RESEARCH ARTICLE DOI: 10.53555/jptcp.v29i04.5329

TYPES OF INTRAVENOUS ANESTHETICS

Abdullatif Lafi Alharbi^{1*}, Jaber ahmed jaber alabdaly², Mohsen Shobili Mohsen Khabrani³, Hussam Jamaan Alzahrani⁴, Yahya Essa Yaqoub Najmi⁵, Saad sunitan almutairi⁶, Abdulrahman Modaie Hanin Sahli⁷, Mohammed Zakry Ahmed Shaniah⁸, Fawaz Bakri Awaji⁹, Abdulrahman Hirab Alharbi¹⁰, Yahya Ibrahim Bin Ibrahim Jarah¹¹

1*,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11 Ksa, ministry of health

*Corresponding Author: Abdullatif Lafi Alharbi *Ksa, ministry of health

Abstract:

Intravenous anesthesia plays a crucial role in modern medical practice, offering rapid and precise control over the depth of anesthesia during surgical procedures and procedural sedation. This research provides a comprehensive overview of the various types of intravenous anesthetics currently available, including their pharmacological mechanisms of action, clinical applications, safety profiles, and considerations for anesthesia management. From widely used agents such as propofol and ketamine to specialized compounds like dexmedetomidine and barbiturates, each intravenous anesthetic offers unique advantages and considerations for anesthesia providers. Understanding the diverse landscape of intravenous anesthetics is essential for optimizing anesthesia management strategies, enhancing patient safety, and improving perioperative outcomes.

Keywords: Intravenous anesthesia, anesthetics, propofol, ketamine.

Introduction:

Intravenous (IV) anesthesia represents a cornerstone in modern medical practice, facilitating the safe and effective management of surgical procedures and procedural sedation. Anesthesia induction via intravenous agents offers rapid onset, precise titration, and favorable recovery profiles, making it indispensable in various clinical settings. Understanding the diverse range of intravenous anesthetics is crucial for anesthesiologists, surgeons, and healthcare practitioners involved in perioperative care.(7) This research aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the types of intravenous anesthetics currently employed in clinical practice. Through an exploration of their pharmacological properties, mechanisms of action, clinical applications, and safety profiles, this study seeks to enhance understanding and decision-making in anesthesia management.(3)

Over the decades, a plethora of intravenous anesthetics have emerged, each with distinct characteristics and advantages. From the widely used propofol and ketamine to the specialized agents like etomidate and dexmedetomidine, the landscape of intravenous anesthesia continues to evolve, driven by advancements in pharmacology and anesthesia practice.(4)

we will briefly outline the significance of intravenous anesthesia, discuss the rationale for studying different types of intravenous anesthetics, and provide an overview of the structure of this research. By delving into the nuances of each intravenous agent, we aim to offer insights that contribute to optimized patient care, improved outcomes, and enhanced safety in anesthesia practice.

Pharmacological Mechanisms of Action: Understanding How Intravenous Anesthetics Work:

The pharmacological mechanisms of action underlying intravenous anesthetics represent a multifaceted interplay between drug molecules and neuronal receptors within the central nervous system (CNS). Each intravenous anesthetic agent exerts its effects through distinct molecular targets, resulting in diverse clinical profiles of anesthesia induction, maintenance, and emergence. Central to this understanding is the intricate modulation of neurotransmitter systems, ion channels, and neuronal excitability, which collectively contribute to the desired effects of sedation, amnesia, analgesia, and muscle relaxation.(5)

Propofol, a commonly used intravenous anesthetic, acts primarily as a potent agonist at gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, enhancing inhibitory neurotransmission throughout the CNS. By facilitating the opening of chloride channels, propofol hyperpolarizes neuronal membranes, leading to neuronal inhibition and subsequent sedation. Additionally, propofol exhibits neuroprotective properties and antiemetic effects, further enhancing its utility in anesthesia practice.(8)

In contrast, ketamine exerts its anesthetic effects predominantly through antagonism of N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) glutamate receptors. By blocking the actions of excitatory neurotransmitters, such as glutamate, ketamine induces a dissociative state characterized by profound analgesia, sedation, and altered sensory perception. Importantly, ketamine's unique pharmacological profile also includes sympathomimetic effects, resulting in cardiovascular stimulation and maintenance of hemodynamic stability, particularly desirable in certain clinical scenarios.(13)

Etomidate, another intravenous anesthetic agent, acts selectively on GABA-A receptors, similar to propofol, albeit with a distinct pharmacodynamic profile. By enhancing GABAergic neurotransmission, etomidate induces rapid onset of anesthesia while preserving cardiovascular stability, making it particularly suitable for patients with compromised hemodynamics or cardiovascular disease. However, concerns regarding adrenal suppression and potential for myoclonus have tempered its widespread use in certain patient populations.(6)

