

Human Blood Acetaldehyde Concentration During Ethanol Oxidation (Update 1982)

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ERIKSSON, C. J. P. *Human blood acetaldehyde concentration during ethanol oxidation (update 1982)*. PHARMACOL BIOCHEM BEHAV 18: Suppl. 1, 141–150, 1983.—A wide variety of levels of human blood acetaldehyde have been reported in the past. During the last few years, however, it has become increasingly evident that most, if not all, of the previously observed acetaldehyde concentrations during normal (i.e., no deficiency in, or inhibition of, aldehyde dehydrogenase activity) ethanol oxidation merely reflected artefactual acetaldehyde formed during the analytical procedures. The artefactual acetaldehyde formation, which occurs mainly during blood protein precipitation, is effectively minimized by the recently improved PCA method in which blood is immediately mixed with a perchloric acid-saline solution, and by the semicarbazide method in which blood is treated with a fresh isotonic semicarbazide solution before removal of the plasma. Nevertheless, a procedure involving control blood with ethanol added should be employed to control for any artefactual acetaldehyde still produced. Based on the improved analytical procedures, no detectable acetaldehyde was found in the venous blood of Caucasian subjects after acute ethanol intake.

Acetaldehyde Blood Ethanol oxidation

SURVEY OF EARLIER ACETALDEHYDE ANALYSES: METHODS AND LEVELS

The history of acetaldehyde analyses is outlined in chronological order in Table 1, with the various methods that have been developed being numbered sequentially.

Before 1950: Nonspecific Colorimetric Methods

In a very early investigation, from 1920, of blood acetaldehyde concentrations in human subjects drinking ethanol an average level of about 400 μM was determined [66]. The corresponding analytical procedures (method 1, Table 1) involved whole blood protein precipitation, distillation of the acidic supernatant and the colorimetric detection of acetaldehyde in the distillate reacting with iodine. The sensitivity was later improved by using a copper sulfate/sulfuric acid/p-hydroxybiphenyl reagent for the colorimetric reaction (methods 2 and 3). By using method 3 (without the distillation step), it was noted that human blood contained compounds other than acetaldehyde which also reacted with the p-hydroxybiphenyl reagent [30]. An open question remained to what extent the distillation could eliminate the interference of such blood contaminants.

1950–1959: Low Levels Determined in Blood Plasma

To shorten the rather time consuming method 2, method 4 was developed. The problem of specificity was not solved, however, as was later demonstrated by findings according to which acetone interfered with the spectrophotometric determination [46]. Similarly, the specificity of method 5 may be questioned. To overcome the specificity problem, enzymatic determination methods were developed (methods 6 and 7). With method 6, which involved whole blood protein

precipitation with perchloric acid (PCA), acetaldehyde levels as high as with the earlier methods were found. However, with method 7, which determined acetaldehyde in the plasma, low levels ($<10 \mu\text{M}$) were reported. Moreover, the “endogenous” (without ethanol intake) acetaldehyde concentrations were close to those measured during ethanol oxidation. The discrepancy with the earlier methods was not discussed.

1960–1969: Development of GC Methods

The introduction of gas chromatography (GC) in the determination of blood acetaldehyde reduced the problems of specificity and improved the sensitivity over that of the earlier methods. The original GC method involved whole blood protein precipitation in a headspace vessel; after heating, a gas sample was transferred from the headspace to the GC (method 8). Method 9 involved direct GC injection of the blood supernatant. The acetaldehyde concentration obtained with these methods (8 and 9) varied from <4 to $>200 \mu\text{M}$. The possibility of artefactual acetaldehyde formation was recognized in some of these investigations [25,60].

