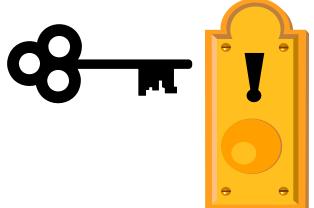


CRITERIA

- NT found in axon terminals
- NT released by action potentials
- Synthesis identified
- External application mimic normal Response
- Pharmacology same for normal and externally applied NT ~

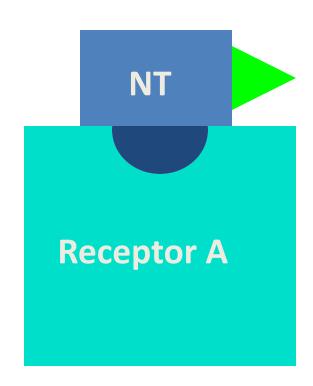
Lock & Key Model

NT binds to receptor
 NT = key
 Receptor = lock

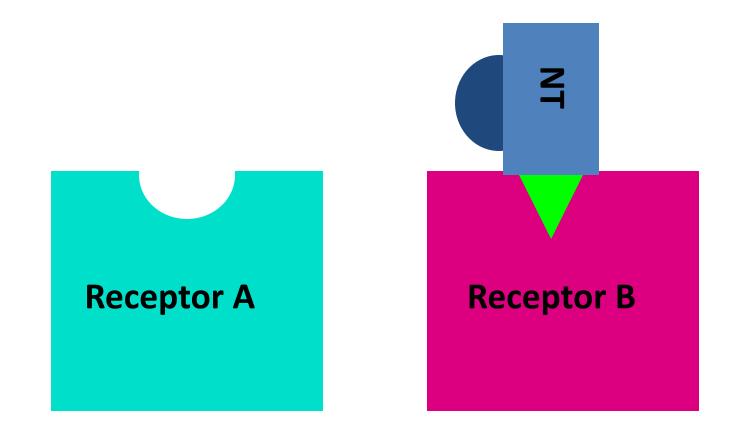


- Receptor changes shape determines if EPSP or IPSP receptor subtypes
- NOT NT ~

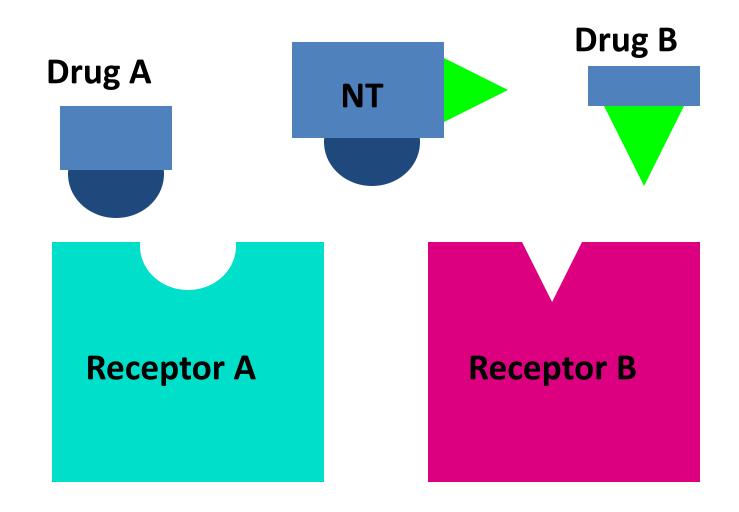
- ligand binds to receptor
- activation: + or ~



- Same NT can bind to different -R
- different part of NT ~



Specificity of drugs



Neurotransmitter synthesis pathways:

Phenylalanine --> Tyrosine --> L-Dopa --> Dopamine --> Norepinephrine

Tryptophan --> 5-Hydroxytryptophan (5-HTP) --> Serotonin (5-Hydroxytryptamine)

Choline + Acetyl-CoA --> Acetylcholine

Glutamic acid --> GABA (gamma-amino-butyric-acid)

Serotonin

Synthesis and metabolism

- a. tryptophan hydroxylase
- b. l-aromatic acid decarboxylase

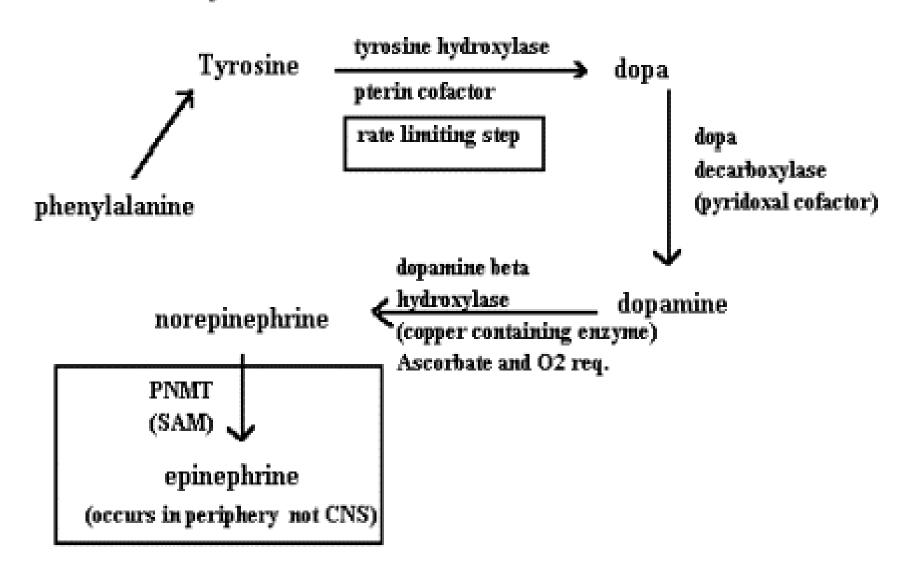
substrate availability is rate limiting step tryptophan hydroxylase is rate limiting enzyme

serotonin (5HT)
$$\xrightarrow{a.}$$
 $\xrightarrow{b.}$ 5HIAA (5hydroxyindolacetic acid)