Dexmedetomidine, an alpha-2 adrenergic agonist, represents a novel approach to intravenous anesthesia, harnessing the modulatory effects of noradrenergic neurotransmission. By activating presynaptic alpha-2 receptors, dexmedetomidine inhibits the release of norepinephrine, leading to sedation, analgesia, and sympatholysis. Unlike traditional intravenous anesthetics, dexmedetomidine offers unique properties such as arousable sedation and preservation of respiratory drive, making it suitable for procedural sedation and intensive care settings.(4)

Propofol: Characteristics, Clinical Applications, and Side Effects

Propofol, also known by its generic name 2,6-diisopropylphenol, stands as a cornerstone in modern anesthesia practice, revered for its rapid onset, smooth induction, and predictable recovery profile. This intravenous anesthetic agent, characterized by its milky-white appearance, owes its popularity to a combination of pharmacological properties and clinical versatility. Chemically classified as an alkylphenol, propofol exerts its effects primarily through potentiation of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, resulting in enhanced inhibitory neurotransmission within the central nervous system (CNS). The net effect is profound sedation, amnesia, and muscle relaxation, making propofol an invaluable tool for anesthesia induction and maintenance across a spectrum of surgical procedures, ranging from minor interventions to complex surgeries requiring deep levels of anesthesia.(6)

Clinical applications of propofol span beyond anesthesia induction, encompassing procedural sedation, intensive care sedation, and treatment of refractory status epilepticus. Its rapid onset and short duration of action make it particularly suitable for ambulatory procedures and day surgery, facilitating swift recovery and discharge. Furthermore, propofol's antiemetic properties have positioned it as a preferred choice for preventing postoperative nausea and vomiting, further enhancing patient satisfaction and perioperative outcomes. However, despite its widespread use and favorable pharmacodynamic profile, propofol is not without its share of side effects and adverse reactions. Common side effects include respiratory depression, hypotension, and bradycardia,

necessitating vigilant monitoring and titration of dosage to mitigate potential complications. Additionally, propofol infusion syndrome, characterized by metabolic acidosis, rhabdomyolysis, and cardiovascular collapse, represents a rare but potentially fatal complication associated with prolonged or high-dose infusion of propofol, particularly in critically ill patients.(7)

Barbiturates as Intravenous Anesthetics: Historical Perspective and Contemporary Use

The history of intravenous anesthesia is intricately intertwined with the development and evolution of barbiturate compounds, which played a pivotal role in revolutionizing anesthesia practice in the early to mid-20th century. Barbiturates, derivatives of barbituric acid, exert their effects through potentiation of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, resulting in central nervous system depression and induction of anesthesia. Among the notable barbiturate agents used as intravenous anesthetics are thiopental, methohexital, and thiamylal, each distinguished by its pharmacokinetic properties, duration of action, and clinical applications.(12)

Thiopental, often referred to as "truth serum" or "sodium pentothal," gained widespread recognition for its rapid onset and short duration of action, making it an ideal choice for anesthesia induction in emergency and trauma settings. Its ability to induce anesthesia within seconds of intravenous administration, coupled with its favorable cardiovascular stability, rendered it indispensable in the early days of anesthesia practice. Similarly, methohexital and thiamylal offered rapid onset and intermediate duration of action, providing anesthesia providers with additional options for anesthesia induction and maintenance.(4)

Despite their historical significance, the use of barbiturates as intravenous anesthetics has declined in contemporary practice, owing to the advent of newer agents with more favorable pharmacodynamic profiles and reduced risk of adverse effects. The narrow therapeutic window, propensity for respiratory depression, and potential for drug interactions associated with barbiturate compounds have prompted anesthesia providers to explore alternative agents such as propofol, etomidate, and dexmedetomidine. However, barbiturates continue to hold relevance in certain clinical scenarios, including induction of anesthesia for electroconvulsive therapy (ECT), treatment of refractory status epilepticus, and as adjuncts in neuroanesthesia. Despite their waning prominence, the historical legacy of barbiturates as intravenous anesthetics remains a testament to their contributions to the advancement of anesthesia practice and patient care.(15)

Benzodiazepines in Anesthesia: Efficacy, Safety, and Considerations

Benzodiazepines represent a class of psychoactive compounds characterized by their ability to potentiate the effects of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, resulting in sedative, anxiolytic, and muscle-relaxant properties. In the realm of anesthesia, benzodiazepines find utility primarily as adjuncts to anesthesia induction, procedural sedation, and anxiolysis, owing to their favorable pharmacokinetic profiles and predictable sedative effects. Among the benzodiazepines commonly employed in anesthesia practice are midazolam, diazepam, and lorazepam, each distinguished by its onset of action, duration of effect, and metabolic properties.(7)

