even a low dose of liquorice may induce sodium overload in those consuming high amounts of sodium chloride.[3]

1. Walker BR, Edwards CR. Licorice-induced hypertension and syndromes of apparent mineralocorticoid excess. *Endocrinol Metab Clin North Am* 1994; **23:** 359–77.
2. Dobbins KRB, Saul RF. Transient visual loss after licorice ingestion. *J Neuroophthalmol* 2000; **20:** 38–41.
3. Frey FJ, Ferrari P. Pastis and hypertension—what is the molecular basis? *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 2000; **15:** 1512–14.
4. van Uum SH. Liquorice and hypertension. *Neth J Med* 2005; **63:** 119–20.
5. Dellow EL, *et al.* Pontefract cakes can be bad for you: refractory hypertension and liquorice excess. *Nephrol Dial Transplant* 1999; **14:** 218–20.
6. Woywodt A, *et al.* Turkish pepper (extra hot). *Postgrad Med J* 2000; **76:** 426–8.
7. Janse A, *et al.* The old lady who liked liquorice: hypertension due to chronic intoxication in a memory-impaired patient. *Neth J Med* 2005; **63:** 149–50.
8. Russo S, *et al.* Low doses of liquorice can induce hypertension encephalopathy. *Am J Nephrol* 2000; **20:** 145–8.
9. Hall RC, Clemett RS. Central retinal vein occlusion associated with liquorice ingestion. *Clin Experiment Ophthalmol* 2004; **32:** 341.
10. Hussain RM. The sweet cake that reaches parts other cakes can't! *Postgrad Med J* 2003; **79:** 115–16.
11. Yoshida S, Takayama Y. Licorice-induced hypokalemia as a treatable cause of dropped head syndrome. *Clin Neurol Neurosurg* 2003; **105:** 286–7.
12. Ishiguchi T, *et al.* Myoclonus and metabolic alkalosis from licorice in antacid. *Intern Med* 2004; **43:** 59–62.
13. Elinav E, Chajek-Shaul T. Licorice consumption causing severe hypokalemic paralysis. *Mayo Clin Proc* 2003; **78:** 767–8.
14. Lin S-H, *et al.* An unusual cause of hypokalemic paralysis: chronic licorice ingestion. *Am J Med Sci* 2003; **325:** 153–6.
15. van den Bosch AE, *et al.* Severe hypokalaemic paralysis and rhabdomyolysis due to ingestion of liquorice. *Neth J Med* 2005; **63:** 146–8.
16. Bauchart J-J, *et al.* Alcohol-free pastis and hypokalaemia. *Lancet* 1995; **346:** 1701.
17. Firenzuoli F, Gori L. Rabdomiolisi da liquirizia. *Recenti Prog Med* 2002; **93:** 482–3.
18. Eriksson JW, *et al.* Life-threatening ventricular tachycardia due to liquorice-induced hypokalaemia. *J Intern Med* 1999; **245:** 307–10.
19. Haberer JP, *et al.* Severe hypokalaemia secondary to overindulgence in alcohol-free "pastis". *Lancet* 1984; **i:** 575–6.
20. Doeker BM, Andler W. Liquorice, growth retardation and Addison's disease. *Horm Res* 1999; **52:** 253–5.
21. Armanini D, *et al.* History of the endocrine effects of licorice. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes* 2002; **110:** 257–61.

Pregnancy. Studies in Finnish women indicated that heavy consumption of liquorice (equivalent to ≥ 500 mg/week of glycyrrhizic acid) during pregnancy was associated with an increased risk of preterm delivery.[1,2] Consumption of large amounts of liquorice was a social habit noted to occur in some northern European countries.

1. Strandberg TE, *et al.* Birth outcome in relation to licorice consumption during pregnancy. *Am J Epidemiol* 2001; **153:** 1085–8.
2. Strandberg TE, *et al.* Preterm birth and licorice consumption during pregnancy. *Am J Epidemiol* 2002; **156:** 803–5.

Uses and Administration

Liquorice is used as a flavouring and sweetening agent. It has demulcent and expectorant properties and has been used in cough preparations. It has ulcer-healing properties that may result from stimulation of mucus synthesis. It contains constituents that produce mineralocorticoid effects (see above). Liquorice may also possess some antispasmodic and laxative properties.

Deglycyrrhizinised liquorice has a reduced mineralocorticoid activity and has been used, usually with antacids, for the treatment of peptic ulcer disease (p.1702).

◊ Reviews.

1. Fiore C, *et al.* A history of the therapeutic use of liquorice in Europe. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2005; **99:** 317–24.

Preparations

Ph. Eur.: Liquorice Ethanolic Liquid Extract, Standardised;
USP 31: Licorice Fluidextract.