- a. MAO
- Aldehyde dehydroxylase

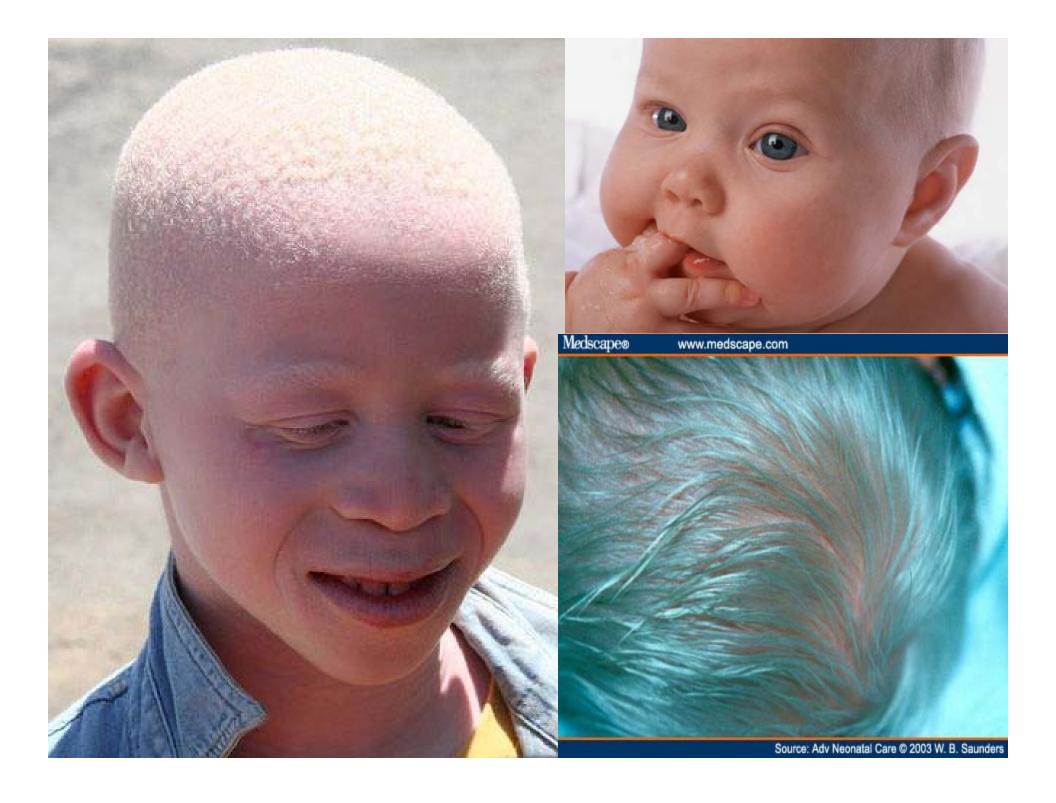
Catecholamines (dopamine and norepinephrine)

synthesis and metabolism



The genetic disorder phenylketonuria (PKU) is the inability to metabolize phenylalanine.

- Individuals with this disorder are known as "phenylketonurics" and must regulate their intake of phenylalanine.
- •A (rare) "variant form" of phenylketonuria called hyperphenylalaninemia is caused by the inability to synthesize a coenzyme called **biopterin**, which can be supplemented.
- •Pregnant women with hyperphenylalaninemia may show similar symptoms of the disorder (high levels of phenylalanine in blood) but these indicators will usually disappear at the end of gestation.
- Individuals who cannot metabolize phenylalanine must monitor their intake of protein to control the buildup of phenylalanine as their bodies convert protein into its component amino acids.



Neurotransmitters

- · Acetylcholine (AcH)
- · Dopamine (DA)
- · Histamine
- · Norepinephrine (NE)
- · Epinephrine
- · Serotonin (5HT)

Peptides

- $\cdot \ \mathsf{GammaAminobutyric}$
- Acid (GABA)
- · Glutamate
- · Aspartate
- · Glycine

Neuropeptides

- · Insulin
- · Betaendorphin
- · Neuropeptide Y
- · Calcitonin

Neurotransmitters found in the nervous system

EXCITATORY

- Acetylcholine
- Aspartate
- Dopamine
- Histamine
- Norepinephrine
- Epinephrine
- Glutamate
- Serotonin

INHIBITORY

- GABA
- Glycine

Major Neurotransmitters in the Body

Neurotransmitter	Role in the Body	
Acetylcholine	A neurotransmitter used by the spinal cord neurons to control muscles and by many neurons in the brain to regulate memory. In most instances, acetylcholine is excitatory.	
Dopamine	The neurotransmitter that produces feelings of pleasure when released by the brain reward system. Dopamine has multiple functions depending on where in the brain it acts. It is usually inhibitory.	
GABA (gamma-aminobutyric acid)	The major inhibitory neurotransmitter in the brain.	
Glutamate	The most common excitatory neurotransmitter in the brain.	
Glycine	A neurotransmitter used mainly by neurons in the spinal cord. It probably always acts as an inhibitory neurotransmitter.	
Norepinephrine	Norepinephrine acts as a neurotransmitter and a hormone. In the peripheral nervous system, it is part of the flight-or-flight response. In the brain, it acts as a neurotransmitter regulating normal brain processes. Norepinephrine is usually excitatory, but is inhibitory in a few brain areas.	
Serotonin	A neurotransmitter involved in many functions including mood, appetite, and sensory perception. In the spinal cord, serotonin is inhibitory in pain pathways.	

Summary:

Neurotransmitter Molecule	Derived From	Site of Synthesis
Acetylcholine	Choline	CNS, parasympathetic nerves
Serotonin 5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)	Tryptophan	CNS, chromaffin cells of the gut, enteric cells
GABA	Glutamate	CNS
Histamine	Histidine	hypothalamus
Epinephrine synthesis pathway	Tyrosine	adrenal medulla, some CNS cells
Norpinephrine synthesis pathway	Tyrosine	CNS, sympathetic nerves
Dopamine synthesis pathway	Tyrosine	CNS
Nitric oxide, NO	Arginine	CNS, gastrointestinal tract

Neurotransmitter Criteria

Neuroscientists have set up a few guidelines or criteria to prove that a chemical is really a neurotransmitter. Not all of the neurotransmitters that you have heard about may actually meet every one of these criteria.

The chemical must be produced within a neuron.



The chemical must be found within a neuron.



When a neuron is stimulated (depolarized), a neuron must release the chemical.



When a chemical is released, it must act on a post-synaptic receptor and cause a biological effect.



After a chemical is released, it must be inactivated.

Inactivation can be through a reuptake mechanism or by an enzyme that stops the action of the chemical.



If the chemical is applied on the post-synaptic membrane, it should have the same effect as when it is released by a neuron.



Acetylcholine

2. Central anatomy-interneurons of striatum

pedunculopontine nucleus-projects to
thalamus

nucleus basalis-projects to cortex

Types of NT Acetylcholine (ACh)

1. this NT has 2 types of receptors

A. nicotinic receptors:

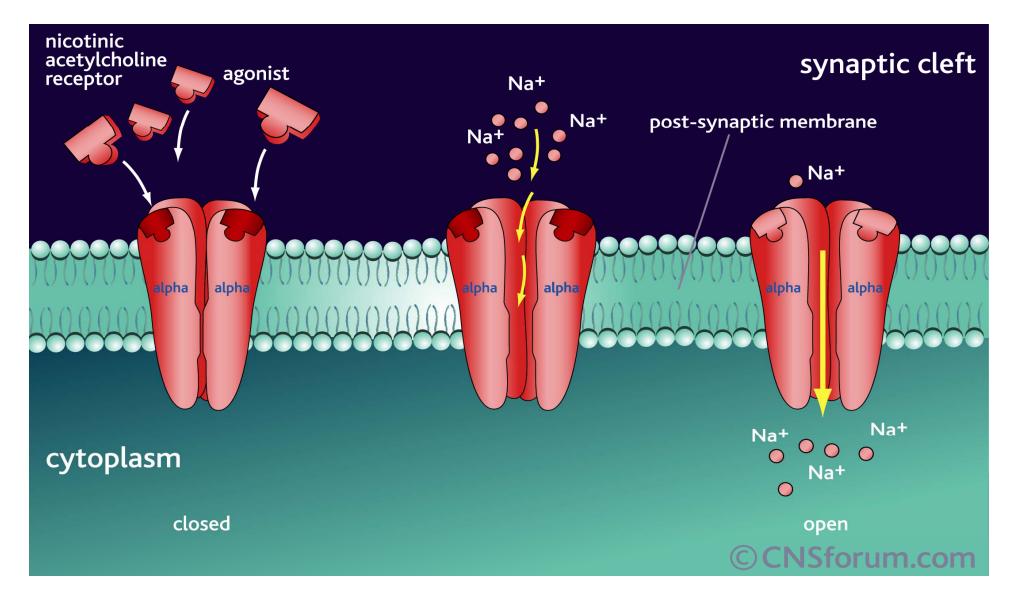
a. agonist: is nicotineb. antagonist: is curare

