

USE IN SPECIFIC POPULATIONS

8.1 Pregnancy

Risk Summary

There are no available human data on use of Naropin (ropivacaine) Injection in pregnant women to evaluate a drug-associated risk of major birth defects, miscarriage, or other adverse maternal or fetal outcomes. Local anesthetics may cause varying degrees of toxicity to the mother and fetus and adverse reactions include alterations of the central nervous system, peripheral vascular tone, and cardiac function (see *Clinical Considerations*). No teratogenicity was observed at doses up to 0.3 times the maximum recommended human dose of 770 mg/24 hours for epidural use, and equal to the MRHD of 250 mg for nerve block use, based on body surface area (BSA) comparisons and a 60 kg human weight (see *Animal data*).

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% to 4% and 15% to 20%, respectively.

Clinical Considerations

Labor or Delivery

Local anesthetics, including ropivacaine, rapidly cross the placenta, and when used for epidural block can cause varying degrees of maternal, fetal, and neonatal toxicity (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.1)*). The incidence and degree of toxicity depend upon the procedure performed, the type and amount of drug used, and the technique of drug administration. Adverse reactions in the parturient, fetus and neonate involve alterations of the central nervous system, peripheral vascular tone and cardiac function.

Maternal Adverse reactions

Maternal hypotension has resulted from regional anesthesia. Local anesthetics produce vasodilation by blocking sympathetic nerves. Therefore, during treatment of systemic toxicity, maternal hypotension or fetal bradycardia following regional block, the parturient should be maintained in the left lateral decubitus position if possible, or manual displacement of the uterus off the great vessels be accomplished. Elevating the patient's legs will also help prevent decreases in blood pressure. The fetal heart rate also should be monitored continuously, and electronic fetal monitoring is highly advisable.

Data

Animal data

No malformations were reported in embryo-fetal development toxicity studies conducted in pregnant New Zealand white rabbits and Sprague-Dawley rats. During gestation days 6 to 16, rabbits received daily subcutaneous doses of ropivacaine at 1.3, 4.2, or 13 mg/kg/day (equivalent to 0.03, 0.10, and 0.33 times the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) of 770 mg/24 hours, respectively, and 0.10, 0.32, and 1.0 times the MRHD of 250 mg for nerve block use, respectively based on body surface area (BSA) comparisons and a 60 kg human weight). Rats received daily subcutaneous doses of 5.3, 11, and 26 mg/kg/day (equivalent to 0.7, 0.14, and 0.33 times the MRHD for epidural use, respectively, and 0.21, 0.43, and 1.0 times the MRHD for nerve block use, respectively, based on BSA comparisons) during GD 6 to 15.

No treatment-related effects on late fetal development, parturition, litter size, lactation, neonatal viability, or growth of the offspring were reported in a prenatal and postnatal reproductive and development toxicity study; however functional endpoints were not evaluated. Female rats were dosed daily subcutaneously from GD 15 to Lactation Day 20 at doses of 5.3, 11 and 26 mg/kg/day (equivalent to 0.7, 0.1, and 0.33 times the MRHD for epidural use, respectively, and 0.21, 0.43, and 1.0 times the MRHD for nerve block use, respectively), with maternal toxicity exhibited at the high dose.

No adverse effects in physical developmental milestones or in behavioral tests were reported in a 2-generational reproduction study, in which rats received daily subcutaneous doses of 6.3, 12, and 23 mg/kg/day (equivalent to 0.08, 0.15, and 0.29 times the MRHD for epidural use, respectively, and 0.24, 0.45, and 0.88 times the MRHD for nerve block use, respectively, based on BSA comparisons) for 9 weeks before mating and during mating for males, and for 2 weeks before mating and during mating, pregnancy, and lactation, up to day 42 post coitus for females. Significant pup loss was observed in the high dose group during the first 3 days postpartum, from a few hours up to 3 days after delivery compared to the control group, which was considered secondary to impaired maternal care due to maternal toxicity. No differences were observed in litter parameters, or fertility, mean gestation time, or number of live births were observed between the control (saline) and treatment groups (see *Carcinogenesis, Mutagenesis, Impairment of Fertility (13.1)*).