1970–1979: Recognition of Artefactual Acetaldehyde Formation and Rediscovery of Plasma Methods

The original headspace method 8, which involved incubation of denaturated blood without removal of precipitated blood proteins, was soon found to be complicated by an ethanol-induced nonenzymatic formation of acetaldehyde during the incubation prior to the headspace analysis [74]. The method was, however, improved by removal of the proteins from the deproteinized blood samples (method 10). Acetaldehyde levels, thus determined, were very low (Table

TABLE 1
DETERMINATION OF HUMAN BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE CONCENTRATION DURING ETHANOL OXIDATION

Method	Acetaldehyde* (μ M)	Ethanol* (mM)	Subjects and treatment‡	Reference
1. Stepp 1920 [66]: protein precipitation (whole blood+ phospho wolframate) centrifugation distillation (supernatant) colorimetric reaction (distillate + iodine)	365			Stepp 1920 [66]
2. Stotz 1943 [67]: protein precipitation (whole blood+ sodium wolframate/sulfuric acid) centrifugation distillation (supernatant) colorimetric reaction (distillate + copper sulfate/sulfuric acid/p-hydroxybiphenyl reagent)	320 158 95 386 +184 143 +118 +180 230 390	39 16 18 54 29 14 11 82 28 40	Alcoholics Alcoholics, A A Charcoal Alcoholics Japanese flushers Japanese	Stotz 1943 [67] Brown, Knoblock 1951 [10] Mendeloff 1954 [51] Raby 1954 [59] Clark, Hulpieu 1958 [13] Akabane 1960 [3] Ogata <i>et al.</i> 1966 [54]
3. Hald, Jacobsen 1948 [30]: as method 2 but without distillation	74 +87	9 7	A	Hald, Jacobsen 1948 [30]
4. Burbridge <i>et al.</i> 1950 [11]: protein precipitation (as method 2) diffusion into semicarbazide spectrophotometric determination	63 +104 270 275 261	4 5 23	Alcoholics Alcoholics, A Alcoholics, A Alcoholics, A, Na-metabisulfite	Hine <i>et al.</i> 1952 [33] Forster 1956 [27] Ezrielev 1973 [26]
5. Lester, Greenberg 1950 [42]: distillation (whole blood applied on filter paper) colorimetric reaction (as method 2)	200	5	Alcoholics, A	Lester <i>et al.</i> 1952 [41]
6. Klein, Korzis 1958 [39]: protein precipitation (whole blood+ perchloric acid) centrifugation neutralization (supernatant) enzymatic assay (supernatant+ NADH + alcohol dehydrogenase)	200	4	A	Klein, Korzis 1958 [39]
7. Lundquist, 1958 [46]: centrifugation (whole blood) protein precipitation (plasma+ metaphosphoric acid)	7	9		Lundquist, Wolthers 1958 [47]

TABLE 1
DETERMINATION OF HUMAN BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE CONCENTRATION DURING ETHANOL OXIDATION
(CONTINUED)

Method	Acetaldehyde* (μ M)	Ethanol* (mM)	Subjects and treatment‡	Reference
centrifugation neutralization (supernatant) enzymatic assay (supernatant + NAD + aldehyde dehydrogenase)				
8. Duritz, Truitt 1964 [16]:	148			Ewing <i>et al.</i> 1974 [25]
protein precipitation (whole blood + zinc sulfate/ barium hydroxide)	+31		Orientals	
headspace GC determination (suspension)	239	14		Reed <i>et al.</i> 1976 [60]
	+16	7	Chinese	
	+89	13	Ojibwa Indians	
	1	2	Alcoholics, A	Iber, Cohwdhury 1977 [34]
	3	3	Alcoholics, A, liver disease	
9. Roach, Creaven 1968 [61]:	34	74	Alcoholics	Majchrowicz, Mendelson 1970 [49]
protein precipitation (as method 8)				
centrifugation GC determination (supernatant)				
10. Truitt 1970, 1971 [74,75]:	2.0	13		Truitt 1971 [75]
as method 8 but headspace analyses on supernatants (after centri- fugation)	+0.5	22	Alcoholics	
11. Coldwell <i>et al.</i> 1971 [14].	590	17		Machata, Prokop 1971 [48]
Machata, Prokop 1971 [48].				
Kinoshita 1974 [38]:	48	15	Japanese nonflushers	Ijiri 1974 [35]
direct headspace GC determin- ation (whole blood)	+21	16	Japanese flushers	
	30	9	Japanese nonflushers	Kinoshita 1974 [38]
	+31	9	Japanese flushers	
	+16	2	Japanese alcoholics	
	+120	3	Japanese alcoholics, A	
	2	9	Japanese nonflushers	Kijima 1979 [37]
	+7	10	Japanese flushers	
	2	10	Japanese nonflushers	Mizoi <i>et al.</i> 1979 [52]
	+11	10	Japanese flushers	
	50			Schuckit, Rayses 1979 [64]
	+30		Relatives to alcoholics	
	6	22	Japanese nonflushers	Asakura 1980 [4]
	+8	18	Japanese flushers	
	3	17	Japanese nonflushers	Maruyama 1980 [50]
	+38	17	Japanese flushers	
	+2	16	Japanese alcoholics	
	+62	10	Japanese alcoholics, A	
	3	10	Japanese nonflushers	Mizoi <i>et al.</i> 1980 [53]
	+7	10	Japanese flushers	
	230	20		Helmbrecht, Schweitzer 1981 [32]
	+0	20	Nitroimidazole	
12. Sippel 1972 [65].	27	51		Korsten <i>et al.</i> 1975 [40]
Brien, Loomis 1978 [6]:	+16	51	Alcoholics	
as method 10 but whole blood				

