Metoprolol *(BAN, USAN, rINN)* ⊗

Métoprolol; Metoprololi; Metoprololum. (±)-1-Isopropylamino-3-[4-(2-methoxyethyl)phenoxy]propan-2-ol.

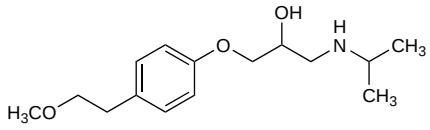
Метопролол

$C_{15}H_{25}NO_3$ = 267.4.

CAS — 54163-88-1; 37350-58-6.

ATC — C07AB02.

ATC Vet — QC07AB02.



Metoprolol Fumarate *(BANM, USAN, rINNM)* ⊗

CGP-2175C; Fumarato de metoprolol; Métoprolol, Fumarate de; Metoprololi Fumaras.

Метопролола Фумарат

$(C_{15}H_{25}NO_3)_2,C_4H_4O_4$ = 650.8.

CAS — 119637-66-0.

ATC — C07AB02.

ATC Vet — QC07AB02.

Pharmacopoeias. In *US.*

USP 31 (Metoprolol Fumarate). A 10% solution in water has a pH of between 5.5 and 6.5. Store in airtight containers. Protect from light.

Metoprolol Succinate *(BANM, USAN, rINNM)* ⊗

Métoprolol, succinate de; Metoprolol Süksinat; Metoprololi succinas; Metoprololio sukcinatas; Metoprololisuksinaatti; Metoprololsuccinat; Metoprolol-sukcinát; Metoprolol-szukcinát; Succinato de metoprolol.

Метопролола Суксинат

$(C_{15}H_{25}NO_3)_2,C_4H_6O_4$ = 652.8.

CAS — 98418-47-4.

ATC — C07AB02.

ATC Vet — QC07AB02.

Pharmacopoeias. In *Eur.* (see p.vii) and *US.*

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Metoprolol Succinate). A white or almost white crystalline powder. Freely soluble in water; soluble in methyl alcohol; slightly soluble in alcohol; very slightly soluble in ethyl acetate. A 2% solution in water has a pH of between 7.0 and 7.6. Protect from light.

USP 31 (Metoprolol Succinate). A white to off-white powder. Freely soluble in water; soluble in methyl alcohol; sparingly soluble in alcohol; slightly soluble in isopropyl alcohol. A 6.5% solution in water has a pH of between 7.0 and 7.6. Store in airtight containers at controlled room temperature.

Metoprolol Tartrate *(BANM, USAN, rINNM)* ⊗

CGP-2175E; H-93/26; Metoprolol tartarát; Metoprolol Tartarat; Métoprolol, tartrate de; Metoprololi tartras; Metoprololio tartratas; Metoprololitartraatti; Metoprolol-tartarát; Metoprololtartrat; Tartrato de metoprolol.

Метопролола Тартрат

$(C_{15}H_{25}NO_3)_2,C_4H_6O_6$ = 684.8.

CAS — 56392-17-7.

ATC — C07AB02.

ATC Vet — QC07AB02.

Pharmacopoeias. In *Chin.*, *Eur.* (see p.vii), *Jpn*, and *US.*

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Metoprolol Tartrate). A white or almost white crystalline powder or colourless crystals. It exhibits polymorphism. Very soluble in water; freely soluble in alcohol. A 2% solution in water has a pH of between 6.0 and 7.0. Protect from light.

USP 31 (Metoprolol Tartrate). A white crystalline powder. Very soluble in water; freely soluble in alcohol, in chloroform, and in dichloromethane; slightly soluble in acetone; insoluble in ether. A 10% solution in water has a pH of between 6.0 and 7.0. Store in airtight containers at a temperature of 25°, excursions permitted between 15° and 30°. Protect from light.

Stability. Metoprolol tartrate 400 micrograms/mL in glucose 5% or sodium chloride 0.9% was stable for 36 hours when stored at 24° in PVC bags.[1]

1. Belliveau PP, *et al.* Stability of metoprolol tartrate in 5% dextrose injection or 0.9% sodium chloride injection. *Am J Hosp Pharm* 1993; **50:** 950–2.

Adverse Effects, Treatment, and Precautions

As for Beta Blockers, p.1226.