B. muscarinic receptors:

a. agonist: is muscarine

b. antagonist: in atropine (deadly nightshade

- 2. deactivated by acetylcholinesterase (AChE) & choline is reused
- 3. physostigmine: inhibits AChE (agonist) but is reversible.
- 4. **botulinum toxin** prevents the release of ACH from the terminal button (antagonist)
- 5. black widow spider venom causes ACH terminals to release ACH (agonist)

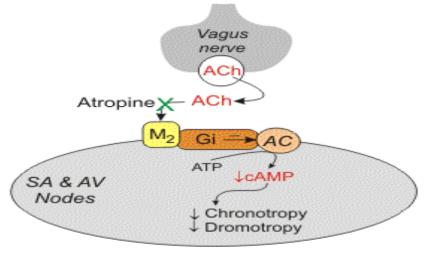


- •The nicotinic acetylcholine receptor is one of the main mediators of neurotransmission.
- •This receptor is activated by the binding of two acetylcholine molecules.
- •As a ligand gated ion channel it permits the movement of positively charged ions from the synaptic cleft into the cytoplasm.

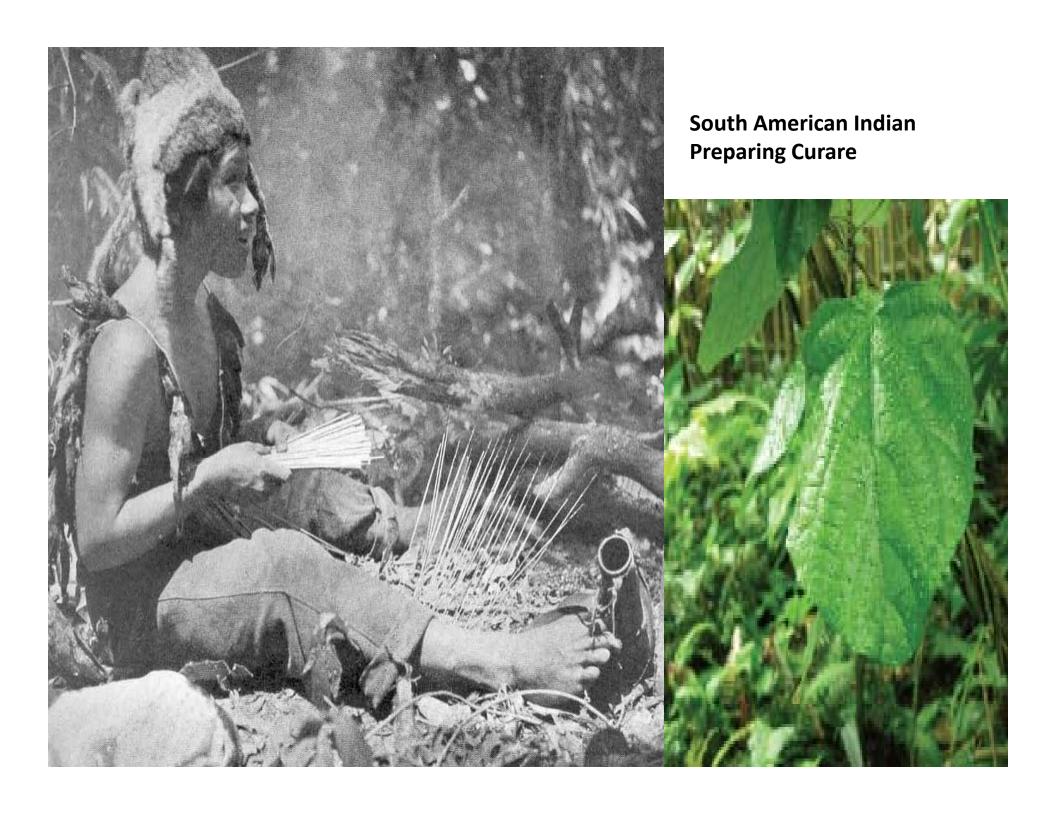


<u>Amanita muscaria</u>, the mushroom from which muscarine was isolated.

- •Muscarinic receptors, or mAChRs, are acetylcholine receptors that form G protein-receptor complexes in the cell membranes of certain neurons and other cells.
- •They play several roles, including acting as the main end-receptor **stimulated by acetylcholine released from postganglionic fibers in the parasympathetic nervous system.**



Abbreviations: ACh, acetylcholine; M2, muscarinic receptor; AC, adenylate cyclase; SA, sinoatrial; AV, atrioventricular





 Both botulinum toxin (BoTx) and black widow spider venom (b.w.s.v.) cause a presynaptic •block of neuromuscular transmission but each has a different mode of action. BoTx impairs •the release of acetylcholine (ACh) from motor nerve terminals and causes prolonged paralysis of skeletal muscle. Recovery from paralysis is slow and

associated with sprouting

Acetylcholine - ACh

- Most abundant NT in Peripheral N.S.
 - also found in Central N.S.
- Precursor = choline nutrient
- Degraded by acetylcholinesterase-
 - AChE
 - Membrane bound pre- & postsynaptic
- Nicotinic receptor ionotropic
- Muscarinic receptor metabotropic ~

Ach - Distrubution

- Peripheral N.S.
- Excites somatic muscle
- Autonomic NS
 - Ganglia
 - Parasympathetic NS
 - Neuroeffector junction

Central N.S. - widespread Hippocampus Hypothalamus

Cholinergic Agonists

• Direct

- Muscarine
- Nicotine
- small doses

• Indirect

AChE Inhibitors ~

AChE inhibitors

- Physostigmine
- Organophosphates irreversible
 - DFP
 - Soman & Sarin
 - Malathion*
- Agonist or Antagonist?
 indirect agonist

