improved design iterations.

260
261 Evaluation of why and how problems have occurred with similar products can be helpful and
262 should be conducted before finalizing the physical design features of a drug product. When
263 identified early, error prone features can be eliminated from the design so that the same type of
264 error does not occur with the product under development. Once a drug product reaches the final
265 stages of development it may be difficult to change product features such as shape, strength, and
266 dosing because such changes may require the collection of additional clinical or CMC data to
267 support even minor modifications.

268
269 The following sections provide examples of known problems and errors due to poor design of
270 the drug product and container closure systems. These errors could have been avoided if product
271 modifications had been evaluated using proactive risk assessments before finalizing the design.
272 Sponsors should consider the lessons learned from these experiences to help minimize risks
273 associated with their designs.

274
275 1. *Commonly Reported Problems and Errors Relating to Product Design*

276
277 • Solid Oral Dosage Forms:

- 278
- 279 ➤ If multiple strengths are being developed, they should look different from
280 each other, especially to reduce the chances of use errors that can result in
281 harm if an overdose occurs due to administration of an incorrect strength.
282 Solid oral dosage forms that look similar to one another have led to the
283 dispensing and administration of the wrong strength of a drug product. This
284 error has been attributed to inadequate differentiation among dosage strengths
285 with respect to tablet/capsule color, size, and shape.
 - 286
 - 287 ➤ The imprint code may be critical to verifying the solid oral dosage form. It is
288 important to consider how similar the codes are imprinted across products and
289 within product lines and to ensure they are legible. Also consider using the
290 product name rather than a numeric code. Imprint codes that are absent,
291 difficult to see, and similar to imprint codes of another product have led to the
292 dispensing and administration of the wrong drug product and wrong strength.
 - 293
 - 294 ➤ Avoid development of products that resemble candy (e.g., lollipop).
 - 295
 - 296 ➤ Consider the size, coating and palatability of oral products. A drug product
297 can become a choking hazard due to the size of the tablet or capsule. If the
298 tablet or capsule coating is too sticky, it can become lodged in the patient's
299 throat or gastrointestinal tract. Tablets that have a larger cross sectional area
300 (e.g., tablets that are thicker, wider, or more spherical), would generally be
301 more difficult to swallow than tablets of the same volume but with smaller
302 cross sectional areas. Tablet coating, weight, surface area, disintegration time,

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- 303 palatability and propensity for swelling should also be considered when
304 designing oral products to avoid medication errors related to swallowability
305 and patient compliance.
306
- 307 ➤ Hardness or friability of tablets should be evaluated before marketing.
308 Excessive hardness of tablets has led to administration errors. FDA has
309 received reports of chewable tablets being too hard to chew and breaking teeth
310 and dentures, or tablets too friable to remove intact from a blister pack.
311
- 312 • Tablet Scoring
- 313
- 314 ➤ Ensure that the scoring of the tablet is consistent with the recommended
315 dosing. Scores that produce dosages that are incongruent with the dosage and
316 administration of a drug have led to dosing errors. For example, the dosing of
317 a drug may be in 10 mg increments, yet the score produces halves that yield
318 5 mg when 5 mg is not a recommended dosage.
319
- 320 ➤ The ability to break the tablet should be tested with the intended patient
321 population. Tablets that are physically difficult for the end user to split along
322 the score line, and splits that do not produce an even distribution of drug, have
323 led to dosing errors (for example, a 15 mg tablet that is scored, but yields 9
324 mg in one half and 6 mg in the other half (see FDA guidance entitled *Tablet*
325 *Scoring: Nomenclature, Labeling, and Data for Evaluation*)).¹⁹
326
- 327 ➤ Tablets that should not be split should not have a score. Tablets that should
328 not be split but contain a score or score-like markings (e.g., lines and other
329 symbols) have resulted in adverse events related to inappropriate absorption of
330 the drug because they were split. Examples of products whose performance
331 may be altered by splitting include extended- or delayed-release dosage forms,
332 abuse-deterrent formulations, and friable tablets.
333
- 334 • During development of an extended- or delayed-release product it is helpful to make
335 the strengths of the extended- or delayed-release product distinct from the immediate-
336 release products. Failures in prescribing, such as omission of modifiers or incorrect
337 use of suffixes, can lead to dispensing and administration of the immediate-release
338 product instead of the intended extended- or delayed-release product. This can occur
339 because all product characteristics overlap, or the strength is achievable from the
340 marketed immediate-release product strength.
341
- 342 • Transdermal Systems
343

¹⁹ FDA draft guidance for industry, *Tablet Scoring: Nomenclature, Labeling, and Data for Evaluation*, August 2011. When final, this guidance will represent FDA's current thinking on this topic.