Breast feeding. Metoprolol is distributed into breast milk and studies[1-3] have shown that the concentration in milk is higher than that in plasma. However, the amount ingested by an infant is likely to be small, and the concentration of metoprolol in infant plasma has been found[3] to be undetectable or very low. No adverse effects have been seen in breast-fed infants whose mothers were given metoprolol and the American Academy of Pediatrics considers[4] that it is therefore usually compatible with breast feeding.

1. Sandström B, Regårdh C-G. Metoprolol excretion into breast milk. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1980; **9:** 518–19.
2. Liedholm H, *et al.* Accumulation of atenolol and metoprolol in human breast milk. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; **20:** 229–31.
3. Kulas J, *et al.* Atenolol and metoprolol: a comparison of their excretion into human breast milk. *Acta Obstet Gynecol Scand Suppl* 1984; **118:** 65–9.
4. American Academy of Pediatrics. The transfer of drugs and other chemicals into human milk. *Pediatrics* 2001; **108:** 776–89. Correction. *ibid*; 1029. Also available at: http://aappolicy.aappublications.org/cgi/content/full/pediatrics%3b108/3/776 (accessed 10/01/08)

Effects on hearing. Loss of hearing in a patient receiving metoprolol appeared to be dose-related;[1] hearing gradually improved over several months once the drug was withdrawn.

1. Fäldt R, *et al.* β Blockers and loss of hearing. *BMJ* 1984; **289:** 1490–2.

Effects on lipid metabolism. Beta blockers may increase serum-triglyceride concentrations. For a report of acute pancreatitis provoked by severe hypertriglyceridaemia in a patient taking atenolol and metoprolol, see p.1227.

Effects on the liver. Acute hepatitis associated with metoprolol has been reported in a 56-year-old woman.[1] The hepatotoxicity could not be explained by deficient oxidation of metoprolol; drug oxidation phenotyping showed she was an extensive metaboliser of debrisoquine and hence metoprolol.

For a discussion of the relationship between polymorphic oxidation of metoprolol and the incidence of adverse effects, see Metabolism, under Pharmacokinetics, below.

1. Larrey D, *et al.* Metoprolol-induced hepatitis: rechallenge and drug oxidation phenotyping. *Ann Intern Med* 1988; **108:** 67–8.

Interactions

The interactions associated with beta blockers are discussed on p.1228.

Antivirals. US licensed product information for *ritonavir* warns that ritonavir may increase concentrations of metoprolol and that the dose of metoprolol may need to be reduced if used together.

Pharmacokinetics

Metoprolol is readily and completely absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract but is subject to considerable first-pass metabolism, with a bioavailability of about 50%. Peak plasma concentrations vary widely and occur about 1.5 to 2 hours after a single oral dose. It is moderately lipid-soluble.

Metoprolol is widely distributed; it crosses the blood-brain barrier and the placenta, and is distributed into breast milk. It is about 12% bound to plasma protein. It is extensively metabolised in the liver, mainly by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme CYP2D6, and undergoes oxidative deamination, *O*-dealkylation followed by oxidation, and aliphatic hydroxylation. The metabolites are excreted in the urine with only small amounts of unchanged metoprolol. The rate of metabolism by CYP2D6 is determined by genetic polymorphism; the half-life of metoprolol in fast hydroxylators is stated to be 3 to 4 hours, whereas in poor hydroxylators it is about 7 hours.

The elderly. Several studies[1-3] indicate that age-related physiological changes have negligible effects on the pharmacokinetics of metoprolol.

1. Quarterman CP, *et al.* The effect of age on the pharmacokinetics of metoprolol and its metabolites. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; **11:** 287–94.
2. Regårdh CG, *et al.* Pharmacokinetics of metoprolol and its metabolite α-OH-metoprolol in healthy, non-smoking, elderly individuals. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; **24:** 221–6.
3. Larsson M, *et al.* Pharmacokinetics of metoprolol in healthy, elderly, non-smoking individuals after a single dose and two weeks of treatment. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1984; **27:** 217–22.

Metabolism. Metoprolol is metabolised by the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme CYP2D6 and therefore exhibits a debrisoquine-type genetic polymorphism.[1-3] Poor, intermediate, extensive, and ultrarapid metabolisers of metoprolol have been identified, and studies[4-6] have confirmed that plasma-metoprolol concentrations correlate with metaboliser status. However, the clinical relevance of these differences is less clear. A retrospective study[7] found that the proportion of poor metabolisers among patients who had severe adverse effects was higher than expected, but other studies[8,9] have found no correlation between the incidence of adverse effects and metaboliser status. Controlled studies in patients with hypertension[5] and in healthy subjects[4] have found that there is little or no relationship between plasma concentrations or metaboliser status and either the incidence of adverse effects or the response to therapy.