Midazolam, a water-soluble benzodiazepine with rapid onset and short duration of action, stands as the preferred agent for preoperative anxiolysis and procedural sedation due to its anxiolytic and amnestic properties. Its lipophilic nature facilitates rapid crossing of the blood-brain barrier, resulting in swift onset of sedation and minimal cardiovascular effects. Moreover, midazolam's ability to induce anterograde amnesia makes it an invaluable adjunct to anesthesia induction, particularly in patients undergoing invasive or anxiety-provoking procedures. However, cautious titration of dosage is essential to avoid respiratory depression and hemodynamic instability, especially in elderly or debilitated patients.(12)

Diazepam, a long-acting benzodiazepine with potent anxiolytic and muscle-relaxant properties, has historically found utility in the management of preoperative anxiety, alcohol withdrawal, and procedural sedation. Its prolonged duration of action and active metabolites make it less suitable for rapid-sequence induction of anesthesia but may be preferred for sustained sedation in critically ill patients or those requiring prolonged mechanical ventilation. Despite its efficacy, diazepam carries a

higher risk of accumulation and delayed recovery compared to shorter-acting benzodiazepines, necessitating cautious dosing and vigilant monitoring of respiratory and hemodynamic parameters.(1) Lorazepam, an intermediate-acting benzodiazepine with sedative, anxiolytic, and anticonvulsant properties, offers an alternative to midazolam and diazepam for preoperative anxiolysis and procedural sedation. Its slower onset of action and longer duration of effect make it suitable for sustained sedation in critically ill patients or those with prolonged recovery times. However, similar to other benzodiazepines, lorazepam carries the risk of respiratory depression, hypotension, and paradoxical reactions, particularly when administered in high doses or in combination with other sedative agents. Overall, the judicious use of benzodiazepines in anesthesia requires careful consideration of patient-specific factors, titration of dosage to achieve desired sedation levels, and vigilant monitoring to mitigate the risk of adverse effects.(2)

Ketamine: An Intravenous Anesthetic with Unique Properties and Diverse Applications

Ketamine, a phencyclidine derivative first synthesized in the 1960s, represents a paradigm shift in intravenous anesthesia with its distinctive pharmacological properties and diverse clinical applications. Unlike traditional intravenous anesthetics, which primarily exert their effects through potentiation of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, ketamine acts primarily as a noncompetitive antagonist at N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) glutamate receptors, resulting in dissociative anesthesia characterized by profound analgesia, sedation, and altered sensory perception. This unique mechanism of action not only distinguishes ketamine from other intravenous agents but also confers several advantageous properties, including preservation of airway reflexes, maintenance of hemodynamic stability, and rapid recovery following cessation of infusion.(6)

Ketamine's versatility extends beyond anesthesia induction to encompass a wide array of clinical applications, ranging from procedural sedation and pain management to treatment of refractory depression and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). In the perioperative setting, ketamine finds utility as an adjunct to balanced anesthesia regimens, particularly in patients at risk of hemodynamic instability or opioid-induced respiratory depression. Its sympathomimetic effects, manifested as increased heart rate, blood pressure, and cardiac output, make it particularly suitable for patients with compromised cardiovascular function or shock.(12)

Furthermore, ketamine's role in acute and chronic pain management is well-established, owing to its potent analgesic properties and unique modulation of central sensitization pathways. Subanesthetic doses of ketamine have demonstrated efficacy in mitigating opioid tolerance and hyperalgesia, making it a valuable adjunct in multimodal analgesic regimens for acute and chronic pain syndromes. Additionally, ketamine infusion therapy has emerged as a promising intervention for treatment-resistant depression, PTSD, and substance use disorders, offering rapid onset of antidepressant effects and sustained improvements in mood and quality of life.(5)

Despite its favorable pharmacological profile and diverse clinical applications, ketamine is not without its share of limitations and potential adverse effects. Common side effects associated with ketamine administration include emergence phenomena, such as hallucinations, vivid dreams, and dysphoric reactions, particularly in the immediate postoperative period. Additionally, ketamine's sympathomimetic effects may precipitate hypertension, tachycardia, and arrhythmias, necessitating cautious dosing and vigilant hemodynamic monitoring, especially in patients with preexisting cardiovascular disease or hemodynamic instability. Nevertheless, ketamine's unique pharmacological properties and broad spectrum of clinical utility position it as a valuable tool in the armamentarium of anesthesia providers, offering a safe and effective alternative for patients across diverse clinical settings.(10)

