Psychomotor function during mild narcosis induced by subanesthetic level of nitrous oxide: individual susceptibility beyond gender effect

Miroljub Jakovljević ^{1,2}, Gaj Vidmar ^{3,4}, Igor B. Mekjavic ⁵

CORRESPONDING AUTHOR: Assist. Prof. Dr. Gaj Vidmar – gaj.vidmar@ir-rs.si

ABSTRACT

Objective: We investigated the effect of narcosis induced by subanesthetic concentrations of nitrous oxide (N_2O) , a behavioral analogue for hyperbaric nitrogen, on psychomotor performance. In particular, we assessed individual susceptibility to narcosis.

Methods: The participants were 12 female and 12 male undergraduate students. Psychomotor assessment was conducted with a computerized Visual Simple Reaction Time (VSRT) test, and Trail Making Tests Part A (TMT-A) and Part B (TMT-B). The tests were conducted on two separate occasions in the following order: VSRT, TMT-A, TMT-B. On the first occasion participants conducted the tests breathing room air (air trial), and during

the second test they conducted the tests while breathing a normoxic mixture containing 30% N_2O (N_2O trial). **Results:** Males had significantly (p=0.036) shorter VSRT in the air trials. There was no effect of gender on psychomotor performance in the N_2O trials. Overall, mean performance in the N_2O trials degraded significantly (p=0.004) only in VSRT. Performance of individual participants exhibited different and inconsistent direction of change in the N2O trials.

Conclusion: N₂O-induced alterations in psychomotor function are primarily dependent on the individual susceptibility to narcosis (*i.e.*, concentration threshold).

INTRODUCTION

In diving, the most common type of inert gas narcosis is nitrogen narcosis, which is caused by the raised partial pressure of the nitrogen in compressed air [1]. In the broadest sense, the term "narcosis" refers to the reversible depression of function of an organism [2]. The term "inert gas narcosis" refers to the narcotic effects of inert gases. Inert gases are a subgroup of the gaseous and volatile anesthetics, some of which exert a narcotic effect under higher pressure (argon, nitrogen, hydrogen). For practical purposes, neon and helium are considered to be non-narcotic, whereas other gases (nitrous oxide – N_2O , cyclopropane and ethylene) are narcotic at atmospheric pressure [3].

We investigated individual susceptibility to narcosis induced by subanesthetic concentrations of N_2O through testing psychomotor performance. This is a valid approach for diving research because hyperbaric nitrogen

and normobaric N₂O exert similar effects on cognitive performance and behavior [4].

The signs and symptoms of nitrogen narcosis in diving are first noticed at approximately 30 meters (100 feet) during compressed-air breathing [3]. Compressed-air diving elicits several effects on human performance. Nitrogen narcosis produces significant impairment by decreasing both speed and accuracy of processing in the majority of performance tests [5]. It may also interfere with encoding and/or retrieval of verbal information [6]. Loss of memory during deep air dives has long been well documented [3,7,8]. Narcosis-induced overconfidence and impaired performance represent an important, and probably underestimated, threat to diver safety [9].

Human behavioral studies have concluded that N_2O in the concentration range from 20% to 30% depresses psychomotor function [10], cognitive performance [11], learning and memory [12]. It is also apparent from these

¹ International Postgraduate School Jozef Stefan, Ljubljana, Slovenia

² Department of Physiotherapy, Faculty of Health Sciences, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia

³ University Rehabilitation Institute, Republic of Slovenia

⁴ Institute for Biostatistics and Medical Informatics, Faculty of Medicine, University of Ljubljana, Slovenia

⁵ Department of Automation, Biocybernetics and Robotics, Jozef Stefan Institute, Ljubljana, Slovenia

studies that there is a substantial degree of intersubject variability regarding the magnitude of the narcosis-induced effects on psychomotor performance. This is most likely due to differences in the N₂O concentration threshold for inducing detectable narcotic effects among subjects, as well as differences in the dose-dependent effects of narcosis on psychomotor function [13].