The subject may be further confused by variations in the phenotype between ethnic groups. Although the incidence of the poor metaboliser phenotype in whites of European origin is reported to be about 9%, a study in 138 Nigerians[10] failed to identify evidence of polymorphic metabolism, and the authors caution against extrapolation of data between different racial groups.

1. Lennard MS, *et al.* Defective metabolism of metoprolol in poor hydroxylators of debrisoquine. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1982; **14:** 301–3.
2. Lennard MS, *et al.* Oxidation phenotype—a major determinant of metoprolol metabolism and response. *N Engl J Med* 1982; **307:** 1558–60.
3. McGourty JC, *et al.* Metoprolol metabolism and debrisoquine oxidation polymorphism—population and family studies. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1985; **20:** 555–66.
4. Kirchheiner J, *et al.* Impact of the ultrarapid metabolizer genotype of cytochrome P450 2D6 on metoprolol pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2004; **76:** 302–12.
5. Zineh I, *et al.* Pharmacokinetics and CYP2D6 genotypes do not predict metoprolol adverse events or efficacy in hypertension. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2004; **76:** 536–44.
6. Ismail R, Teh LK. The relevance of CYP2D6 genetic polymorphism on chronic metoprolol therapy in cardiovascular patients. *J Clin Pharm Ther* 2006; **31:** 99–109.
7. Wuttke H, *et al.* Increased frequency of cytochrome P450 2D6 poor metabolizers among patients with metoprolol-associated adverse effects. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2002; **72:** 429–37.
8. Clark DWJ, *et al.* Adverse effects from metoprolol are not generally associated with oxidation status. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1984; **18:** 965–6.
9. Fux R, *et al.* Impact of CYP2D6 genotype on adverse effects during treatment with metoprolol: a prospective clinical study. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2005; **78:** 378–87.
10. Iyun AO, *et al.* Metoprolol and debrisoquin metabolism in Nigerians: lack of evidence for polymorphic oxidation. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 1986; **40:** 387–94.

Pregnancy. The clearance of metoprolol was increased fourfold in 5 pregnant women during the last trimester, compared with that some months after delivery; this was probably due to enhanced hepatic metabolism in the pregnant state.[1]

The disposition of metoprolol was investigated in neonates of mothers treated with metoprolol 50 to 100 mg twice daily.[2] In 15 of the 17 neonates plasma-metoprolol concentrations increased in the first 2 to 5 hours of the postnatal period, then declined over the next 15 hours; 5 of these infants had no detectable metoprolol concentrations in the umbilical plasma. No infant showed signs of beta blockade.

1. Högstedt S, *et al.* Increased oral clearance of metoprolol in pregnancy. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1983; **24:** 217–20.
2. Lundborg P, *et al.* Disposition of metoprolol in the newborn. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1981; **12:** 598–600.

Renal impairment. A single dose of a modified-release tablet of metoprolol produced similar plasma-metoprolol concentrations and values for the area under the concentration/time curve in both normal subjects and those with renal impairment.[1] Mean plasma concentrations of the metabolite α-hydroxymetoprolol were increased two to threefold in subjects with renal impairment compared with normal subjects but such a rise was not considered likely to contribute to beta blockade.

1. Lloyd P, *et al.* The effect of impaired renal function on the pharmacokinetics of metoprolol after single administration of a 14/190 metoprolol OROS system. *Am Heart J* 1990; **120:** 478–82.

Uses and Administration

Metoprolol is a cardioselective beta blocker (p.1225). It is reported to lack intrinsic sympathomimetic activity and to have little or no membrane-stabilising activity.

It is used in the management of hypertension (p.1171), angina pectoris (p.1157), cardiac arrhythmias (p.1160), myocardial infarction (p.1175), and heart failure (p.1165). It is also used in the management of hyperthyroidism (p.2165) and in the prophylactic treatment of migraine (p.616).

Metoprolol is given orally and intravenously as the tartrate. Modified-release tablets usually contain the tartrate or the succinate, but the fumarate has also been used. Doses are usually expressed in terms of the tartrate; 95 mg of metoprolol fumarate or metoprolol succinate is equivalent to about 100 mg of metoprolol tartrate.

The bioavailability of metoprolol is increased if taken with food and it has been recommended that some preparations are taken with or immediately after a meal.

Reduced doses should be given to patients with hepatic impairment.