TABLE 1
DETERMINATION OF HUMAN BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE CONCENTRATION DURING ETHANOL OXIDATION
(CONTINUED)

Method	Acetaldehyde* (μ M)	Ethanol* (mM)	Subjects and treatment‡	Reference
proteins precipitated with thiourea/perchloric acid	36 -7 -12 -14 26 +3 25 +145 30 300 60 250 170 180	20 21 17 15 17 18 11 17 12 17 15 19 9 12	Alcoholics 4-MP Alcoholics, 4-MP 4-MP CC Alcoholics Alcoholics, CC Alcoholics Alcoholics, CC Alcoholics (i.e. Alcoholics, CC) Alcoholics, CC	Lindros <i>et al.</i> 1977 [44] Salaspuro <i>et al.</i> 1977 [62] Brien, Loomis 1978 [6] Brien <i>et al.</i> 1978 [9] Brien <i>et al.</i> 1979 [8] Brien <i>et al.</i> 1980 [7] Peachey <i>et al.</i> 1981 [56]
13. Eriksson <i>et al.</i> 1975, 1977, 1980 [23, 24, 19]: as method 12 but without thiourea and with correction for artefactual acetaldehyde formation (based on control blood added to ethanol/per- chloric acid)	40 23 22 +1	45 55 22 20	Alcoholics	Ylikahri <i>et al.</i> 1974 [79] Ylikahri <i>et al.</i> 1976 [80] Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21]
14. Sauter <i>et al.</i> 1977 [63]: as method 8 but whole blood proteins precipitated with thiourea/perchloric acid	68 164	4 4	Alcoholics Alcoholics, A	Sauter <i>et al.</i> 1977 [63]
15. Stowell <i>et al.</i> 1977, 1978, 1978 [70, 69, 71]: protein precipitation (as method 6) centrifugation distillation (supernatant) enzymatic assay (as method 7) correction for artefactual acetal- dehyde formation (based on ethanol added to control blood before precipitation step)	10			Stowell <i>et al.</i> 1978 [71]
16. Pikkarainen <i>et al.</i> 1979 [58]: rapid centrifugation (whole blood) headspace GC (plasma)	0.4 +0.6 5 2 +33	19 60	Alcoholics Alcoholics Japanese nonflushers Japanese flushers	Pikkarainen <i>et al.</i> 1979 [58] Lindros <i>et al.</i> 1980 [45] Harada <i>et al.</i> 1981 [31]
17. Stowell 1979 [68]: As method 13 but correction as method 15	35		CC	Stowell 1979 [68]
18. Stowell 1979 [68]: whole blood added to isotonic semicarbazide solution centrifugation protein precipitation (plasma + perchloric acid) centrifugation headspace GC (supernatant)	33 8 7 +69 +3 5 2 15	20 24 6 6 10 2 3	CC Controls, alcoholics CC CC, 4-MP Nonflusher diabetics, CP Flusher diabetics, CP	Stowell 1979 [68] Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21] Stowell <i>et al.</i> 1980 [72] Christensen <i>et al.</i> 1981 [12] Jerntorp <i>et al.</i> 1981 [36]

TABLE 1
DETERMINATION OF HUMAN BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE CONCENTRATION DURING ETHANOL OXIDATION
(CONTINUED)