8.2 Lactation

Risk Summary

One publication reported that ropivacaine is present in human milk at low levels following administration of ropivacaine in women undergoing cesarean section. No adverse reactions were reported in the infants. There is no available information on the drug's effects on milk production. The developmental and health benefits of breastfeeding should be considered along with the mother's clinical need for NAROPIN and any potential adverse effects on the breastfed child from NAROPIN or from the underlying maternal condition.

8.4 Pediatric Use

The safety and efficacy of NAROPIN in pediatric patients have not been established.

8.5 Geriatric Use

Of the 2,978 subjects that were administered NAROPIN Injection in 71 controlled and uncontrolled clinical studies, 803 patients (27%) were 65 years of age or older which includes 127 patients (4%) 75 years of age and over. NAROPIN Injection was found to be safe and effective in the patients in these studies. Clinical data in one published article indicate that differences in various pharmacodynamic measures were observed with increasing age. In one study, the upper level of analgesia increased with age, the maximum decrease of mean arterial pressure (MAP) declined with age during the first hour after epidural administration, and the intensity of motor blockade increased with age.

This drug and its metabolites are known to be excreted by the kidney, and the risk of toxic reactions to this drug may be greater in patients with impaired renal function. Elderly patients are more likely to have decreased hepatic, renal, or cardiac function, as well as concomitant disease. Therefore, care should be taken in dose selection, starting at the low end of the dosage range, and it may be useful to monitor renal function (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*).

8.6 Hepatic Impairment

Because amide-type local anesthetics such as ropivacaine are metabolized by the liver, these drugs, especially repeat doses, should be used cautiously in patients with hepatic disease. Patients with severe hepatic disease, because of their inability to metabolize local anesthetics normally, are at a greater risk of developing toxic plasma concentrations (see *Warnings and Precautions (5.11)*).

8.7 Renal Impairment

This drug and its metabolites are known to be excreted by the kidney, and the risk of toxic reactions to this drug may be greater in patients with impaired renal function. Therefore, care should be taken in dose selection, starting at the low end of the dosage range, and it may be useful to monitor renal function (see *Clinical Pharmacology (12.3)*).

10 OVERDOSAGE

Acute emergencies from local anesthetics are generally related to high plasma levels encountered, or large doses administered, during therapeutic use of local anesthetics or to unintended subarachnoid or intravascular injection of local anesthetic solution (see *Adverse Reactions (6)* and *Warnings and Precautions (5.1, 5.2, 5.6)*).

10.1 Treatment

Therapy with NAROPIN should be discontinued at the first sign of toxicity. No specific information is available for the treatment of toxicity with NAROPIN; therefore, treatment should be symptomatic and supportive. The first consideration is prevention, best accomplished by incremental injection of NAROPIN, careful and constant monitoring and cardiovascular and respiratory vital signs and the patient's state of consciousness after each local anesthetic and during continuous infusion. At the first sign of change in mental status, oxygen should be administered.

The first step in the management of systemic toxic reactions, as well as overventilation or apnea due to unintentional subarachnoid injection of drug solution, consists of immediate attention to the establishment and maintenance of a patent airway and effective assisted or controlled ventilation with 100% oxygen with a delivery system capable of permitting immediate positive airway pressure by mask. Circulation should be assisted as necessary. This may prevent convulsions if they have not already occurred.

If necessary, use drugs to control convulsions. Intravenous barbiturates, anticonvulsant agents, or muscle relaxants should only be administered by those familiar with their use. Immediately after the institution of these ventilatory measures, the adequacy of the circulation should be evaluated. Supportive treatment of circulatory depression may require administration of intravenous fluids, and, when appropriate, a vasopressor dictated by the clinical situation (such as ephedrine or epinephrine to enhance myocardial contractile force).

Should cardiac arrest occur, prolonged resuscitative efforts may be required to improve the probability of a successful outcome.

The mean dosages of ropivacaine producing seizures, after intravenous infusion in dogs, nonpregnant and pregnant sheep were 4.9, 6.1 and 5.9 mg/kg, respectively. These doses were associated with peak arterial total plasma concentrations of 11.4, 4.3 and 5 mcg/mL, respectively.