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- 344 ➤ Sponsors should consider how a transdermal product will be handled by the
345 patient, healthcare professional, and/or caregiver. Transdermal systems
346 should be developed with a drug-free area or peel-away backing that would
347 provide protection against accidental exposure of the drug to the healthcare
348 provider or caregiver. Problems can also arise if the size of the system is too
349 large or too small and the user cannot manipulate the system properly during
350 application.
351
- 352 ➤ Transdermal systems that are difficult to locate and identify present safety
353 issues. Transdermal systems that are clear, translucent or are colored to match
354 human skin colors can make it difficult to find the patch on the patient, and
355 have also led to administration errors when patients or caregivers fail to
356 remove old systems and apply more than one system at a time. Clear or
357 translucent patches may also be difficult to find if they detach prematurely
358 from a patient; thereby increasing the potential for secondary or accidental
359 exposure of the drug to a healthcare provider, caregiver or child.
360
- 361 • Product Strength
362
363 Check for consistency between the drug product strength and dosing. Developing a
364 product strength or expressing the strength in a manner that is incongruent with the
365 dosage and administration of the product complicates the calculation of dosage and
366 has led to dosing errors. For example, the strength may be expressed on the label in
367 percentage, but the dosage and administration of the drug is described in milligrams.
368 Another example of this type of problem would include a product with a usual dosage
369 of 300 mg when the product is only available as a 100 mg vial. If 3 vials are needed
370 to make up the full dose rather than a single vial, the product may be prone to dosing
371 and administration errors. Multiple units (e.g., tablets, capsules, vials, syringes)
372 required to achieve a usual single dose have led to dosing errors because of users
373 making miscalculations or forgetting how many units have already been
374 administered.
375
 - 376 • Dosing devices should be appropriate to the dosages to be measured.²⁰ The principles
377 outlined in this guidance should also be applied to oral liquids specific for
378 prescription drug products. Additionally, avoid developing an oral solution that
379 cannot be measured with a standard dosing device. The dosing device should deliver
380 an oral solution in a volumetric unit of measure consistent with recommended dosing.
381 An example of a dosing error related to dosing device markings is an oral syringe that
382 is calibrated in mg rather than mL.
383
 - 384 • Intravenous Products
385

²⁰ FDA guidance to industry, *Dosage Delivery Devices for Orally Ingested OTC Liquid Drug Products*, May 2011, addresses issues concerning dosing devices for OTC liquid drug products.

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- To the extent possible, avoid developing intravenous products already in solution that require a two-step dilution prior to administration. Users might fail to dilute such products because they are already in solution, or they might dilute them incorrectly, leading to dosing and administration errors.
 - Dry powder products packaged with a special diluent are often separated from the diluent during product storage. This has resulted in preparation of the product with the wrong diluent or an incorrect amount of diluent. Additionally, when not separated, the diluent has been administered instead of the drug. When feasible, dry powder products requiring the use of special diluents should be packaged in a container closure system that allows for the drug and diluent to be physically linked or packaged in a ready-for-infusion solution.

2. *Commonly Reported Problems and Errors with Container Closure Design*

400

401

402 The container is defined as the immediate unit, bottle, vial, ampule, tube, or other receptacle

403 containing the product (see 21 CFR 600.3(bb)). The closure is the cap, stopper, or seal. For

404 drug-device combination products, the container closure is the physical device.

405

406 Factors influencing the choice of a container closure system for commercial distribution of the

407 finished product should go beyond stability or ease of manufacturing. The design should protect

408 against improper use.

409

410 The best container closure designs do not require extensive end-user training and should make

411 sense for the dose, route, and method of administration. Improper container closure system

412 designs have contributed to medication errors resulting in wrong routes of administration, wrong

413 doses, and incorrect use. Especially problematic container closure systems include those that are

414 (1) incongruent with the intended dosage and administration of the product, or are (2) atypical of

415 products previously marketed with the same type of closure. These types of container closure

416 systems should be redesigned because they cannot be remedied with additive label/labeling

417 statements or health care provider and patient education.

- 418
- Drug products should not be packaged in a container/closure system that implies or affords a route of administration other than the route intended; this has led to wrong routes of administration. Examples include:
 - Oral/topical drug products packaged in vial containers used for injectable drugs have led to inadvertent intravenous administration of the oral or topical product.
 - Oral inhalation products packaged in capsules have led to the capsule being swallowed whole rather than the contents of the capsule being delivered by the inhalation route.