Cholinergic Antagonists

Direct

Nicotinic - Curare

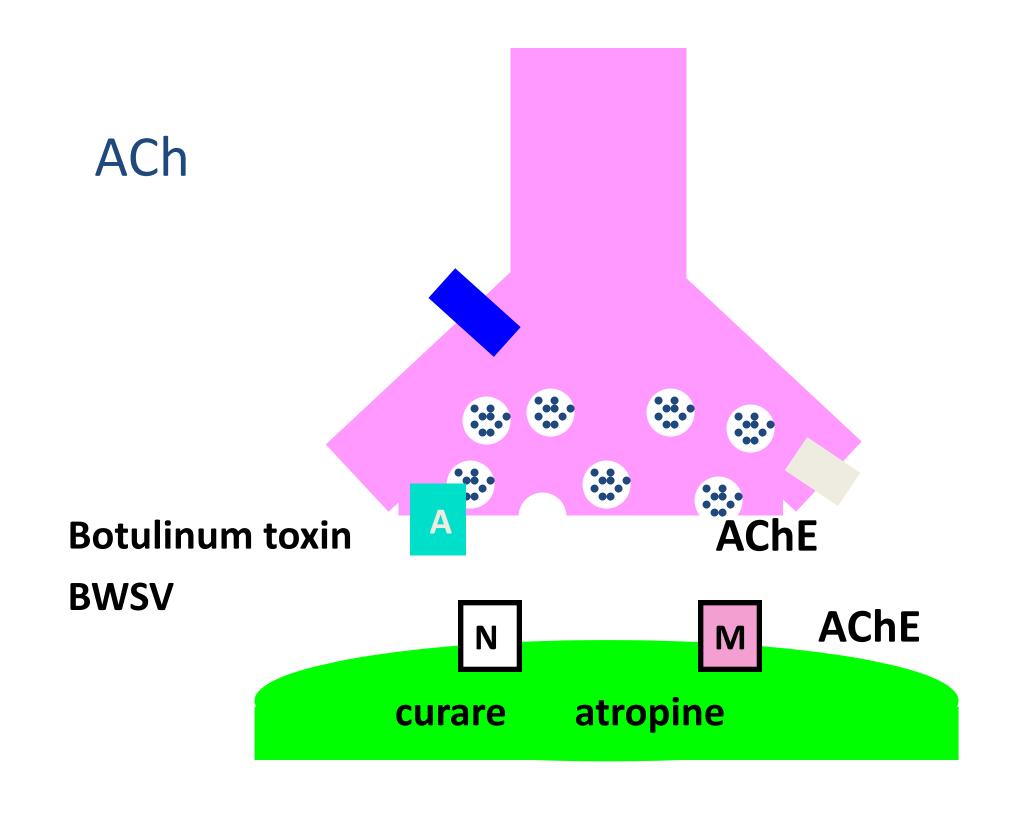
Muscarinic - Atropine

Scopolamine

Indirect

Botulinum Toxin

Black Widow Spider Venom ~



Monoamines

neurotransmitters and <u>neuromodulators</u>
All monoamines work thru metabotropic receptors
All monoaminesare derived from aromatic amino
acids like **phenylalanine**, **tyrosine**, **tryptophan**, **and the thyroid hormones by the action of aromatic amino acid decarboxylase enzymes**.

Monoamine oxidase (MAO) & catechol-O-methyltransferase (COMT) deactivate these. Monoamine oxidase A (MAOA) is an enzyme involved in the metabolism of the monoamines, eg 5-HT and noradrenaline.

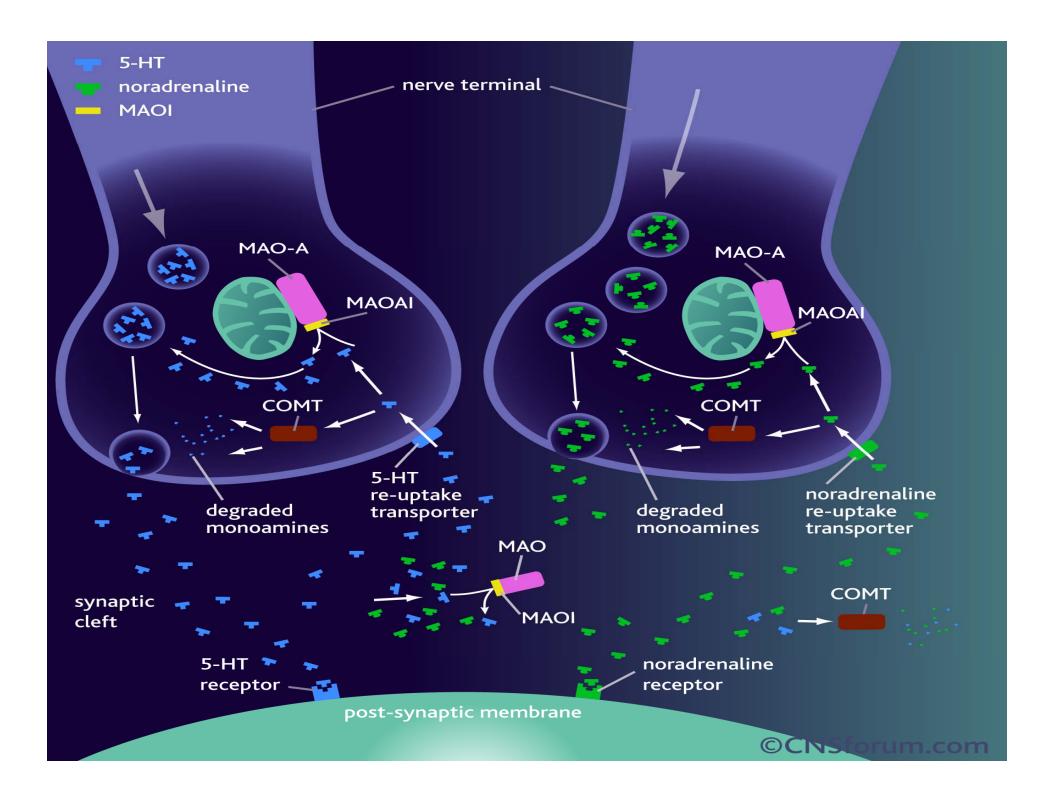
1. The drug **reserpine** prevents the storage of the monoamines

Types of monoamines:

I. Indolamines:

Serotonin (5-HT)

- A. produced in the raphe nuclei in the midline of the pons & medulla
- B. the drug **parachlorophenylalanine** (PCPA) blocks tryptophan hydroxylase & prevents the synthesis of 5-HT (an antagonist)
 - C. **iproniazid** block MAO (agonists)



MONOAMINES EXAMPLES

Histamine (His/H is Diamine)

Catecholamines:

- Dopamine (DA)
- Noradrenaline (NA) (Norepinephrine, NE)
- Adrenaline (Epinephrine)

Tryptamines:

- Serotonin (5-HT)
- Melatonin

Trace amines:

- •β-Phenylethylamine (PEA, β-PEA)
- Tyramine
- Tryptamine

Monoamines

Catecholamines

- Dopamine DA
 - Dopaminergic
- Norepinephrine NE
 - Noradrenergic
- Epinephrine E
 - Adrenergic ~

• Indolamines

__Serotonin - 5-HT

Serotonergic

Monoamines

Terminated by...