In human volunteers given intravenous NAROPIN, the mean (min-max) maximum tolerated total and free arterial plasma concentrations were 4.3 (3.4 to 5.3) and 0.6 (0.3 to 0.9) mcg/mL, respectively, at which time moderate CNS symptoms (muscle twitching) were noted.

Clinical data from patients experiencing local anesthetic induced convulsions demonstrated rapid development of hypoxia, hypercarbia and acidosis within a minute of the onset of convulsions. These observations suggest that oxygen consumption and carbon dioxide production are greatly increased during local anesthetic convulsions and emphasize the importance of immediate and effective ventilation with oxygen which may avoid cardiac arrest.

If difficulty is encountered in the maintenance of a patent airway or if prolonged ventilatory support (assisted or controlled) is indicated, endotracheal intubation, employing drugs and techniques familiar to the clinician, may be indicated after initial administration of oxygen by mask.

The supine position is dangerous in pregnant women at term because of aortocaval compression by the gravid uterus. Therefore, during treatment of systemic toxicity, maternal hypotension or fetal bradycardia following regional block, the parturient should be maintained in the left lateral decubitus position if possible, or manual displacement of the uterus off the great vessels should be accomplished. Resuscitation of obstetrical patients may take longer than resuscitation of non- pregnant patients and closed-chest cardiac compression may be ineffective. Rapid delivery of the fetus may improve the response to resuscitative efforts.

11 DESCRIPTION

NAROPIN[®] Injection is a sterile, isotonic solution that contains ropivacaine hydrochloride as the active pharmaceutical ingredient. Ropivacaine hydrochloride is a member of the amino amide class of local anesthetics. NAROPIN[®] Injection is administered parenterally by for infiltration, epidural, and nerve block.

Ropivacaine hydrochloride is chemically described as S-(-)-1-propyl-2',6'-pipercoloxylidide hydrochloride monohydrate. The drug substance is a white crystalline powder, with the following structural formula:



At 25 °C ropivacaine hydrochloride has a solubility of 53.8 mg/mL in water, a distribution ratio between n-octanol and phosphate buffer at pH 7.4 of 14:1 and a pKa of 8.07 in 0.1 M KCl solution. The pKa of ropivacaine is approximately the same as bupivacaine (8.1) and is similar to that of mepivacaine (7.7). However, ropivacaine has an intermediate degree of lipid solubility compared to bupivacaine and mepivacaine.

NAROPIN (ropivacaine hydrochloride) injection is a clear, colorless, and preservative-free solution. Each mL contains 2.1 mg, 5.3 mg, 7.9 mg or 10.6 mg ropivacaine hydrochloride monohydrate (equivalent to 2.0 mg, 5.0 mg, 7.5 mg or 10 mg of ropivacaine hydrochloride anhydrous), and 8.6 mg, 8.0 mg, 7.5 mg or 7.1 mg of sodium chloride, respectively, and sodium hydroxide and hydrochloric acid as pH adjusters, in water for injection. The pH is adjusted between 4.0 to 6.0. The specific gravity of NAROPIN Injection solutions range from 1.002 to 1.005 at 25°C.

12.1 Mechanism of Action

Ropivacaine is a member of the amino amide class of local anesthetics and is supplied as the pure S-(-)-enantiomer. Local anesthetics block the generation and the conduction of nerve impulses, presumably by increasing the threshold for electrical excitation in the nerve, by slowing the propagation of the nerve impulse, and by reducing the rate of rise of the action potential. In general, the progression of anesthesia is related to the diameter, myelination and conduction velocity of affected nerve fibers. Clinically, the order of loss of nerve function is as follows: (1) pain, (2) temperature, (3) touch, (4) proprioception, and (5) skeletal muscle tone.

12.2 Pharmacodynamics

Studies in humans have demonstrated that, unlike most other local anesthetics, the presence of epinephrine has no major effect on either the time of onset or the duration of action of ropivacaine. Likewise, addition of epinephrine to ropivacaine has no effect on limiting systemic absorption of ropivacaine.