Method	Acetaldehyde* (μ M)	Ethanol* (mM)	Subjects and treatment‡	Reference
19. Wartburg, Ris 1979 [78]: whole blood added to isotonic chloralhydrate solution	1 22	20 23	Controls, alcoholics	Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21] Wartburg 1980 [77]
centrifugation	4	1		Barnett <i>et al.</i> 1981 [5]
protein precipitation (plasma)	+3	1	CP	
headspace GC (suspension)	+1 +27	1 1	Nonflushing diabetics, CP Flushing diabetics, CP	
20. Abe <i>et al.</i> 1980 [2]: rapid distillation (whole blood)	23	12	Japanese nonflushers	Abe <i>et al.</i> 1980 [1]
headspace GC (distillate)	+95	11	Japanese flushers	
21. Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21]: as method 19 but with correction (based on control blood treated with ethanol/chloralhydrate)	0	20	Controls, alcoholics	Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21]
22. Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21], Lindros <i>et al.</i> 1980 [45]: as method 18 but with correction (based on control blood treated with ethanol/semicarbazide)	0 1 +109	20	Controls, alcoholics Alcoholics	Eriksson, Peachey 1980 [21] Lindros <i>et al.</i> 1980 [45]
	0	25		Present article, Fig. 2
23. Christensen <i>et al.</i> 1981 [12]: as method 10 but whole blood proteins immediately precipitated with sodium nitrite/sulphosalicy- lic acid	1.3	9		Christensen <i>et al.</i> 1981 [12]
24. Thomas <i>et al.</i> 1981 [73]: trapping with 2,4-dinitrophenylhydra- zine (whole blood) extraction and separation of acetalde- hyde derivative HPLC determination	(60) [†]			Thomas <i>et al.</i> 1981 [73]
25. Eriksson <i>et al.</i> 1982 [20]: as method 13 but immediate preci- pitation with saline/perchloric acid and correction as method 15	0	13		Present article, Fig. 3
26. Okada, Mizoi 1982 [55]: as method 25 but without correction	2 +28	10 11	Japanese nonflushers Japanese flushers	Okada, Mizoi 1982 [55]
27. Tsukamoto <i>et al.</i> 1982 [76]: as method 26 but with water/perchloric acid	20 4		Japanese flushers Japanese alcoholics	Tsukamoto <i>et al.</i> 1982 [76]

*Maximum acetaldehyde means or individual values, and the corresponding ethanol concentrations are listed. Deviations from normal conditions are marked + and -.

[†]The same acetaldehyde concentration was found with and without ethanol drinking: said possibly to represent "endogenously bound" acetaldehyde.

‡Only conditions that may affect blood acetaldehyde concentrations are listed. Antabuse=A, 4-methylpyrazole=4-MP, calcium carbimide=CC, chlorpromamide=CP. Subjects are Caucasians if not otherwise mentioned.

1). These low values were in accordance with the earlier plasma values determined with method 7 [47]. Moreover, these findings confirmed the artefactual nature of earlier high acetaldehyde concentrations determined with method 8.

Method 11, the direct headspace method, represents a simplification of the previously described headspace methods which had involved a protein precipitation step. In

comparison with method 8, the direct headspace method seemed to produce less artefactual acetaldehyde [38,50]. However, as demonstrated in Table 1, the blood acetaldehyde concentrations determined with method 11 showed huge variations, with concentrations ranging from 2 to 590 μ M. The problem in the direct headspace method is to preserve the original acetaldehyde while preventing ethanol-

induced artefactual acetaldehyde formation. At physiological temperatures acetaldehyde is known to be metabolized in human blood [16, 29, 67, 71]. At high temperatures, the rate of artefactual acetaldehyde formation increases ([38], Eriksson, unpublished observation), particularly if the blood becomes hemolyzed [23, 24, 38]. This problem seems to be insurmountable and thus it appears unlikely that reliable results will ever be obtainable from the direct headspace (without any blood treatment) method.