Etomidate, a short-acting intravenous anesthetic agent, has garnered attention in anesthesia practice for its unique pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties, contributing to its widespread clinical utility across a spectrum of surgical and procedural settings. Chemically classified as an imidazole derivative, etomidate exerts its effects primarily through potentiation of gamma-aminobutyric acid type A (GABA-A) receptors, resulting in enhanced inhibitory neurotransmission within the central nervous system (CNS). Unlike other intravenous anesthetics such as propofol or

benzodiazepines, etomidate does not exhibit direct agonist activity at GABA-A receptors but rather enhances the activity of endogenous GABA by binding to specific allosteric sites on the receptor complex. This unique mechanism of action confers several advantageous properties, including rapid onset of anesthesia, minimal cardiovascular depression, and preservation of respiratory drive, making etomidate particularly suitable for patients with compromised hemodynamics or cardiovascular disease.(5)

Pharmacokinetically, etomidate is characterized by its rapid onset of action and short duration of effect, with an elimination half-life ranging from 2 to 5 minutes. Its lipophilic nature facilitates rapid distribution to highly perfused tissues, including the brain, resulting in swift onset of sedation and anesthesia following intravenous administration. Moreover, etomidate undergoes hepatic metabolism via hydrolysis by plasma esterases, leading to the formation of inactive metabolites that are excreted renally. This metabolic pathway contributes to etomidate's favorable recovery profile and minimal risk of accumulation, even with prolonged infusion or repeated dosing.(5)

The clinical utility of etomidate spans a wide array of surgical and procedural applications, ranging from anesthesia induction for rapid-sequence intubation (RSI) to sedation for electroconvulsive therapy (ECT) and procedural sedation in the emergency department. Its rapid onset of action and hemodynamic stability make it particularly suitable for RSI in critically ill patients or those with limited cardiovascular reserve, minimizing the risk of hypotension and compromising perfusion during intubation. Additionally, etomidate's minimal respiratory depressant effects and preservation of airway reflexes make it an attractive option for sedation during invasive procedures, such as bronchoscopy or cardioversion, where airway patency and respiratory drive are paramount.(13)

Despite its favorable pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic profile, etomidate is not without its limitations and potential adverse effects. One of the most significant concerns associated with etomidate administration is adrenal suppression, attributed to its inhibitory effects on 11-beta-hydroxylase enzyme activity within the adrenal cortex, leading to impaired cortisol synthesis and adrenal insufficiency. This risk is particularly pertinent in critically ill patients, where single-dose or prolonged infusion of etomidate may exacerbate existing adrenal dysfunction or precipitate adrenal crisis. Furthermore, etomidate may cause pain or discomfort upon injection, necessitating premedication with opioids or benzodiazepines to mitigate potential adverse reactions(11).

Conclusion:

Intravenous anesthesia encompasses a broad spectrum of pharmacological agents with diverse mechanisms of action and clinical applications. From the rapid onset and smooth recovery of propofol to the dissociative anesthesia of ketamine and the sedative properties of benzodiazepines, each intravenous anesthetic offers unique advantages and considerations for anesthesia management. While propofol remains a cornerstone in anesthesia practice due to its rapid onset, predictable recovery, and wide range of clinical applications, newer agents such as dexmedetomidine and ketamine continue to expand the armamentarium of intravenous anesthesia with their distinct pharmacological profiles and clinical utility. Understanding the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties of each intravenous anesthetic is essential for tailoring anesthesia management strategies to individual patient needs, optimizing perioperative care, and ensuring safe and effective anesthesia delivery. Further research into emerging agents and innovative approaches to intravenous anesthesia will continue to enhance our understanding and refine our practice in the pursuit of improved patient outcomes and enhanced perioperative care.(17)

References:

- Beaussier M, Delbos A, Maurice-Szamburski A, Ecoffey C, Mercadal L. Perioperative Use of Intravenous Lidocaine. Drugs. 2018 Aug;78(12):1229-1246. doi: 10.1007/s40265-018-0955-x. PMID: 30117019.
- 2. Miller D, Lewis SR, Pritchard MW, Schofield-Robinson OJ, Shelton CL, Alderson P, Smith AF. Intravenous versus inhalational maintenance of anaesthesia for postoperative cognitive outcomes