Systemic absorption of local anesthetics can produce effects on the central nervous and cardiovascular systems. At blood concentrations achieved with therapeutic doses, changes in cardiac conduction, excitability, refractoriness, contractility, and peripheral vascular resistance have been reported. Toxic blood concentrations depress cardiac conduction and excitability, which may lead to atrioventricular block, ventricular arrhythmias and to cardiac arrest, sometimes resulting in fatalities. In addition, myocardial contractility is depressed and peripheral vasodilation occurs, leading to decreased cardiac output and arterial blood pressure.

Following systemic absorption, local anesthetics can produce central nervous system stimulation, depression or both. Apparent central stimulation is usually manifested as restlessness, tremors and shivering, progressing to convulsions, followed by depression and coma, progressing ultimately to respiratory arrest. However, the local anesthetics have a primary depressant effect on the medulla and on higher centers. The depressed stage may occur without a prior excited stage.

In 2 clinical pharmacology studies (total n=24) ropivacaine and bupivacaine were infused (10 mg/min) in human volunteers until the appearance of CNS symptoms, e.g., visual or hearing disturbances, perioral numbness, tingling and others. Similar symptoms were seen with both drugs. In 1 study, the mean ± SD maximum tolerated intravenous dose of ropivacaine infused(124 ± 38 mg) was significantly higher than that of bupivacaine (98 ± 30 mg) while in the other study the doses were not different (115 ± 29 mg of ropivacaine and 103 ± 30 mg of bupivacaine). In the latter study, the number of subjects reporting each symptom was similar for both drugs with the exception of muscle twitching which was reported by more subjects with bupivacaine than ropivacaine at comparable intravenous doses. At the end of the infusion, ropivacaine in both studies caused significantly less depression of cardiac conductivity (less QRS widening) than bupivacaine. Ropivacaine and bupivacaine caused evidence of depression of cardiac contractility, but there were no changes in cardiac output.

Clinical data in one published article indicate that differences in various pharmacodynamic measures were observed with increasing age. In one study, the upper level of analgesia increased with age, the maximum decrease of mean arterial pressure (MAP) declined with age during the first hour after epidural administration, and the intensity of motor blockade increased with age. However, no pharmacokinetic differences were observed between elderly and younger patients.

In non-clinical pharmacology studies comparing ropivacaine and bupivacaine in several animal species, the cardiac toxicity of ropivacaine was less than that of bupivacaine, although both were considerably more toxic than lidocaine. Arrhythmogenic and cardio-depressant effects were seen in animals at significantly higher doses of ropivacaine than bupivacaine. The incidence of successful resuscitation was not significantly different between the ropivacaine and bupivacaine groups.

12.3 Pharmacokinetics Absorption

The systemic concentration of ropivacaine is dependent on the total dose and concentration of drug administered, the route of administration, the patient's hemodynamic/circulatory condition, and the vascularity of the administration site.

From the epidural space, ropivacaine shows complete and biphasic absorption. The half-lives of the 2 phases, (mean ± SD) are 14 ± 7 minutes and 4.2 ± 0.9 h, respectively. The slow absorption is the rate limiting factor in the elimination of ropivacaine that explains why the terminal half-life is longer after epidural than after intravenous administration. Ropivacaine shows dose-proportionality up to the highest intravenous dose studied, 80 mg, corresponding to a mean ± SD peak plasma concentration of 1.9 ± 0.3 mcg/mL.

Table 7 Pharmacokinetic (Plasma Concentration-Time) Data From Clinical Trials

Route	Epidural Infusion*	Epidural Infusion*	Epidural Block†	Epidural Block†	Plexus Block‡	IV Infusion§
Dose (mg)	1493 ± 10	2075 ± 206	1217 ± 277	150	187.5	300
N	12	12	11	8	8	10
Cmax (mg/L)	2.4 ± 1 [¶]	2.8 ± 0.5 [¶]	2.3 ± 1.1 [¶]	1.1 ± 0.2	1.6 ± 0.6	2.3 ± 0.8
Tmax (min)	n/a [¶]	n/a	n/a	43 ± 14	34 ± 9	54 ± 22
AUC _{0-∞} (mg·h/L)	135.5 ± 50	145 ± 34	161 ± 90	7.2 ± 2	11.3 ± 4	13 ± 3.3
CL (L/h)	11.03	13.7	n/a	5.5 ± 2	5 ± 2.6	n/a
t _{1/2} (h) [¶]	5 ± 2.5	5.7 ± 3	6 ± 3	5.7 ± 2	7.1 ± 3	6.8 ± 3.2
						1.9 ± 0.5

*Continuous 72 hour epidural infusion after an epidural block with 5 or 10 mg/mL.