- reuptake
- monoamine oxidase MAO
- catechol-O-methyltranferase COMT
- •also in liver
- Reserpine ---> leaky vesicles depletes monoamines ~

Monoamines **MAO** Reserpine A **COMT** MAO

Indirect Monoamine Agonists

• MAOIs

Iproniazid

- Reuptake blockers
 - Tricyclic antidepressants
 - Imipramine
 - Desipramine

Cocaine & Amphetamine

Catecholamines:

The amino acid tyrosine is the precursor

NT is released thru axononal varicosities: swellings on the axon

1. Norepinephrine (NE) noradrenalin

A. in the CNS this is produced in the locus ceruleus (nucleus in midbrain) & is distributed though out the CNS

2. <u>Epinephrine (E) adrenaline</u>

- A. works at the same receptors as NE
- B. stimulates the sympathetic nervous system
- C. ephedrine: alpha & beta receptor agonist
- D. propranolol: beta receptor blocker has antihypertensive effects

3 Dopamine (DA)

- A. produced in substantia nigra & ventral tegmental area (midbrain) & sent to the cortex, limbic system, hypothalamus, & basal ganglia
- B. implicated in movement disorders e.g., in Parkinson's disease (L-DOPA)
- C. cocaine and amphetamine work by preventing reuptake
- D. apomorphine: stimulates only autoreceptors (an antagonist)

Dopamine

 Only in central nervous systems mostly inhibitory systems

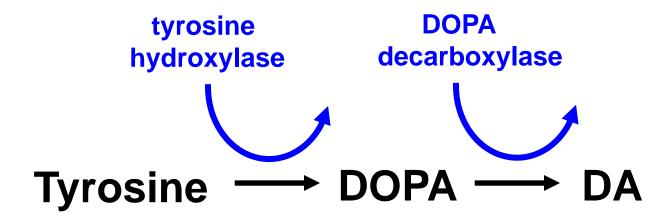
Controls arousal levels and motor control in many parts of the brain. When levels are severely depleted in Parkinson's disease, patients are unable to move voluntarily. LSD and other hallucinogenic drugs are thought to work on the dopamine system.

- Reward
- Schizophrenia
- Movement
 - Nigrostriatal Pathway
- At least 5 DA-R types: D₁, D₂,D3 etc.

Dopaminergic Drugs

- Agonist
 - L-dopa
- Antagonists
 - Chlorpromazine
 - D_1
 - Haloperidol
 - D₂

Dopamine Synthesis



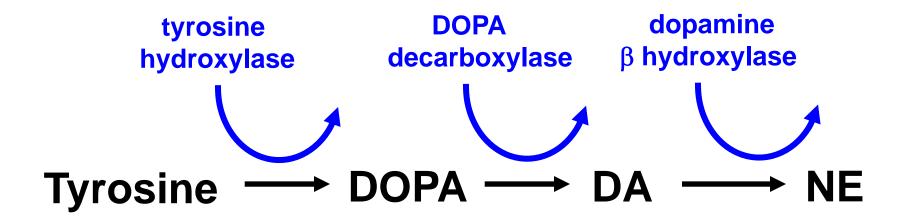
Norepinephrine

- Peripheral N.S.
 - Sympathetic neuroeffector junction
 - Adrenal glands
- Central N.S.
 - Hypothalamus
 - Locus coeruleus
- Alpha & Beta receptor subtypes
 - NE $_{\alpha}$ & NE $_{\beta}$ ~

Noradrenergic Drugs

- Agonists
 - Mescaline
 - Ephedrine
- Antagonist
 - Propranalol -
 - beta receptors ~

Norepinephrine Synthesis



SERINEPHRINE

DOPANIA

ALERTNESS ENERGY

MOOD

ANXIETY

OBSESSIONS AND COMPULSIONS

SEROTONIN

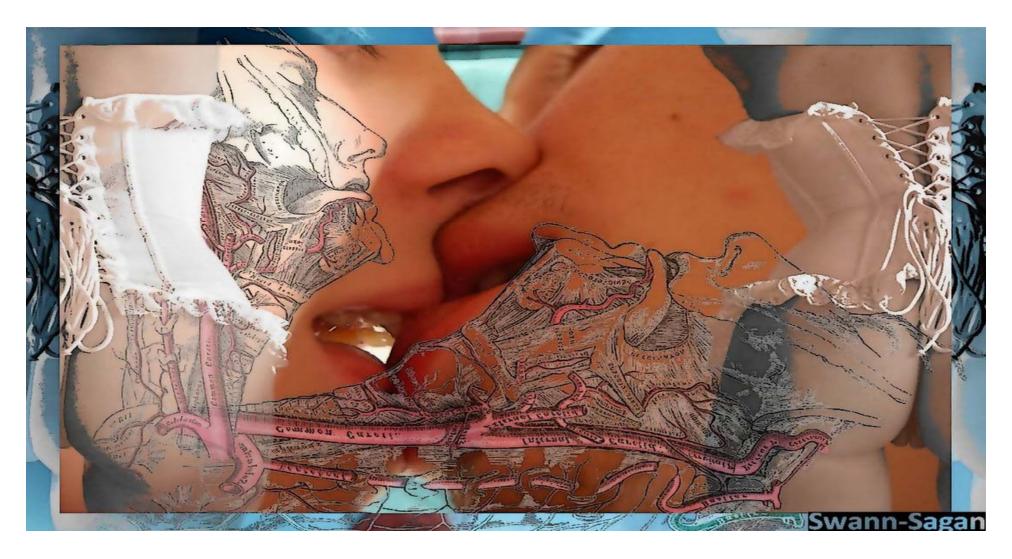
Serotonin

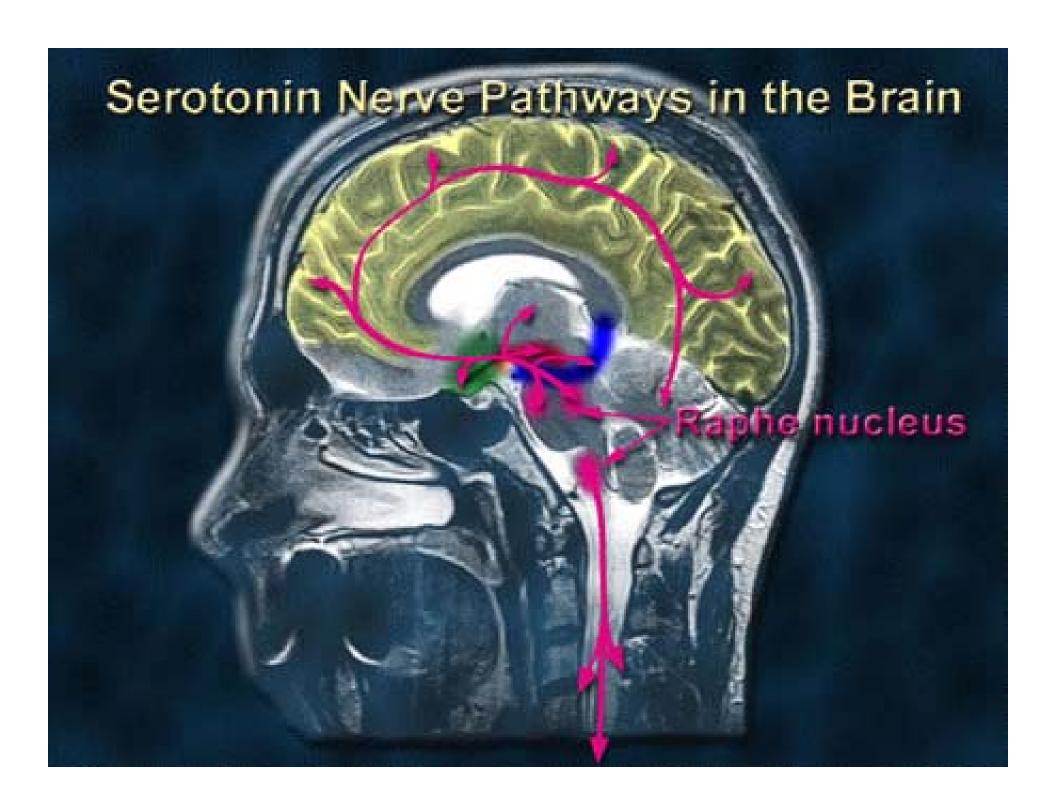
- NOT a catecholamine
- Peripheral
 98% in blood & smooth muscle
- Central N.S.