Thiourea has been suggested to inhibit artefactual acetaldehyde formation obtained with headspace analysis of blood PCA supernatants (method 12). Acetaldehyde levels ranging from 25 to 36 μM (Table 1) have been determined during normal ethanol oxidation with this method. Later it was demonstrated, however, that thiourea does not inhibit the artefactual acetaldehyde formation during the analytical procedures [23, 24, 70]. Instead thiourea reduces the acetaldehyde recovery [23,24], an effect which may be mistaken for an inhibition of the simultaneous artefactual acetaldehyde production. Thus, there are reasons to believe that the acetaldehyde concentrations determined with method 12 are too high. This should also be the case for the levels determined with method 14. Further studies on the nature of the artefactual acetaldehyde formation and the observation that the major portion of this reaction actually occurs during the whole blood protein precipitation led to the opinion that a reevaluation of most previous reports on human blood acetaldehyde levels was needed [17–19, 23, 24, 70]. The subsequent methods for determining human blood acetaldehyde (methods 13, 15 and 17) involved corrections for artefactual acetaldehyde formation and concentrations ranging from 10 to 40 μM were observed.

In contrast to the acetaldehyde levels determined with protein precipitation methods, considerably lower levels, 0.4–22 μM , have been obtained with new plasma methods (16, 18 and 19, Table 1) that involve initial removal of the cells which contain most of the capacity for artefactual acetaldehyde formation. These results confirm the early results with method 7.

1980–1982: Development of Improved PCA and Semicarbazide Methods

It was proposed that the contradiction between the acetaldehyde concentrations obtained with the plasma and the precipitation methods might be explained by rapid acetaldehyde binding or oxidation occurring in blood *in vivo* [21] or during blood sampling [19]. The possibility that the rapid acetaldehyde “disappearance” was merely an artefact, due to miscalculation of artefactual acetaldehyde formation [19], was, however, neglected until recently, when it was observed that the elapsed time between sampling and mixing of the blood in PCA affected the amount of acetaldehyde measured during ethanol intoxication [43]. In further experiments it was observed that pronounced mixing-time dependent acetaldehyde formation also occurred in ethanol-containing control blood added to PCA [20, 55, 76]. Mixing-time dependent but less active acetaldehyde production was found if blood was added to ethanol-containing PCA, instead of adding the ethanol to the blood before the PCA treatment [20]. These observations clearly indicated that earlier corrections (method 13) for artefactual acetaldehyde had been insufficient.

Because of the rapid acetaldehyde formation during blood protein precipitation, the mixing should be both immediate

and efficient (method 27). However, after fulfilling these criteria by the use of a whirlmixer, artefactual acetaldehyde levels of about 5 μM were still obtained at blood ethanol concentrations of about 20 mM [20]. A decisive improvement was the finding [20,55] that by using immediate mixing in PCA made in saline, instead of water, the artefactual acetaldehyde formation could be reduced to about 0 to 2 μM , depending on the ethanol concentration (method 25 and 26). Correction is still needed for the remaining artefactual acetaldehyde, which is formed mainly during the incubation prior to headspace analysis (method 25). Method 23 represents another recent immediate precipitation method by which very low acetaldehyde levels have been determined. Mixing-time dependent artefactual acetaldehyde formation was, however, also observed with this method (Eriksson, unpublished observation).

The finding that both the semicarbazide (method 18) and chloralhydrate (method 19) procedures included some artefactual acetaldehyde led to the use of the correction procedures for these methods as well (methods 21 and 22). In preliminary studies using methods 21 and 22, no significant acetaldehyde was found during ethanol intoxication [21]. In addition, it was observed that freshly made semicarbazide should be used in order to avoid more pronounced artefactual acetaldehyde formation [21].

The two other recently reported methods remain to be checked for artefactual acetaldehyde formation (method 20) and for specificity (method 24).

REEVALUATION OF BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE CONCENTRATIONS DETERMINED WITH METHOD 13

The increase in measured blood acetaldehyde concentrations with the elapsed time between sampling and mixing in PCA is illustrated in Fig. 1. Also included in this figure are values (bars 1a, 1b and 1c) we observed in a previous study [19]. In this study the differences in blood acetaldehyde values (i.e., between c, b, and a) were interpreted as probably being caused by rapid disappearance. As demonstrated by the close fit between these values and the other points in Fig. 1, it is now apparent that this interpretation was incorrect, and that the differences in these previously reported values were instead a result of different degrees of artefactual acetaldehyde formation.