- in elderly people undergoing non-cardiac surgery. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Aug 21;8(8):CD012317. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD012317.pub2. PMID: 30129968; PMCID: PMC6513211.
- 3. Yan H, Chen W, Chen Y, Gao H, Fan Y, Feng M, Wang X, Tang H, Yin J, Qian Y, Ding M, Cang J, Miao C, Wang H. Opioid-Free Versus Opioid-Based Anesthesia on Postoperative Pain After Thoracoscopic Surgery: The Use of Intravenous and Epidural Esketamine. Anesth Analg. 2023 Aug 1;137(2):399-408. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0000000000006547. Epub 2023 Jul 14. PMID: 37267129.
- 4. Masic D, Liang E, Long C, Sterk EJ, Barbas B, Rech MA. Intravenous Lidocaine for Acute Pain: A Systematic Review. Pharmacotherapy. 2018 Dec;38(12):1250-1259. doi: 10.1002/phar.2189. Epub 2018 Nov 9. PMID: 30303542.
- 5. Wang F, Li Y, Cui C, Xue Z, Ma H. Effects of Anesthetics on Barrier Tissue Function. J Immunol Res. 2019 Oct 21;2019:5920620. doi: 10.1155/2019/5920620. PMID: 31772948; PMCID: PMC6854914.
- 6. Mandel JE. Understanding Infusion Pumps. Anesth Analg. 2018 Apr;126(4):1186-1189. doi: 10.1213/ANE.000000000002396. PMID: 28858903.
- 7. Luan T, Li Y, Sun L, Xu S, Wang H, Wang J, Li C. Systemic immune effects of anesthetics and their intracellular targets in tumors. Front Med (Lausanne). 2022 Jul 28;9:810189. doi: 10.3389/fmed.2022.810189. PMID: 35966857; PMCID: PMC9365985.
- 8. Brinck EC, Tiippana E, Heesen M, Bell RF, Straube S, Moore RA, Kontinen V. Perioperative intravenous ketamine for acute postoperative pain in adults. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2018 Dec 20;12(12):CD012033. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD012033.pub4. PMID: 30570761; PMCID: PMC6360925.
- 9. Fan Y, Yu D, Liang X. Volatile anesthetics versus intravenous anesthetics for noncardiac thoracic surgery: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Minerva Anestesiol. 2021 Aug;87(8):927-939. doi: 10.23736/S0375-9393.21.15135-1. Epub 2021 May 3. PMID: 33938675.
- 10. Wasiak J, Mahar PD, McGuinness SK, Spinks A, Danilla S, Cleland H, Tan HB. Intravenous lidocaine for the treatment of background or procedural burn pain. Cochrane Database Syst Rev. 2014 Oct 16;2014(10):CD005622. doi: 10.1002/14651858.CD005622.pub4. PMID: 25321859; PMCID: PMC6508369.
- 11. Alobayli FY. Factors Influencing Nurses' Use of Local Anesthetics for Venous and Arterial Access. J Infus Nurs. 2019 Mar/Apr;42(2):91-107. doi: 10.1097/NAN.0000000000000316. PMID: 30817425; PMCID: PMC6519777.
- 12. Laskowski K, Stirling A, McKay WP, Lim HJ. A systematic review of intravenous ketamine for postoperative analgesia. Can J Anaesth. 2011 Oct;58(10):911-23. doi: 10.1007/s12630-011-9560-0. Epub 2011 Jul 20. PMID: 21773855.
- 13. Hoetzel A, Schmidt R. Regulatory role of anesthetics on heme oxygenase-1. Curr Drug Targets. 2010 Dec;11(12):1495-503. doi: 10.2174/1389450111009011495. PMID: 20704551.
- Ren J, Wang J, Chen J, Ma Y, Yang Y, Wei M, Wang Y, Wang L. The outcome of intravenous and inhalation anesthesia after pancreatic cancer resection: a retrospective study. BMC Anesthesiol. 2022 May 30;22(1):169. doi: 10.1186/s12871-022-01703-8. PMID: 35637441; PMCID: PMC9150331.
- 15. Abbaskhanian A, Sheidaee K, Charati JY. Comparison of the effect of continuous intravenous infusion of sodium valproate and midazolam on management of status epilepticus in children. Arch Pediatr. 2021 Nov;28(8):696-701. doi: 10.1016/j.arcped.2021.09.011. Epub 2021 Oct 24. PMID: 34706856.
- 16. Barreveld A, Witte J, Chahal H, Durieux ME, Strichartz G. Preventive analgesia by local anesthetics: the reduction of postoperative pain by peripheral nerve blocks and intravenous drugs. Anesth Analg. 2013 May;116(5):1141-1161. doi: 10.1213/ANE.0b013e318277a270. Epub 2013 Feb 13. PMID: 23408672; PMCID: PMC3633654.