Raphe nucleus Hypothalamus

R subtypes: 5HT₁ & 5HT₂ ~



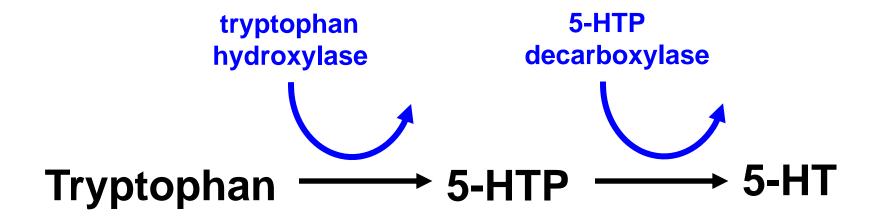




Sertonergic Drugs

- Agonists
 - SSRIs
 - Selective Serotonin Reuptake Inhibitors
 - Buspirone
 - MDMA
 - **Ecstacy**

Serotonin Synthesis



Gamma-aminobutyric acid

- GABA GABAergic
- Major NT in brain inhibitory system
- Receptor subtypes

```
GABA<sub>△</sub> - controls Cl- channel
```

GABA_R - controls K+ channel

Precursor = glutamate ~

Neuropeptide

- Substance P pain signaling
- Endorphins analgesia, euphoria ~

Endorphins

Enkephalins and Endorphins

These are opioids that, like the drugs heroine and morphine, modulate pain, reduce stress etc.

They may be involved in the mechanisms of physical dependence.

Opioids

Dynorphin

- met-enkephalin
- leu-enkephalin
- Beta-endorphin

Agonists

- morphine
- heroin
- codeine

Antagonists

- naloxone
- naltrexone ~

Other NTs

- Excitatory amino acids
 - Glutamate & Aspartate
- Histamine
 - Inflammatory Response
- Nitric Oxide It's a gas
- Anandamide

Glutamate

- The brain's major excitatory neurotransmitter,
- vital for forging the links between neurons that are the basis of learning and longterm memory.

Neurotransmitter deficiency over 60 condition are related

- Depression
- Anxiety
- Panic Attacks
- •Insomnia/Sleep disorders
- Premenstrual Tension
- •Fibromyalgia
- Obesity
- Anorexia
- •Bulimia
- •"Hypoglycemia"
- •Chronic pain states
- Migraines
- ADD/ADHD

Three Drugs (of many) which affect Neurotransmission

Methamphetamine



seattlepi.nwsource.com/ methamphetamines/

Nicotine



Alcohol



science.howstuffworks.com/ alcohol.htm

Methamphetamine alters **Dopamine** transmission in two ways:

- 1. Enters dopamine vesicles in axon terminal causing release of NT
- 2. Blocks dopamine transporters from pumping dopamine back into the transmitting neuron

More dopamine in the Synaptic Cleft causes neurons to fire more often than normal resulting in a euphoric feeling



seattlepi.nwsource.com/ methamphetamines/



NIH Publication No. 00-4871





- 1. After the drug wears off, **dopamine** levels drop, and the user "crashes". The euphoric feeling will not return until the user takes more **methamphetamine**
- 2. Long-term use of methamphetamine causes dopamine axons to wither and die.
- 3. Note that **cocaine** also blocks **dopamine** transporters, thus it works in a similar manner.

- Nicotine binds to the presynaptic receptors exciting the neuron to fire more action potentials causing an increase in dopamine release.
- •Nicotine also affects neurons by increasing the number of synaptic vesicles released.

How does alcohol affect synapses?

- Alcohol has multiple effects on neurons. It alters neuron membranes, ion channels, enzymes, and receptors.
- It **binds directly to receptors** for acetylcholine, serotonin, and gamma aminobutyric acid (GABA), and glutamate.
- We will focus on GABA and its receptor.

Alcohol and the GABA Receptor

- When alcohol enters the brain, it binds to GABA receptors and amplifies the hyperpolarization effect of GABA.
- The neuron activity is further diminished
- This accounts for some of the sedative affects of alcohol



science.howstuffworks.com/ alcohol.htm

The Adolescent Brain and Alcohol

From AMA pub 9416

- The brain goes through dynamic change during adolescence, and alcohol can seriously damage longand short-term growth processes.
- Frontal lobe development and the refinement of pathways and connections continue until age 16, and a high rate of energy is used as the brain matures until age 20.
- Damage from alcohol at this time can be long-term and irreversible.

The Adolescent Brain (cont.)

- In addition, short-term or moderate drinking impairs learning and memory far more in youth than adults.
- Adolescents need only drink half as much as adults to suffer the same negative effects.
- To see an animation of GABA receptors and the influence of alcohol,

http://www.thirteen.org/closetohome/animation/gaba-anim-main.html

Drugs That Influence Neurotransmitters

Change in Neurotransmission	Effect on Neurotransmitter release or availability	Drug that acts this way
increase the number of impulses	increased neurotransmitter release	nicotine, alcohol, opiates
release neurotransmitter from vesicles with or without impulses	increased neurotransmitter release	amphetamines methamphetamines
release more neurotransmitter in response to an impulse	increased neurotransmitter release	nicotine
block reuptake	more neurotransmitter present in synaptic cleft	cocaine amphetamine
produce less neurotransmitter	less neurotransmitter in synaptic cleft	probably does not work this way
prevent vesicles from releasing neurotransmitter	less neurotransmitter released	No drug example
block receptor with another molecule	no change in the amount of neurotransmitter released, or neurotransmitter cannot bind to its receptor on postsynaptic neuron	LSD caffeine NIH Publication No. 00-4871

Withdrawal Intoxication Anxiety Disinhibition Insomnia GABA Sedation Seizures Loss of Balance Hypertension Epinephrine Hypertension Tachycardia Memory disruption L-glutamic Acid Sedation Insomnia Serotonin Euphoria Mood Disorder Dysphoria Mood Elevation Dopamine

Acetylcholine deficiency

Acetylcholine deficiency signs/symptoms:

Difficulty remembering names and faces after meeting people

Difficulty remembering peoples birthdays and numbers

Difficulty remembering lists, directions or instructions

Forgetting common facts

Trouble understanding spoken or written language

Forget where I put things (e.g. keys)

Making simple mistakes at work

Slowed and confused thinking

Difficulty finding the right words before speaking

Disorientation

Prefer to do things alone than in groups / social withdrawal

Rarely feel passionate

Feel despair and lack joy

Lost some of my creativity

Lack imagination

Dry mouth

Acetylcholine levels may be low due to a combination of genetic and acquired reasons. Acetylcholine can be raised effectively using either nutrient based therapies or medications.