In another study we compared blood acetaldehyde concentrations during ethanol intoxication in alcoholics and controls [21]. After reconsidering the 20 sec between sampling and mixing of the blood in the PCA, it is clear that these values (bars 2a and 2b in Fig. 1) can be fully explained on the basis of artefactual acetaldehyde formation. Similarly, the blood acetaldehyde values observed in additional experiments with male volunteers following 1 g/kg ethanol (bars 3a and b in Fig. 1) fit within the frame of the artefactual acetaldehyde formation.

In summary, all of the acetaldehyde values observed in the studies depicted in Fig. 1 lie in a range that can be explained by artefactual formation. There is thus no evidence from these studies that the true *in vivo* concentration of acetaldehyde in human venous blood during ethanol intoxication is above zero.

IMPROVED SEMICARBAZIDE AND PCA METHODS: ZERO LEVELS OF ACETALDEHYDE

In some of the experiments depicted in Fig. 1, blood

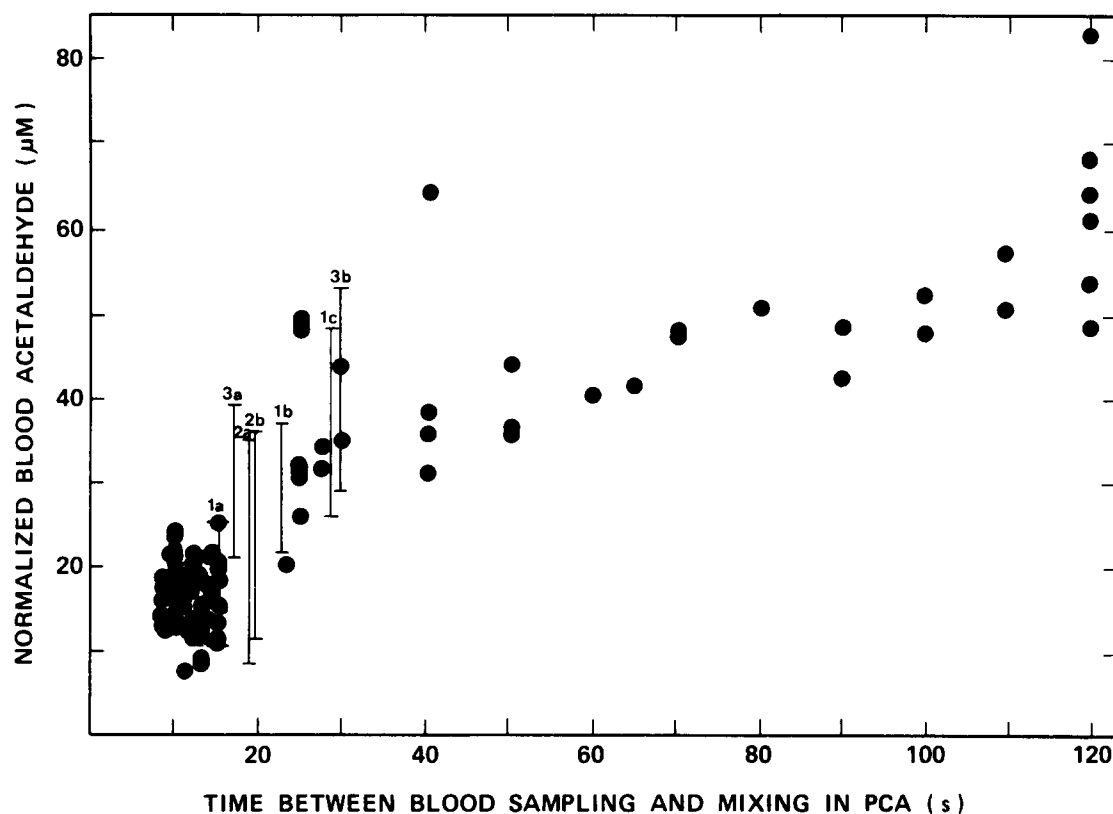


FIG. 1. Effect of the elapsed time between blood sampling and the mixing of the blood in PCA on blood acetaldehyde concentration during ethanol (1 g/kg) intoxication. All acetaldehyde values (method 13, Table 1, but noncorrected for artefactual formation) are normalized to a blood ethanol concentration of 20 mM, i.e., the depicted acetaldehyde concentration (μM) = measured acetaldehyde concentration (μM) \times measured ethanol concentration (mM)/20 mM. Closed circles mark individual acetaldehyde values of 9 female and 11 male nonalcoholic subjects (no sex differences) determined 0.5–3 hr after the ethanol intake from blood directly dripped from the vein into PCA. Bars 1a, 1b and 1c mark the noncorrected $\pm\text{SD}$ range (male nonalcoholic subjects, $n=6$) from previously reported results [19] showing acetaldehyde determined from 3 (a, b and c) blood samples consecutively dripped into PCA 1 hr after the ethanol intake. Bars 2a ($n=72$ samples) and 2b ($n=87$ samples) mark the noncorrected $\pm\text{SD}$ range from previously reported results [21] showing acetaldehyde in blood dripped directly into PCA 1 to 7 hr after the ethanol intake for 9 male alcoholics and 9 male nonalcoholics. Bars 3a ($n=53$ samples) and 3b ($n=9$ samples) mark the $\pm\text{SD}$ range of acetaldehyde in blood dripped directly into PCA 0.5 to 1.5 hr (3a) or 1 hr (3b) after the ethanol intake in 9 male nonalcoholics.