† Epidural anesthesia with 7.5 mg/mL (0.75%) ropivacaine delivery.

‡ Brachial plexus block with 7.5 mg/mL (0.75%) ropivacaine.

§ 20 minute IV infusion to volunteers (40 mg).

¶ Cmax measured at the end of infusion (i.e., at 72 hr).

Cmax measured at the end of infusion (i.e., at 20 minutes).

◆ n/a=not applicable

▼ t_{1/2} is the true terminal elimination half-life. On the other hand, t_{1/2} follows absorption dependent elimination (flip-flop) after non-intravenous administration.

In some patients after a 300 mg dose for brachial plexus block, free plasma concentrations of ropivacaine may approach the threshold for CNS toxicity (see *Warnings and Precautions (5.7)*). At a dose of greater than 300 mg, for local infiltration, the terminal half-life may be longer (>30 hours).

Distribution

After intravascular infusion, ropivacaine has a steady-state volume of distribution of 41 ± 7 liters. Ropivacaine is 94% protein bound, mainly to α1-acid glycoprotein. An increase in total plasma concentrations during continuous epidural infusion has been observed, related to a postoperative increase of α1-acid glycoprotein. Variations in unbound, i.e., pharmacologically active, concentrations have been less than in total plasma concentration. Ropivacaine readily crosses the placenta and equilibrium in regard to unbound concentration will be rapidly reached (see *Warnings and Precautions (5)* and *Use in Specific Population (8.1)*).

Metabolism

Ropivacaine is extensively metabolized in the liver, predominantly by aromatic hydroxylation mediated by cytochrome P4501A to 3-hydroxy ropivacaine. After a single IV dose approximately 37% of the total dose is excreted in the urine as both free and conjugated 3-hydroxy ropivacaine. Low concentrations of 3-hydroxy ropivacaine have been found in the plasma. Urinary excretion of the 4 hydroxy ropivacaine, and both the 3-hydroxy N de alkylated (3-OH-PPX) and 4-hydroxy N-de-alkylated (4-OH-PPX) metabolites account for less than 3% of the dose. An additional metabolite, 2-hydroxy-methyl-ropivacaine, has been identified but not quantified in the urine. The N-de-alkylated metabolite of ropivacaine (PPX) and 3- OH-ropivacaine are the major metabolites excreted in the urine during epidural infusion. Total PPX concentration in the plasma was about half as that of total ropivacaine; however, mean unbound concentrations of PPX were about 7 to 9 times higher than that of unbound ropivacaine following continuous epidural infusion up to 72 hours. Unbound PPX, 3-hydroxy and 4-hydroxy ropivacaine, have a pharmacological activity in animal models less than that of ropivacaine. There is no evidence of in vivo racemization in urine of ropivacaine.

Elimination

The kidney is the main excretory organ for most local anesthetic metabolites. In total, 86% of the ropivacaine dose is excreted in the urine after intravenous administration of which only 1% relates to unchanged drug. After intravenous administration ropivacaine has a mean ± SD total plasma clearance of 387 ± 107 mL/min, an unbound plasma clearance of 7.2 ± 1.6 L/min, and a renal clearance of 1 mL/min. The mean ± SD terminal half-life is 1.8 ± 0.7 h after intravascular administration and 4.2 ± 1 h after epidural administration.

13 NONCLINICAL TOXICOLOGY

13.1 Carcinogenesis, Mutagenesis, Impairment of Fertility

Carcinogenesis

Long-term studies in animals to evaluate the carcinogenic potential of ropivacaine have not been conducted.

