

Systemic Reactions
The most commonly encountered acute adverse experiences that demand immediate countermeasures are related to the central nervous system and the cardiovascular system. These adverse experiences are generally dose-related and due to high plasma levels that may result from overdose, rapid absorption from the injection site, diminished tolerance or from unintentional intravascular injection of the local anesthetic solution. In addition to systemic dose-related toxicity, unintentional subarachnoid injection of drug during the intended performance of lumbar epidural block or nerve blocks near the vertebral column (especially in the head and neck region) may result in underventilation or apnea ("Total or High Spinal"). Also, hypotension due to loss of sympathetic tone and respiratory paralysis or underventilation due to cephalad extension of the motor level of anesthesia may occur. This may lead to secondary cardiac arrest if untreated. Factors influencing plasma protein binding, such as acidosis, systemic diseases that alter protein production or competition with other drugs for protein binding sites, may diminish individual tolerance.

Epidural administration of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection has, in some cases, as with other local anesthetics, been associated with transient increases in temperature to > 38.5°C. This occurred more frequently at doses of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection > 16 mg/h.

Neurologic Reactions

These are characterized by excitation and/or depression. Restlessness, anxiety, dizziness, tinnitus, blurred vision or tremors may occur, possibly proceeding to convulsions. However, excitement may be transient or absent, with depression being the first manifestation of an adverse reaction. This may quickly be followed by drowsiness merging into unconsciousness and respiratory arrest. Other central nervous system effects may be nausea, vomiting, chills, and constriction of the pupils.

The incidence of convulsions associated with the use of local anesthetics varies with the route of administration and the total dose administered. In a survey of studies of epidural anesthesia, overt toxicity progressing to convulsions occurred in approximately 0.1% of local anesthetic administrations.

The incidence of adverse neurological reactions associated with the use of local anesthetics may be related to the total dose and concentration of local anesthetic administered and are also dependent upon the particular drug used, the route of administration, and the physical status of the patient. Many of these observations may be related to local anesthetic techniques, with or without a contribution from the drug. During lumbar epidural block, occasional unintentional penetration of the subarachnoid space by the catheter or needle may occur. Subsequent adverse effects may depend partially on the amount of drug administered intrathecally as well as the physiological and physical effects of a dural puncture. These observations may include spinal block of varying magnitude (including high or total spinal block), hypotension secondary to spinal block, urinary retention, loss of bladder and bowel control (fecal and urinary incontinence), and loss of perineal sensation and sexual function. Signs and symptoms of subarachnoid block typically start within 2 to 3 minutes of injection. Doses of 15 and 22.5 mg of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection resulted in sensory levels as high as T5 and T4, respectively. Analgesia started in the sacral dermatomes in 2 to 3 minutes and extended to the T10 level in 10 to 13 minutes and lasted for approximately 2 hours. Other neurological effects following unintentional subarachnoid administration during epidural anesthesia may include persistent anesthesia, paresthesia, weakness, paralysis of the lower extremities, and loss of sphincter control; all of which may have slow, incomplete or no recovery. Headache, septic meningitis, meningismus, slowing of labor, increased incidence of forceps delivery, or cranial nerve palsies due to traction on nerves from loss of cerebrospinal fluid have been reported [see *Dosage and Administration (2.1)*]. A high spinal is characterized by paralysis of the arms, loss of consciousness, respiratory paralysis and bradycardia.

Cardiovascular System Reactions

High doses or unintentional intravascular injection may lead to high plasma levels and related depression of the myocardium, decreased cardiac output, heart block, hypotension, bradycardia, ventricular arrhythmias, including ventricular tachycardia and ventricular fibrillation, and possibly cardiac arrest [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.2) and Overdose (10)*].

Allergic Reactions

Allergic type reactions are rare and may occur as a result of sensitivity to the local anesthetic [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.1)*]. These reactions are characterized by signs such as urticaria, pruritus, erythema, angioneurotic edema (including laryngeal edema), tachycardia, sneezing, nausea, vomiting, dizziness, syncope, excessive sweating, elevated temperature, and possibly, anaphylactoid symptomatology (including severe hypotension). Cross-sensitivity among members of the amide-type local anesthetic group has been reported. The usefulness of screening for sensitivity has not been definitively established.

7 DRUG INTERACTIONS

Patients who are administered local anesthetics are at increased risk of developing methemoglobinemia when concurrently exposed to the following drugs, which could include other local anesthetics [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.4)*].

