

Editorial Views

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Anesthetics and Central Cholinergic Function—A Perspective

ACETYLCHOLINE (ACh) was definitively shown to be a factor in mammalian nervous system transmission more than 50 years ago.^{1,2} Although ubiquitous within the mammalian organism, it has, nevertheless, persistently eluded the attempts of investigators to clarify and completely understand factors that regulate its synthesis, release and metabolism.

This could be attributed primarily to a number of very unique characteristics of the cholinergic transmitter, which complicate attempts to study it under "natural" conditions. First, ACh is rapidly hydrolyzed by acetylcholinesterase (AChE), which is present in high concentrations in the vicinity of ACh, *in vivo*.^{3,4} In order to compensate for this rapid hydrolytic effect, the cholinergic system appears under normal conditions to have tremendous regenerative powers, which maintain concentrations of this transmitter at nerve endings at a fairly constant level. Thus, levels of ACh at nerve endings "resist" perturbation under most conditions (Mann *et al.*,⁵ Karlson and MacIntosh⁶; see also review of this question by Browning⁷). Second, ACh is unique among known central neurotransmitter substances in that its immediate biologic precursor, choline (Ch), is also the product of the ACh hydrolysis by the enzyme AChE. Moreover, a portion of Ch resulting from this hydrolytic process is reincorporated within the cholinergic nerve terminal and utilized for the synthesis of new molecules.⁸⁻¹²

Consequently, attempts to quantitate the rate and extent of conversion of Ch to ACh, and its subsequent metabolism in brain, were hindered until

about a decade ago by the lack of the following factors: 1) efficient methods to kill the experimental animals; 2) availability of dependable, sensitive and specific methods for the analysis of levels and metabolism of Ch and its metabolites; 3) appropriate techniques with which to calculate the rate of turnover of brain ACh *in vivo*. Within the past decade, however, a number of workable solutions to the obstacles mentioned above have been found. As a result, the investigation of central cholinergic mechanisms *in vivo* has experienced an enthusiastic revival:

1) The introduction of novel techniques to kill experimental animals rapidly while inactivating endogenous enzymes within seconds, or even fractions thereof,¹³⁻¹⁶ has considerably improved the investigator's handling of the problem of post-mortem enzyme-induced changes in neurotransmitter levels in the tissues studied.

2) In the area of cholinergic research, particular stimulus has been provided by the emergence within the past ten years of a number of reliable and sensitive chemical assay techniques for the quantitative measurement of levels of Ch and ACh in very small concentrations in tissue extracts.¹⁷ Among these techniques, the capacity of the gas chromatographic method has further been extended by attaching a fraction collector to the gas chromatographic apparatus in such a manner as to enable a portion of the effluent to be analyzed for its radioactive content, while the remainder is analyzed for quantity of the measured substance. This modification enables the analysis of specific radioactivities of the substances studied and thus is

amenable to kinetic analyses and quantitation of ACh turnover rates.^{11,18} Another powerful extension of the gas chromatographic method to achieve the same goal has been via its coupling with mass spectrometry and the specific technique of stable isotopic dilution and selective ion monitoring.¹⁹⁻²¹

3) For the analysis of turnover rates of ACh *in vivo*, several dynamic approaches that have attempted to account for the considerations of rapid regeneration of cholinergic processes and the recirculation of Ch formed in the synaptic cleft as a result of hydrolysis of ACh have been developed. Most of these approaches are relatively new and still have to stand the test of time. Nevertheless, results obtained with these approaches have contributed important information towards the understanding of the modes of action of a number of pharmacologic agents on metabolism of ACh in whole brain, as well as in specific brain areas, in experimental animals (see review by Hanin and Costa²²).

Current knowledge regarding the role of cholinergic systems in anesthesia is relatively meager. Studies of neurotransmitter function in anesthetic states have focused mainly on the catecholamines and indoleamines. Cholinergic involvement has not received adequate attention, primarily because of the obstacles to accurate measurement of central cholinergic function *in vivo* described above. A few early studies, nevertheless, indicate that anesthetics generally depress central cholinergic activity in mammals.²³⁻³¹ Moreover, clinical evidence and studies in experimental animals³²⁻³⁵ utilizing various cholinergic agonists and antagonists have demonstrated that cholinergic manipulation will affect the anesthetic process. Such information, although fragmentary and sometimes contradictory, has, at least, provided documentation for some definitive participation of ACh in the mechanism of anesthesia.

It is not surprising, therefore, that recently several laboratories that are equipped to tackle the methodologic problems described earlier have sought to determine the nature and extent of brain ACh metabolic involvement in narcosis, *in vivo*.³⁶⁻³⁸ The paper in this issue by Ngai, Cheney and Finck is the result of one such study. Tracer kinetic analyses of ACh turnover rate *in vivo* utilizing gas chromatography have been employed following rapid inactivation of brain cholinergic enzymatic activity by microwave irradiation. Three types of anesthetics have been tested in rats: halothane, enflurane and ketamine. The expected reduction in brain ACh turnover rate was observed after administration of all three drugs. What is

most important is that in the case of each drug this effect was specific for specific brain areas. The results paralleled quite remarkably the electrophysiologic effects of these selected anesthetics in cortical and subcortical structures. This work by Ngai and co-investigators, while adhering to necessary methodologic precautions and utilizing sophisticated techniques, has thus demonstrated a causal relationship between neurochemical and electrophysiologic events induced in brain by anesthetic agents.

The cholinergic system in brain, of course, does not exist as an independent neurochemical entity. One should continuously keep in mind the fact that neurotransmitters in brain, some known, many others perhaps yet to be uncovered, act in concert with one another in a complex series of relationships. Thus, the effect of anesthetics in decreasing ACh turnover rate in a particular brain area may conceivably be due to an effect on some other neurotransmitter system in the brain, which in turn induces the depressogenic effect on the particular cholinergic system. Nevertheless, one has to start somewhere, in order to be capable of building onto existing data, and thus to help unravel the intricacies of neurochemical correlates of anesthetic function.

Where will such studies eventually lead? Quite possibly to the *in vivo* analysis of the effects of anesthetic agents on brain cholinergic and other neurotransmitter-related functions in man. At present, this may seem to be a utopic and unattainable goal. Recent advances in this direction utilizing stable isotope dilution and gas chromatographic/mass spectrometric analysis are, nevertheless, quite encouraging, and show promise of yielding important information.

Experiments such as those conducted by Ngai and co-investigators in animals will provide a basis for interpretation and elucidation of experimental observations obtained by eventual studies in man.

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