Mutagenesis

Weak mutagenic activity was seen in the mouse lymphoma test. However, ropivacaine was negative in an in vitro Ames assay and an in vivo mouse micronucleus assay.

Impairment of Fertility

No adverse effects on fertility or early embryonic development were reported in a 2-generational reproduction study in which female rats (F₁) were administered subcutaneous doses of 6.3, 12, and 23 mg/kg/day (equivalent to 0.08, 0.15, and 0.29 times the maximum recommended human dose (MRHD) of 770 mg/24 hours for epidural use, respectively, and 0.24, 0.45, and 0.88 times the MRHD of 250 mg for nerve block use, respectively, based on BSA comparisons and a 60 kg human) throughout the mating period and pregnancy, partus, and lactation.

13.2 Animal Toxicology and/or Pharmacology

The mean dosages of ropivacaine producing seizures, after intravenous infusion in dogs, nonpregnant and pregnant sheep were 4.9, 6.1 and 5.9 mg/kg (HED: 5.3, 6.6, and 6.4 mg/kg, based on 75 kg sheep weight and 60 kg human weight), respectively. These doses were associated with peak arterial total plasma concentrations of 11.4, 4.3 and 5 mcg/mL, respectively.

14 CLINICAL STUDIES

Ropivacaine was studied as a local anesthetic both for surgical anesthesia and for acute pain management [see *Dosage and Administration (2)*].

The onset, depth and duration of sensory block are, in general, similar to bupivacaine. However, the depth and duration of motor block, in general, are less than that with bupivacaine.

14.1 Epidural Administration in Surgery

There were 25 clinical studies performed in 900 patients to evaluate NAROPIN epidural injection for general surgery. NAROPIN was used in doses ranging from 75 to 250 mg. In doses of 100 to 200 mg, the median (1st to 3rd quartile) onset time to achieve a T10 sensory block was 10 (5 to 13) minutes and the median (1st to 3rd quartile) duration at the T10 level was 4 (3 to 5) hours (see *Dosage and Administration (2.2)*). Higher doses produced a more profound block with a greater duration of effect.

14.2 Epidural Administration in Cesarean Section

A total of 12 studies were performed with epidural administration of NAROPIN for cesarean section. Eight of these studies involved 219 patients using the concentration of 5 mg/mL (0.5%) in doses up to 150 mg. Median onset measured at T6 ranged from 11 to 26 minutes. Median duration of sensory block at T6 ranged from 1.7 to 3.2 h, and duration of motor block ranged from 1.4 to 2.9 h. NAROPIN provided adequate muscle relaxation for surgery in all cases.

In addition, 4 active controlled studies for cesarean section were performed in 264 patients at a concentration of 7.5 mg/mL (0.75%) in doses up to 187.5 mg. Median onset measured at T6 ranged from 4 to 15 minutes. Seventy-seven to 96% of NAROPIN-exposed patients reported no pain at delivery. Some patients received other anesthetic, analgesic, or sedative modalities during the course of the operative procedure.

14.3 Epidural Administration in Labor and Delivery

A total of 9 double-blind clinical studies, involving 240 patients were performed to evaluate NAROPIN for epidural block for management of labor pain. When administered in doses up to 278 mg as intermittent injections or as a continuous infusion, NAROPIN produced adequate pain relief.

A prospective meta-analysis on 6 of these studies provided detailed evaluation of the delivered newborns and showed no difference in clinical outcomes compared to bupivacaine. There were significantly fewer instrumental deliveries in mothers receiving ropivacaine as compared to bupivacaine.

Delivery Mode	NAROPIN		Bupivacaine	
	n	%	n	%
Spontaneous Vortex	116	58	92	49
Vacuum Extractor	26		33	
		‡27*		‡40
Forceps	28		42	
Cesarean Section	29	15	21	11

*p<0.004 versus bupivacaine

14.4 Epidural Administration in Postoperative Pain Management

There were 8 clinical studies performed in 382 patients to evaluate NAROPIN 2 mg/mL (0.2%) for postoperative pain management after upper and lower abdominal surgery and after orthopedic surgery. The studies utilized intravascular morphine via PCA as a rescue medication and quantified as an efficacy variable.