Examples of Drugs Associated with Methemoglobinemia

Class	Examples
Nitrates/Nitrites	nitric oxide, nitroglycerin, nitroprusside, nitrous oxide
Local anesthetics	articaine, benzocaine, bupivacaine, lidocaine, mepivacaine, prilocaine, procaine, ropivacaine, tetracaine
Antineoplastic agents	cytophosphamide, flutamide, hydroxyurea, ifostamide, rasburicase
Antibiotics	dapsone, nitrofurantoin, para-aminosalicylic acid, sulfonamides
Antimalarials	chloroquine, primaquine
Anticonvulsants	Phenobarbital, phenytoin, sodium valproate
Other drugs	acetaminophen, metoclopramide, quinine, sulfasalazine

Ropivacaine Hydrochloride Injection should be used with caution in patients receiving other local anesthetics or agents structurally related to amide-type local anesthetics, since the toxic effects of these drugs are additive. Cytochrome P4501A2 is involved in the formation of 3-hydroxy ropivacaine, the major metabolite. In vivo, the plasma clearance of ropivacaine was reduced by 70% during coadministration of fluvoxamine (25 mg bid for 2 days), a selective and potent CYP1A2 inhibitor. Thus strong inhibitors of cytochrome P4501A2, such as fluvoxamine, given concomitantly during administration of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection, can interact with ropivacaine hydrochloride injection leading to increased ropivacaine plasma levels. Caution should be exercised when CYP1A2 inhibitors are coadministered. Possible interactions with drugs known to be metabolized by CYP1A2 via competitive inhibition such as theophylline and imipramine may also occur. Coadministration of a selective and potent inhibitor of CYP3A4, ketoconazole (100 mg bid for 2 days with ropivacaine infusion administered 1 hour after ketoconazole) caused a 15% reduction in in vivo plasma clearance of ropivacaine.

Specific trials studying the interaction between ropivacaine and class III antiarrhythmic drugs (e.g., amiodarone) have not been performed, but caution is advised [see *Warnings and Precautions (5.13)*].

8 USE IN SPECIFIC POPULATIONS

8.1 Pregnancy

Risk Summary

There are no available human data on use of ropivacaine hydrochloride 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)*]. 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 18, 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 0.07, 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 0.07, 0.1, and 0.3 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 cotus 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 ropivacaine hydrochloride injection and any potential adverse effects on the breastfed child from ropivacaine hydrochloride injection or from the underlying maternal condition.

8.4 Pediatric Use

The safety and efficacy of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection in pediatric patients have not been established.

8.5 Geriatric Use

Of the 2,978 subjects that were administered ropivacaine hydrochloride 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. Ropivacaine hydrochloride 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 ropivacaine hydrochloride injection should be discontinued at the first sign of toxicity. No specific information is available for the treatment of toxicity with ropivacaine hydrochloride injection; therefore, treatment should be symptomatic and supportive. The first consideration is prevention, best accomplished by incremental injection of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection, careful and constant monitoring of 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 underventilation 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 ropivacaine hydrochloride injection, 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.

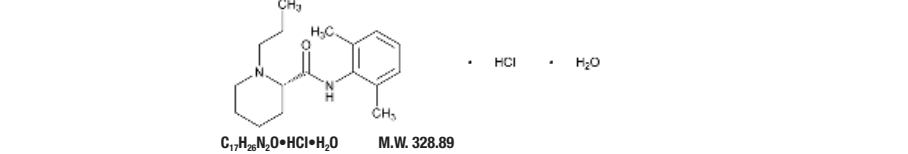
If difficulty is encountered in the maintenance of a patent airway or if prolonged ventilatory support (assisted or controlled) is indicated, endotracheal intubation, employing drugs and techniques familiar to the clinician, may be indicated after initial administration of oxygen by mask.

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

Ropivacaine Hydrochloride Injection, USP 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. Ropivacaine Hydrochloride Injection, USP is administered parenterally by for infiltration, epidural, and nerve block.

Ropivacaine hydrochloride is chemically described as S-(-)-1-propyl-2',6'-pipercolonylidide 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.

Ropivacaine hydrochloride injection, USP is a clear, colorless, and preservative-free solution. Each mL contains 2 mg, 5 mg, 7.5 mg or 10 mg 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 with. The specific gravity of ropivacaine hydrochloride injection, USP solutions range from 1.002 to 1.005 at 25°C.

12 CLINICAL PHARMACOLOGY

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 (14 ± 38 mg) was significantly higher than that of bupivacaine (99 ± 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. Arrhythmicogenic 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	12
C _{max} (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	1.2 ± 0.2*
T _{max} (min)	n/a*	n/a	n/a	43 ± 14	34 ± 9	54 ± 22	n/a
AUC _{0-∞} (mg·h/L)	135.5 ± 50	145 ± 34	61 ± 90	7.2 ± 2	11.3 ± 4	13 ± 3.3	1.8 ± 0.6
CL (L/h)	11.03	13.7	n/a	5.5 ± 2	5 ± 2.6	n/a	21.2 ± 7
t _{1/2} (hr)¶	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%) for cesarean 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

▼ 1/2 is the true terminal elimination half-life. On the other hand, t½ 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 (F₂) 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 (fHD: 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 ropivacaine hydrochloride epidural injection for general surgery. Ropivacaine hydrochloride injection 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 [

Brand:	Somerset Therapeutics, LLC
Product Name:	Ropivacaine Hydrochloride Injection, USP
Description:	PIL
Dimension:	500 x 240 mm (LxW)
Folded Size:	125 x 30mm (5 folds)
Artwork:	Adobe Illustrator
Specification:	Printed on < 40 GSM Newsprint paper Ink : Siegwark / DIC India (benzophenone free)

SPOT COLORS