acetaldehyde was also determined by the semicarbazide method (method 22, Table 1). The results are summarized in Fig. 2. Acetaldehyde concentrations, 0–10 μM , measured during ethanol intoxication were considerably lower than those measured with the PCA method (Fig. 1). As with the PCA methods, the acetaldehyde values measured with the semicarbazide method merely reflected artefactual acetaldehyde formation occurring with this analytical procedure.

Based on the improvements of the semicarbazide and PCA methods, another series of experiments were carried out. Ten male subjects received 0.5 g/kg ethanol (within 30 min) after overnight fasting. Blood samples were taken from an antecubital vein, 0.5 to 2 hr after the start of ethanol drinking, into EDTA-tubes, whereupon (<15 sec) a 0.5 ml blood sample was pipetted into 2 ml ice-cold 0.6 M PCA (made in saline) and shaken within 2 sec by a whirlmixer. A further 1 ml blood sample was taken into 1 ml semicarbazide buffer, which was made just prior to the experiments. No significant difference occurred in the recovery of acetal-

dehyde when PCA precipitation (or semicarbazide addition) was performed immediately or 30 sec after the addition of acetaldehyde to control blood at 37°C. Control blood samples containing various amounts of added ethanol were prepared for both methods before the start of drinking. Other analytical procedures were as described before. The results of the improved PCA and semicarbazide determinations are demonstrated in Fig. 3. In these experiments, very low (0–2 μM) acetaldehyde levels were observed with both methods. These levels were not significantly different from the corresponding artefactual levels found with the ethanol-containing control blood.

STATUS OF HUMAN BLOOD ACETALDEHYDE

The present review and experimental data suggest that acetaldehyde is not, at least with current analytical procedures, detectable in human venous blood during ethanol intoxication in subjects having neither a deficiency in, nor in-