Epidural anesthesia with NAROPIN 5 mg/mL (0.5%) was used intraoperatively for each of these procedures prior to initiation of postoperative NAROPIN. The incidence and intensity of the motor block were dependent on the dose rate of NAROPIN and the site of injection. Cumulative doses of up to 770 mg of ropivacaine were administered over 24 hours (intraoperative block plus postoperative continuous infusion). The overall quality of pain relief, as judged by the patients, in the ropivacaine groups was rated as good or excellent (73% to 100%). The frequency of motor block was greatest at 4 hours and decreased during the infusion period in all groups. At least 80% of patients in the upper and lower abdominal studies and 42% in the orthopedic studies had no motor block at the end of the 21-hour infusion period. Sensory block was also dose rate dependent and a decrease in spread was observed during the infusion period.

A double-blind, randomized, clinical trial compared lumbar epidural infusion of NAROPIN (n=26) and bupivacaine (n=26) at 2 mg/mL (8 mL/h), for 24 hours after knee replacement. In this study, the pain scores were higher in the NAROPIN group, but the incidence and the intensity of motor block were lower.

Continuous epidural infusion of NAROPIN 2 mg/mL (0.2%) during up to 72 hours for postoperative pain management after major abdominal surgery was studied in 2 multicenter, double-blind studies. A total of 391 patients received a low thoracic epidural catheter, and NAROPIN 7.5 mg/L (0.75%) was given for surgery, in combination with GA. Postoperatively, NAROPIN 2 mg/mL (0.2%), 4 to 14 mL/h, alone or with fentanyl 1, 2, or 4 mcg/mL was infused through the epidural catheter and adjusted according to the patient's needs. These studies support the use of NAROPIN 2 mg/mL (0.2%) for epidural infusion at 6 to 14 mL/h (12 to 28 mg) for up to 72 hours and demonstrated adequate analgesia with only slight and nonprogressive motor block in cases of moderate to severe postoperative pain.

Clinical studies with 2 mg/mL (0.2%) NAROPIN have demonstrated that infusion rates of 6 to 14 mL (12 to 28 mg) per hour provide adequate analgesia with nonprogressive motor block in cases of moderate to severe postoperative pain. In these studies, this technique resulted in a significant reduction in patients' morphine rescue dose requirement. Clinical experience supports the use of NAROPIN epidural infusions for up to 72 hours.

14.5 Peripheral Nerve Block

NAROPIN, 5 mg/mL (0.5%), was evaluated for its ability to provide anesthesia for surgery using the techniques of Peripheral Nerve Block. There were 13 studies performed including a series of 4 pharmacodynamic and pharmacokinetic studies performed on minor nerve blocks. From these, 235 NAROPIN-treated patients were evaluable for efficacy. NAROPIN was used in doses up to 275 mg. When used for brachial plexus block, onset depended on technique used. Suprascavicular blocks were consistently more successful than axillary blocks. The median onset of sensory block (anesthesia) produced by ropivacaine 0.5% via axillary block ranged from 10 minutes (medial brachial cutaneous nerve) to 45 minutes (musculocutaneous nerve). Median duration ranged from 3.7 hours (medial brachial cutaneous nerve) to 8.7 hours (ulnar nerve). The 5 mg/mL (0.5%) NAROPIN solution gave success rates from 56% to 86% for axillary blocks, compared with 92% for supraclavicular blocks.

In addition, NAROPIN, 7.5 mg/mL (0.75%), was evaluated in 99 NAROPIN-treated patients, in 2 double-blind studies, performed to provide anesthesia for surgery using the techniques of Brachial Plexus Block. NAROPIN 7.5 mg/mL was compared to bupivacaine 5 mg/mL. In 1 study, patients underwent axillary brachial plexus block using injections of 40 mL (300 mg) of NAROPIN 7.5 mg/mL (0.75%) or 40 mL injections of bupivacaine, 5 mg/mL (200 mg). In a second study, patients underwent subclavian perivascular brachial plexus block using 30 mL (22