Factors which reduce acetylcholine levels:

Choline (precursor) deficiency

B1 & B5 deficiency

Chronic stress

Inadequate sleep

Elevated blood sugar/insulin resistance

Mercury, lead, aluminium, PCB's, fertilizers, pesticides and EMF exposure

Over-methylation

Clinical Aspects of ACh Systems Alzheimer's disease

loss of ACh neurons in the basal nucleus of Meynert

Aricept—ACh agonist

Dopamine deficiency

Dopamine deficiency signs/symptoms:

Physically fatigued easily

Sleep too much and trouble getting out of bed

Reduced ability to feel pleasure

Flat, bored, apathetic

Low drive, motivation & enthusiasm

Depressed

Difficulty getting through a task even when interesting to me

Procrastinator/little urgency

Shy/introvert

Mentally fatigued easily

Difficulty paying attention and concentrating

Slow thinker and/or slow to learn new ideas

Put on weight easily

Crave uppers (e.g. caffeine/sugar/nicotine/diet soft

drinks/cocaine/amphetamines)

Use these improve energy/motivation/mood

Prone to addictions (e.g. alcohol)/addictive personality

Light headedness

Reduced libido and/or impotence

Family history of depression/alcoholism/ADD

Dopamine levels may be low due to a combination of genetic and acquired reasons. Dopamine can be raised effectively using either nutrient based therapies or medications. Dopamine is synthesized form the amino acid tyrosine.

Factors which reduce dopamine levels:

Chronic stress

Inadequate sleep

Hypothyroidism

Lead, arsenic and cadmium exposure

Under-methylation

Tyrosine (precursor) deficiency

Magnesium, iron, zinc & vitamins B3/B6/C/D

deficiency

Excess copper levels

Genetic dopamine receptor abnormalities

Chronic opioid, alcohol & marijuana use

Adrenal insufficiency

Glutathione deficiency

Parkinson's Disease

Influenza

Estrogen deficiency

Human growth hormone deficiency

Endorphin deficiency

Endorphin deficiency signs/symptoms:

Very emotionally sensitive

Cry easily

Emotional pain really gets to you

Find it hard to get through losses or grieving

Difficulty experiencing pleasure

Been through a lot of physical or emotional pain

Overly responsible or time urgent

Low pain tolerance

Chronic pain (e.g. back aches, neck aches)

Physical pain really gets to you

Use alcohol/chocolate/carbs for relaxation, numbing, or comfort

Use codeine, methadone, darvon, heroin

Have had difficulty stopping one of these

Endorphin levels may be low due to a combination of genetic and acquired reasons.

Endorphins can be raised effectively using either nutrient based therapies or medications.

Factors which reduce endorphin levels:

Chronic stress

Chronic pain

Chronic GABA deficiency

Chronic opioid and alcohol use

Chronic inflammation

Genetic endorphin deficiency

GABA deficiency

GABA deficiency signs/symptoms:

Anxious/nervous/jumpy/'on edge'

Feel panicky/panic attacks

Feel stressed/pressured/overwhelmed

Have trouble relaxing/loosening up

Low stress tolerance

Body tends to be tense/stiff/uptight

Butterflies in stomach

Lump in throat

Trembling/twitching/shaking

Sweaty, clammy hands

Sleep problems

Valium/xanax/avitan/GABA relax you

Use alcohol/food/cigarettes to relax

Heart palpitations and fast pulse

History of having seizures

Family history of anxiety or panic attacks

GABA is our relaxing (anti-anxiety) neurotransmitter which is raised by valium.

GABA levels may be low due to a combination of genetic and acquired reasons.

GABA can be raised effectively using either nutrient based therapies or

medications. GABA is synthesized from the amino acid glutamine.

Factors which reduce GABA levels:

Glutamaine (precursor) deficiency

B1, B6, zinc, manganese & iron deficiency

Chronic stress

Chronic pain

Inadequate sleep

Progesterone deficiency

Mercury and lead exposure

Alcohol withdrawal

Caffeine excess

Excessive electromagnetic radiation

Excessive loud noise exposure

Serotonin deficiency

Serotonin deficiency signs/symptoms:

Depressed

Nervous/anxious

Worrier

Fears/phobias

Negative/pessimistic

Irritable/impatient/edgy

Obsessive compulsive tendency

Think about the same things over & over again

Self destructive or suicidal thoughts/plans

Low self esteem/confidence

Rage/anger/explosive behavior/assaultive

Sleep problems/light sleeper

Feel worse in & dislike dark weather

Crave sugar/carbohydrates/alcohol/marijuana

Use these substances to improve mood & relax

Chronic pain (e.g. headaches, backaches, fibromyalgia)

PMS

Antidepressants or 5-HTP improve mood

Family history of depression/anxiety/OCD/eating disorders Serotonin levels may be low due to a combination of

genetic and acquired reasons. Serotonin can be raised effectively using either nutrient based therapies or

medications. Serotonin is synthesized from the amino acid

tryptophan.

Factors which reduce serotonin levels:

Stress

PCB's, pesticides and plastic chemicals exposure

Under-methylation

Inadequate sunlight exposure

Tryptophan (precursor) deficiency

Iron, calcium, magnesium, zinc, B3, B6, folate &

vitamin C deficiency

Inadequate sleep

Glutathione deficiency

Chronic infections

Food allergies

Genetic serotonin receptor abnormalities

Chronic opioid, alcohol, amphetamine & marijuana

use

Human growth hormone deficiency

Progesterone deficiency

Impaired blood flow to brain

Insulin resistance or deficiency

"How do the levels of serotonin and catecholamine neurotransmitters get to such critically low levels?" There are several explanations.

The first is that neurotransmitter **depletion is nutritionally based**.

Neurotransmitters are made from amino acids that must be obtained in the diet.

In addition, amino acids, vitamins and minerals eaten in food are required for the creation of the neurotransmitters.

If the diet is deficient, neurotransmitter deficiency develops.

There are multiple medications that have shown to cause depletion of serotonin and/or catecholamine in the urine. as Prozac, Paxil, Zoloft

These are the medications prescribed to increase the activity of serotonin in the brain such as Prozac, Paxil, Zoloft, etc.

Apparently as a result of increasing the brain level of serotonin, the body increases the metabolism of serotonin and thus the levels slowly

decline because these medications do nothing to increase the level, they just re-circulate the already low level.

Caffeine, ephedrine, ephedra and other stimulants including Ritalin, chocolate, etc. also seem to reduce the effectiveness of neurotransmitters thereby creating a resistance to neurotransmitters.

Phentermine (of the Phen-Fen diet) actually cause long-term damage to the receptor so that in order to get the effect of serotonin, you have to have an even higher level. This is why so many people gain even more weight after stopping Phen-Fen.

Sensory overload. The brain is bombarded by sounds, rapid visual effects from television, movies, electronic monitors flickering faster than the eye can detect, radio waves, fluorescent artificial light, etc.

All of this requires the brain to modulate this sensory bombardment so that you can stay focused on the task in front of you. Brain overload means that you have to literally calm yourself down.

Rapid lifestyle, stress, over work, etc. may also contribute.