Proprietary Preparations (details are given in Part 3)
Braz.: Alcalergin; Brefus†; ***Cz.:*** Gallentee†; ***Fr.:*** Depiderm; Trio D†; ***Ger.:*** Fichtensirup N†; Lakriment Neu†; Suczulen mono†.

Multi-ingredient: numerous preparations are listed in Part 3.

Loperamide Hydrochloride

(BANM, USAN, rINNM)

Hidrocloruro de loperamida; Loperamid Hidroklorür; Loperamid hydrochlorid; Lopéramide, chlorhydrate de; Loperamid-hidroklorid; Loperamidhydroklorid; Loperamidi hydrochloridum; Loperamidihydrokloridi; Loperamido hidrocloridas; R-18553. 4-(4-*p*-Chlorophenyl-4-hydroxypiperidino)-*NN*-dimethyl-2,2-diphenylbutyramide hydrochloride.

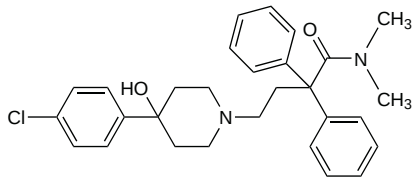
Лоперамида Гидрохлорид

$C_{29}H_{33}ClN_2O_2$,HCl = 513.5.

CAS — 53179-11-6 (loperamide); 34552-83-5 (loperamide hydrochloride).

ATC — A07DA03.

ATC Vet — QA07DA03.



(loperamide)

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

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Loperamide Hydrochloride). A white or almost white powder. It exhibits polymorphism. Slightly soluble in water; freely soluble in alcohol and in methyl alcohol. Protect from light.

USP 31 (Loperamide Hydrochloride). A white to slightly yellow powder. Slightly soluble in water and in dilute acids; freely soluble in chloroform and in methyl alcohol; very slightly soluble in isopropyl alcohol.

Loperamide Oxide *(BAN, rINN)*

Loperamid oxid; Lopéramide Oxyde; Lopéramide, oxyde de; Loperamidi oxidum; Loperamidioksidi; Loperamido oksidas; Loperamidoxid; Loperamidum Oxidum; Óxido de loperamida; R-58425.

Лоперамида Оксид

$C_{29}H_{33}ClN_2O_3$ = 493.0.

CAS — 106900-12-3.

ATC — A07DA05.

ATC Vet — QA07DA05.

Pharmacopoeias. *Eur.* (see p.vii) includes the monohydrate.

Ph. Eur. 6.2 (Loperamide Oxide Monohydrate; Loperamidi Oxidum Monohydricum). A white or almost white, slightly hygroscopic, powder. Practically insoluble in water; freely soluble in alcohol and in dichloromethane. Store in airtight containers. Protect from light.

Adverse Effects and Treatment

Abdominal pain or bloating, nausea, constipation, dry mouth, dizziness, fatigue, and hypersensitivity reactions including skin rashes have been reported. Loperamide has been associated with paralytic ileus, particularly in infants and young children, and deaths have been reported. Depression of the CNS, to which children or those with hepatic impairment may be more sensitive, may be seen in overdosage; constipation and urinary retention also occur. Naloxone hydrochloride (see p.1454) has been recommended for treatment of severe overdosage.

Toxicity. Toxic megacolon has been reported[1,2] after use of loperamide. Severe effects reported in young children have included loss of consciousness[3,4] and delirium.[5] Several cases of paralytic ileus have also occurred in children,[6,7] some of which were fatal.[6]

1. Brown JW. Toxic megacolon associated with loperamide therapy. *JAMA* 1979; **241:** 501–2.
2. Walley T, Milson D. Loperamide related toxic megacolon in Clostridium difficile colitis. *Postgrad Med J* 1990; **66:** 582.
3. Minton NA, Smith PGD. Loperamide toxicity in a child after a single dose. *BMJ* 1987; **294:** 1383.
4. Chanzy S, *et al.* Perte de connaissance chez une jeune enfant secondaire à la prise de lopéramide. *Arch Pediatr* 2004; **11:** 826–7.
5. Schwartz RH, Rodriguez WJ. Toxic delirium possibly caused by loperamide. *J Pediatr* 1991; **118:** 656–7.
6. Bhutta TI, Tahir KI. Loperamide poisoning in children. *Lancet* 1990; **335:** 363.
7. Dudink J, *et al.* Ileus na gebruik van loperamide bij een kind met acute diarree. *Ned Tijdschr Geneeskd* 2003; **147:** 670–2.

Precautions

Loperamide should not be used when inhibition of peristalsis is to be avoided, in particular where ileus or constipation occur, and should be avoided in patients with abdominal distension, acute inflammatory bowel disease, or antibiotic-associated colitis. Loperamide should not be used alone in patients with dysentery.