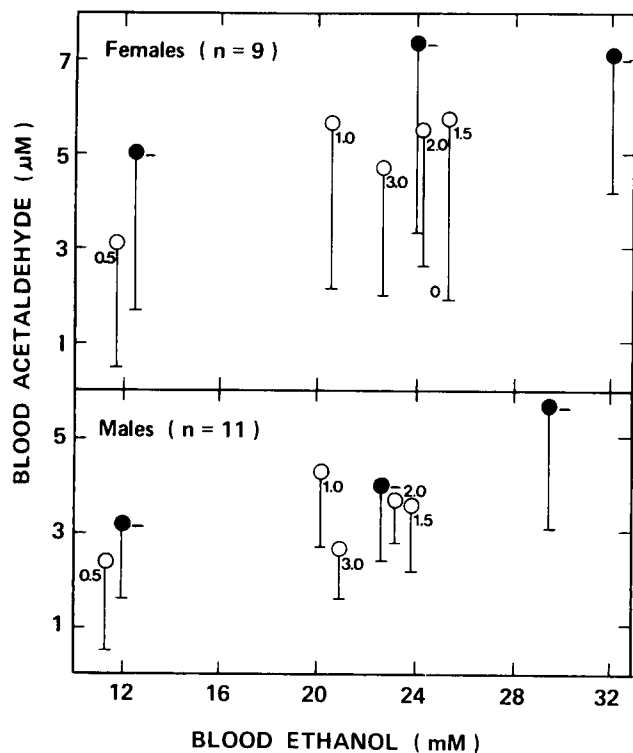


FIG. 2. Blood acetaldehyde (method 22, Table 1, semicarbazide solution: 0–3 days old) in male and female subjects during ethanol (1 g/kg) intoxication (same experiment as Fig. 1: individual values). Open circles mark noncorrected acetaldehyde means (\pm SD) and closed circles mark the mean (\pm SD) artefactual acetaldehyde from control blood added to semicarbazide containing ethanol. Numbers beside the circles mark the time (hr) from the start of the ethanol intake.

hibition of, aldehyde dehydrogenase activity. This conclusion became more evident with improvement in the analytical procedures. Previously reported acetaldehyde concentrations are thus suggested to reflect merely acetaldehyde artefactually formed during the analytical procedures. However, as demonstrated in Table 1, factors such as genotypic aldehyde dehydrogenase deficiency causing flushing in many Orientals [31,55], treatments with the aldehyde dehydrogenase inhibitors antabuse, calcium carbimide and chlorpropamide, and in some cases chronic alcoholism, may cause elevated blood acetaldehyde concentrations during ethanol intoxication. To what extent these elevations have been affected by artefact reactions remains to be determined in future experiments.

The question of whether nondetectable acetaldehyde concentrations mean absolute zero, or whether during nor-

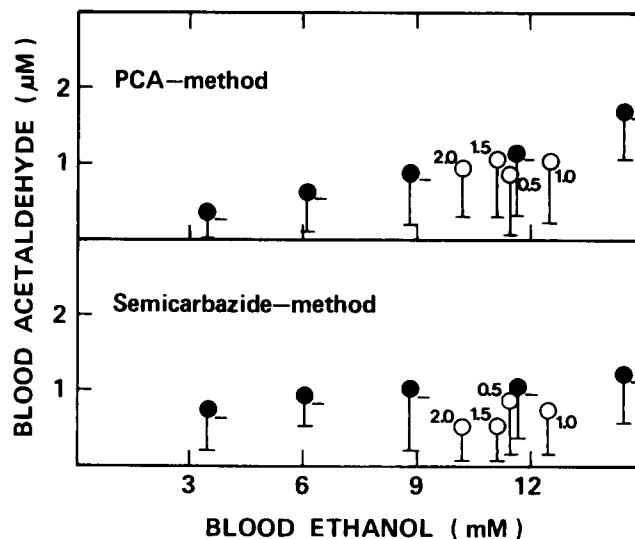


FIG. 3. Blood acetaldehyde (determined by improved PCA and semicarbazide methods, see text) during ethanol (0.5 g/kg) intoxication in male nonalcoholic subjects ($n=10$). Marking as in Fig. 2 with the addition that in PCA control experiments (closed circles above) blood containing ethanol was added to PCA.

mal ethanol intoxication there may occur *in vivo* venous levels in the nanomolar range, is open. The latter alternative includes the possibility of rapid acetaldehyde turnover. Equally open is the question whether acetaldehyde exists as a normal endogenous metabolite in the absence of ethanol intake. To solve these questions future studies should always compare the blood taken during ethanol intoxication with control blood and control blood to which ethanol has been added.

It is important to emphasize that the absence of venous acetaldehyde during normal ethanol oxidation does not necessarily reflect the *in vivo* acetaldehyde concentration elsewhere in the body. In rat there is an extensive arterial-venous acetaldehyde concentration gradient [22]. Such a gradient was not noted in a previous report on human venous and arterial levels [19]. However, because most, if not all, of the acetaldehyde measured in this study was artefactually formed, the question of whether there exists low arterial levels during normal ethanol intoxication, is still open. In this connection, it would be interesting to know whether human breath acetaldehyde [15, 28, 57, 72, 81], which should not contain any major analytical artefact, possibly reflects arterial acetaldehyde levels, or merely the acetaldehyde formation in the mouth, airways or lung microsomes [57]. Until future studies have clarified these aspects it is difficult to settle the *in vivo* role, if any, of blood acetaldehyde during normal ethanol intoxication.

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