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- 431 ➤ Topical products packaged in containers with closures that look similar to eye,
432 ear, nasal, or oral products have led to administration of the topical product in
433 the eye, ear, nose, and mouth.
- 434
- 435 • Ensure container closures do not look similar within a product line or across a
436 different product line. Distinguish container closures by size, shape, color, tactile
437 features, or some other means. Drug products packaged in container closures that
438 have a similar appearance has led to product selection errors in which the wrong drug
439 and wrong strength have been dispensed and administered. Examples that have
440 contributed to product selection errors resulting in dispensing the wrong drug or
441 wrong strength include but are not limited to:
- 442
- 443 ➤ Vials that have the same shape, size and same cap color.
- 444 ➤ Blister packaging using similar graphic designs for all strengths or for
445 products within a company’s entire product line.
- 446 ➤ Syringes that are the same fill volume but contain different drugs or different
447 strengths.
- 448 ➤ Bulk or unit-of-use bottles that are all the same size or similar in size but
449 contain different net quantities (e.g., 30, 60, 90 tablets).
- 450
- 451 • Products that require further dilution prior to administration should not be packaged
452 in containers that could afford direct administration. Packaging products in such
453 containers can lead to incorrect routes or methods of administration (e.g., a prefilled
454 syringe for such a product may lead to intravenous push rather than intravenous
455 infusion because a prefilled syringe is typically used for direct administration).
456 Additionally, dual-chambered bags or compartmentalized syringes have led to
457 administration of the contents of one compartment without proper mixing of the two
458 ingredients.
- 459
- 460 • Commercial containers should not provide an amount of drug that is incongruent with
461 recommended doses. This has led to overdose with products designed with excessive
462 fill volume, such as single dose injection vials.
- 463
- 464 • Sponsors should avoid transdermal systems that have a large reservoir of drug that is
465 not depleted prior to removal of the system. This has the potential to lead to overdose
466 from dose dumping and, when disposed of in the trash, can lead to accidental
467 ingestion by children and pets.²¹
- 468
- 469 • Drug-device combination products (such as inhalers and prefilled pens) that have an
470 unusual or unexpected device operation lack protection against incorrect use, have
471 confusing or complex controls, labeling, operation, or defeatable or ignorable safety
472 features have led to wrong-dose errors and errors in administration, and should be
473 avoided.

²¹ See FDA guidance for industry, *Residual Drug in Transdermal and Related Drug Delivery Systems*, August 2011.

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- If container closures serve as the container labels, they should not have illegible lettering or make information such as product name and strength difficult to read. Container closures that provide poor visual contrast between the container closure material and the color used to print the information, such as foil, clear labels on glass/plastic syringes, or information etched on the syringe itself, or materials that have no affixed label but deboss or emboss the information directly on the container closure, such as a low-density polyethylene (LDPE) vial, are difficult to read, and should be avoided. These have led to incorrect doses and wrong-drug errors.

484 **IV. PROACTIVE RISK ASSESSMENTS**

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Proactive risk assessments considering human and environmental factors in drug product design help manufacturers anticipate potential use errors, identify the need for implementing iterative design modifications, ensure that any design modification minimizes unintended consequences (i.e., does not introduce new hazards) and the recurrence of use errors.

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Ideally, proactive risk assessments that employ analytical approaches (e.g., exploratory or formative evaluations and simulated use testing) should occur early in the drug product design development process, before the product design is finalized, so that the results of the risk assessments can be used to modify the drug product design to minimize use-related risks prior to implementing phase 2 clinical trials or product marketing. Considering the end user's needs, environment of use, and contexts of use in the development and design of a drug product alongside commercialization aspects can reduce postapproval safety issues.

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Many tools exist to support proactive risk assessments that can help identify use-related errors and potential harm.²² For products that are drug/device combinations, we refer you to the CDRH guidance for industry and FDA Premarket and Design Control Reviewers, *Medical Device Use-Safety: Incorporating Human Factors Engineering into Risk Management*, July 18, 2000, and CDRH draft guidance for industry and Food and Drug Administration staff - *Applying Human Factors and Usability Engineering to Optimize Medical Device Design*, June 22, 2011.

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Two tools routinely employed by the CDER medication error prevention staff include failure mode and effects analysis (FMEA) and simulated use testing (i.e., human factors or usability or user testing). We recommend that sponsors use these tools in the development of their drug product.²³

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A. Failure Mode and Effects Analysis

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FMEA is a systematic evaluation of the proposed product within the medication use system, and provides an understanding of the relative impact of different types of system failures that may

²² See draft guidance, *Applying Human Factors and Usability Engineering to Optimize Medical Device Design*. When final, this guidance will represent FDA's current thinking on this topic.

²³ If sponsors have questions regarding the use of FMEA and simulated use testing, please consult the Division of Medication Error Prevention and Analysis for guidance.