Loperamide should be used with caution in patients with hepatic impairment because of its considerable first-pass metabolism in the liver. It should also be used with caution in young children because of a greater variability of response in this age group; it is not recommended for use in infants (see Uses and Administration, below).

Breast feeding. Loperamide is distributed into breast milk in small amounts.[1] The American Academy of Pediatrics[2] states that there have been no reports of any clinical effect on the infant associated with the use of loperamide by breast-feeding mothers, and that therefore it may be considered to be usually compatible with breast feeding.

1. Nikodem VC, Hofmeyr GJ. Secretion of the antidiarrhoeal agent loperamide oxide in breast milk. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 1992; **42:** 695–6.
2. 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 18/01/06)

Interactions

Loperamide may increase the gastrointestinal absorption of desmopressin (p.2186).

Antifungals. A pharmacokinetic study in 12 healthy subjects found that *itraconazole* significantly increased peak plasma concentrations and area under the concentration-time curve of loperamide, and also prolonged the half-life of loperamide. Itraconazole also inhibited metabolism of loperamide to *N*-desmethylloperamide, suggesting that metabolism of loperamide in humans concurs with *in-vitro* data (see Metabolism, below). Use of itraconazole with gemfibrozil (see Cardiovascular Drugs, below) synergistically increased exposure to loperamide.[1]

1. Niemi M, *et al.* Itraconazole, gemfibrozil and their combination markedly raise the plasma concentrations of loperamide. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2006; **62:** 463–72.

Antivirals. In a single-dose study,[1] oral *ritonavir* significantly increased the bioavailability of loperamide, possibly through inhibition of the cytochrome P450 isoenzyme CYP3A4, and not necessarily as originally supposed through P-glycoprotein inhibition. No serious adverse effects occurred. Licensed information for one UK preparation of loperamide (*Imodium; Janssen-Cilag, UK*) states that the clinical relevance of the pharmacokinetic interaction with P-glycoprotein inhibitors such as ritonavir is unknown.

For the effect of loperamide on *saquinavir*, and the corresponding effect of the antiviral on loperamide concentrations, see Gastrointestinal Drugs, under Interactions of Indinavir, p.884.

1. Tayrouz Y, *et al.* Ritonavir increases loperamide plasma concentrations without evidence for P-glycoprotein involvement. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2001; **70:** 405–14.

Cardiovascular drugs. A pharmacokinetic study in 12 healthy subjects found that *gemfibrozil* significantly increased peak plasma concentrations and area under the concentration-time curve of loperamide, and also prolonged the half-life of loperamide. Gemfibrozil also inhibited metabolism of loperamide to *N*-desmethylloperamide, suggesting that metabolism of loperamide in humans concurs with *in-vitro* data (see Metabolism, below). Use of gemfibrozil with itraconazole (see Antifungals, above) synergistically increased exposure to loperamide.[1]

1. Niemi M, *et al.* Itraconazole, gemfibrozil and their combination markedly raise the plasma concentrations of loperamide. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2006; **62:** 463–72.

Co-trimoxazole. Use with co-trimoxazole increases the bioavailability of loperamide,[1] apparently by inhibiting its first-pass metabolism.

1. Kamali F, Huang ML. Increased systemic availability of loperamide after oral administration of loperamide and loperamide oxide with cotrimoxazole. *Br J Clin Pharmacol* 1996; **41:** 125–8.

Quinidine. A small study[1] found that giving quinidine with loperamide caused respiratory depression in 8 healthy subjects; when given with placebo, loperamide produced no respiratory depression. The authors supposed that inhibition of P-glycoprotein by quinidine had increased entry of loperamide into the CNS.

1. Sadeque AJM, *et al.* Increased drug delivery to the brain by P-glycoprotein inhibition. *Clin Pharmacol Ther* 2000; **68:** 231–7.

Pharmacokinetics

About 40% of a dose of loperamide is reported to be absorbed from the gastrointestinal tract to undergo first-pass metabolism in the liver and excretion in the faeces via the bile as inactive conjugate; there is slight urinary excretion. Little intact drug reaches the systemic circulation. The elimination half-life is reported to be about 10 hours.

Metabolism. Loperamide is metabolised to desmethylloperamide through *N*-demethylation. An *in-vitro* study established that this occurs mainly via cytochrome P450 isoenzymes CYP2C8 and CYP3A4; CYP2B6 and CYP2D6 also play a role. Loperamide is also a substrate of P-glycoprotein.[1]

1. Kim K-A, *et al.* Identification of cytochrome P450 isoforms involved in the metabolism of loperamide in human liver microsomes. *Eur J Clin Pharmacol* 2004; **60:** 575–81.

Uses and Administration

Loperamide is a synthetic derivative of pethidine that inhibits gut motility and may also reduce gastrointestinal secretions. It is given orally as an antidiarrhoeal drug as an adjunct in the management of acute and chronic diarrhoeas and may also be used in the man-