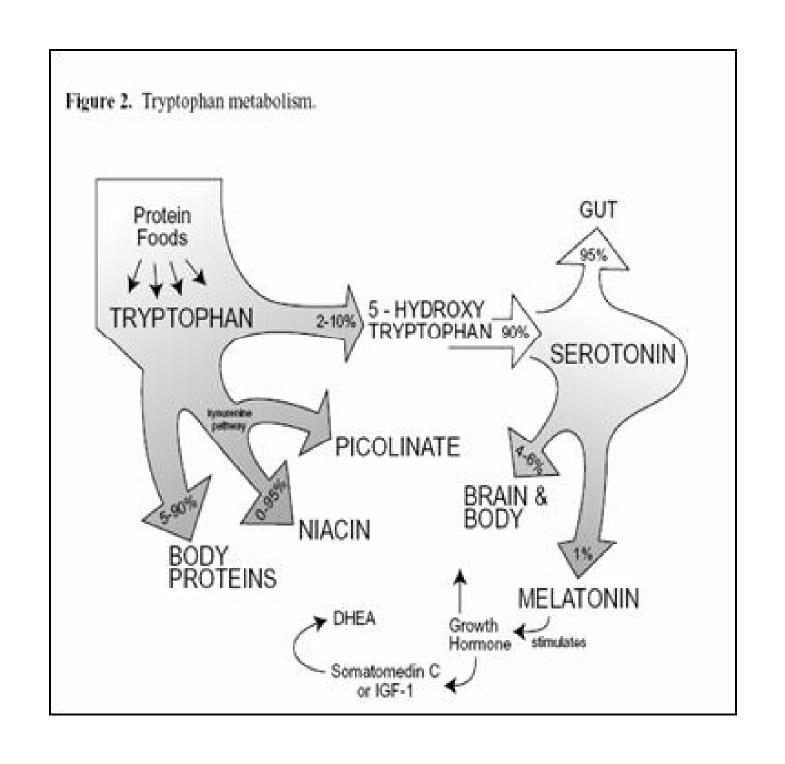
Since the largest source of neurotransmitters is the gastrointestinal tract, dysfunction as discussed above could be a major contributory component. This would include congestive bowel toxicity, candidal/yeast overgrowth conditions, increased intestinal permeability (leaky gut syndrome)

It has been suggested that several SSRI medications deplete 40-60% of the serotonin receptors in the brain. It is also reported that receptors in the liver, kidneys, and colon are also damaged by SSRIs.

ingestion of various food allergens or sensitivities, inhalation or ingestion of various chemicals, chemical sensitivities, rapid changes in hormone levels, rapid changes in barometric pressure, head cold or sinus congestion, rapid changes in blood sugars, dehydration, inadequate exposure to sunlight (hence the excessive conversion of serotonin to melatonin), and hepatobiliary dysfunction. These remarks may be based on the precipitation of migraines, to always be related to serotonin imbalance.

Symptoms seen in complex appetite (misnamed "hypoglycemia")

Tremor	Headaches	Lightheadedn
		ess
Dizziness	Sweating	Irritability
Nausea	Anxiety	Disorientation
Goose bump	Feeling of	Abdominal
skin	uneasiness	pain



Neurotransmitter	Postsynaptic effect	Derived from	Site of synthesis	Postsynaptic receptor	Fate	Functions
1.Acetyl choline (Ach)	Excitatory	Acetyl co-A + Choline	Cholinergic nerve endings Cholinergic pathways of brainstem	1.Nicotinic 2.Muscarinic	Broken by acetyl cholinesterase	Cognitive functions e.g. memory Peripheral action e.g. cardiovascular system
2. Catecholamines i. Epinephrine (adrenaline)	Excitatory in some but inhibitory in other	Tyrosine produced in liver from phenylalanine	Adrenal medulla and some CNS cells	Excites both alpha α & beta β receptors	1.Catabolized to inactive product through COMT & MAO in liver	For details refer ANS. e.g. fight or flight, on heart, BP, gastrointestinal activity etc. Norepinehrine controls attention & arousal.
ii.Norepinephrine	Excitatory	Tyrosine, found in pons. Reticular formation, locus coerules, thalamus, midbrain	Begins inside axoplasm of adrenergic nerve ending is completed inside the secretary vesicles	$\begin{array}{ccc} \alpha_1 & \alpha_2 \\ \beta_1 & \beta_2 \end{array}$	2.Reuptake into adrenergic nerve endings 3.Diffusion away from nerve endings to body fluid	
iii. Dopamine	Excitatory	Tyrosine	CNS, concentrated in basal ganglia and dopamine pathways e.g. nigrostriatal, mesocorticolim bic and tubero- hypophyseal pathway	D ₁ to D ₅ receptor	Same as above	Decreased dopamine in parkinson's disease. Increased dopamine concentration causes schizophrenia
						78

Neurotransmitter	Postsynaptic effect	Derived from	Site of synthesis	Postsynaptic receptor	Fate	Functions
3. serotonin (5HT)	Excitatory	Tryptophan	CNS, Gut (chromaffin cells) Platelets & retina	5-HT ₁ to 5-HT 7 5-HT ₂ A receptor mediate platelet aggregation & smooth muscle contraction	Inactivated by MAO to form 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid(5-HIAA) in pineal body it is converted to melatonin	Mood control, sleep, pain feeling, temperature, BP, & hormonal activity
4. Histamine	Excitatory	Histidine	Hypothalamus	Three types H ₁ , H ₂ ,H ₃ receptors found in peripheral tissues & the brain	Enzyme diamine oxidase (histaminase) cause breakdown	Arousal, pain threshold, blood pressure, blood flow control, gut secretion, allergic reaction (involved in sensation of itch)
5. Glutamate	Excitatory 75% of excitatory transmission in the brain	By reductive amination of Kreb's cycle intermediate α –ketoglutarate.	Brain & spinal cord e.g. hippocampus	Ionotropic and metabotropic receptors. Three types of ionotropic receptors e.g. NMDA, AMPA and kainate receptors.	It is cleared from the brain ECF by Na ⁺ dependent uptake system in neurons and neuroglia.	Long term potentiation involved in memory and learning by causing Ca ⁺⁺ influx.

Neurotransmitter	Postsynaptic effect	Derived from	Site of synthesis	Postsynaptic receptor	Fate	Functions
6. Aspartate	Excitatory	Acidic amines	Spinal cord	Spinal cord	Aspartate & Glycine form an excitatory / inhibitory pair in the ventral spinal cord	
7. Gama amino butyric acid(GABA)	Major inhibitory mediator	Decarboxylation of glutamate by glutamate decarboxylase (GAD) by GABAergic neuron.	CNS	GABA – A increases the Cl - conductance, GABA – B is metabotropic works with G – protein GABA transaminase catalyzes. GABA – C found exclusively in the retina.	Metabolized by transamination to succinate in the citric acid cycle.	GABA – A causes hyperpolarization (inhibition) Anxiolytic drugs like benzodiazepine cause increase in Cl ⁻ entry into the cell & cause soothing effects. GABA – B cause increase conductance of K ⁺ into the cell.
8. Glycine	Inhibitory	Is simple amino acid having amino group and a carboxyl group attached to a carbon atom	Spinal cord	Glycine receptor makes postsynaptic membrane more permeable to Clion.	Deactivated in the synapse by simple process of reabsorbtion by active transport back into the presynaptic membrane	Glycine is inhibitory transmitted found in the ventral spinal cord. It is inhibitory transmitter to Renshaw cells.