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515 affect use error and prioritization of risk. FMEA also provides for a multidisciplinary review
516 that considers everyone in the medication use process. This systematic evaluation includes:

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518 • An analysis of all steps involved in user interactions with the drug product within the
519 anticipated environments of use

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521 • Identification of the potential use errors and system failures that could occur at each
522 step of the medication use process

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524 • An estimate of the probability of occurrence of each use error and failure

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526 • Identification of the potential effects and severity of consequences of each use error
527 and failure

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529 This technique can be expanded to include:

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531 • Identification of mitigation strategies that can address problems or use error.

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533 • Evaluation of the success of the mitigation strategies at reducing risks to acceptable
534 levels, either by reducing the probability of the occurrence of the problem or by
535 reducing the severity of the potential consequences of the problem.

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537 We refer you to the Handbook of Human Factors and Ergonomics in Health Care and
538 Patient Safety for the recommended steps for conducting a use-error Failure Mode
539 and Effects Analysis.²⁴

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541 **B. Simulated Use Testing**

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543 Simulated use testing involves systematic collection of data from representative participants
544 using early drug product designs or final product designs and their labels and labeling in realistic
545 situations. Data are obtained in a variety of ways, including direct observation, and subjective
546 user feedback, including a discussion of the reasons for any use errors or failures that were
547 observed from the user perspective, and using manual and automated measures of user
548 performance.

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550 Simulated use testing is helpful in determining whether the intended users can safely and
551 effectively perform the critical tasks involved in the use of the drug product or whether they will
552 make errors, have difficulty, or be unable to use the product at all. Simulated use testing seeks to
553 assess actual use and expands results obtained through analytic approaches such as FMEA. The
554 results of simulated-use testing should also be used to update the FMEA to include additional
555 use-related risks that were not previously anticipated.

²⁴ *Handbook of Human Factors and Ergonomics in Health Care and Patient Safety*, Second Edition; Edited by Pascale Carayon, 2012, Chapter 29 – Human Factors Risk Management for Medical Products, Failure Mode and Effects Analysis - pgs.479-486

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557 In addition to conducting proactive risk assessments before the initial approval of a medication,
558 these assessments should also be conducted prior to subsequent product modifications such as
559 additions to a product line (e.g., adding an extended-release formulation) or making changes to a
560 currently marketed product (e.g., new strength, new dosage form, new packaging configuration,
561 new indication of use, new delivery system) or prior to a revision made to address a known
562 problem or error. To make an effective design modification based on a known problem or error,
563 it is essential that a root cause analysis (RCA) be conducted to understand the causes (i.e., the
564 how and why) of the problem or error. RCA, although retrospective, is another tool that the
565 CDER medication error staff use when evaluating postmarketing problems or errors and when
566 evaluating proposed remedies for those problems or errors. The knowledge gained from the
567 evaluation of the RCA of a known postmarketing error can be applied to the premarket safety
568 assessments of other products. FDA recommends that industry also conduct an RCA in the
569 design process. Understanding how and why errors occur is an essential piece in any proactive
570 risk assessment.

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572 For drug-device combinations there are additional considerations that should be evaluated before
573 approval. We refer you to the following guidances that describe risk management relating to
574 medical devices and premarket design when developing a drug-device combination product.

- 575
- 576 • ANSI/AAMI/ISO 14971:2007, *Medical devices – Application of risk management to*
577 *medical devices*, provides guidance on the risk management process. It identifies the
578 two components of risk as being (1) the probability of occurrence of harm and (2) the
579 severity of the potential consequences of that harm. The standard also identifies six
580 steps in the risk management process: (1) risk analysis, (2) risk evaluation (these two
581 steps constitute risk assessment), (3) risk control, (4) evaluation of overall residual
582 risk acceptability, (5) risk management report, and (6) production and postproduction
583 information.
 - 584 • CDRH guidance for industry and FDA Premarket and Design Control Reviewers,
585 *Medical Device Use-Safety: Incorporating Human Factors Engineering into Risk*
586 *Management*, July 18, 2000, and CDRH draft guidance for industry and Food and
587 Drug Administration staff on *Applying Human Factors and Usability Engineering to*
588 *Optimize Medical Device Design*, June 22, 2011.

590 591 **V. CONCLUSION**

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593 To avoid safety issues and costly redesigns post-approval, it is important to consider the end
594 user(s) in their environment of use during the development and design of a drug product. FDA
595 recommends using proactive risk assessments at the early stages of drug product development
596 and when changes or additions to an already marketed drug product occur throughout the drug
597 product's life-cycle to produce products with minimal error potential.