The majority of the studies mentioned above included only male subjects, and those that included both genders did not focus on gender differences. Although it is well established that there is no difference between adult males and females in general intelligence level [14], some distinctions have been reported regarding different aspects of verbal and performance intelligence [15]. Men usually outperform women in mathematical problem-solving [16-18], visual-spatial ability [17,19-23], map reading [20,24] and targeted motor skills [25,26]. Women generally excel in verbal fluency [14,27,28], memory for object location [29,30], fine motor skills [31] and perceptual speed tasks [21,27]. These differences may be attributed to sensory nerve action potential amplitude [32-35], volume of white and gray matter and cerebrospinal fluid [36,37], global and regional cerebral glucose metabolism and blood flow [38-41], and activation pattern of the central nervous system [39,41-43].

To investigate individual susceptibility to N_2O -induced mild narcosis, we selected psychomotor tests that are simply and quickly administered, widely accessible and have good metric characteristics. Because of the gender differences in information processing described above and because of the cerebral vasodilatory effects of N_2O [44], we also investigated gender differences in susceptibility (in terms of psychomotor performance) to N_2O -induced mild narcosis. As already emphasized, the main premise of our study is that the findings obtained using N_2O can be generalized to nitrogen narcosis.

METHODS

The study protocol was approved by the National Committee for Medical Ethics of the Ministry of Health (Republic of Slovenia). Written informed consent was obtained from each participant before participating in the study. All participants attended a screening interview, during which their medical status was assessed to determine whether there were any contraindications to their participation in the study. None of the participants had any previous experience with N₂O. No female participant was pregnant. Twelve female and 12 male undergraduate physiotherapy students participated in the study. The

mean (SD) age of the participants was 21.7 (1.7) years, 21.6 (2.2) years for females and 21.8 (1.2) years for males. For the psychomotor assessment, two timed psychomotor tests were administered, which differed in complexity. The first one, the computerized Visual Simple Reaction Time (VSRT) test, is a sustained attention task that measures attention and response speed to an easily discriminated but temporally uncertain visual signal.

The task is to press a key on the mouse as quickly as possible when the stimulus is presented on the display. The stimulus was a circle; it was triggered by the experimenter; the random latency range between stimuli was two to 10 seconds. After one familiarization trial (five stimuli), five stimuli were presented within one session, and the average was taken as the test result. The temporal resolution of reaction time recording was 1 millisecond. Reliability of the measurement procedure was assessed (using intraclass correlation coefficient – ICC, average measure version, two-way random model for absolute agreement [45]) and was found to be very high (ICC = 0.998 (95% confidence interval 0.996-0.999), and ICC = 0.987 (0.975-0.993) under air and N₂O trials, respectively; see below for explanation).

Psychomotor speed and executive control were assessed with the Trail Making Test Part A (TMT-A) and Part B (TMT-B) [46]. The task in the TMT-A test is to connect 25 circled numbers by lines in sequence; in TMT-B, each circle contains either a letter or a number, and the task is to draw lines alternating from a number to a letter in increasing order (*e.g.*, 1-A-2-B . . .). The participants performed a short practice trial (TMT-A with eight numbers and TMT-B with four numbers and four letters) followed by the test proper. The accepted cutoff value for TMT is 40 seconds for task A and 91 seconds for task B [47,48].

Each individual experiment lasted approximately 30 minutes. It was conducted at the same time of the day for each subject. The subjects were instructed not to eat food or drink coffee, tea or alcohol drinks four hours prior to the experiment. Before the start of the experiment, each participant's height and weight were measured in order to calculate the body mass index (BMI). The three psychomotor tests were performed under two experimental conditions: breathing room air (air trial) and breathing a normoxic mixture containing 30% N₂O (N₂O trial), whereby the same sequence was followed for all participants. N₂O is a non-volatile, gaseous, inhaled anesthetic; the dose of 30% was selected because previous studies showed that subanesthetic concentrations (*i.e.*, FN₂O from 0.2 to 0.3) produce marked

TABLE 1: Descriptive statistics and results of statistical tests for Visual Simple Reaction Time (VSRT)
and Trail Making Test (TMT)

	Trial							
Test		Subjects			Regression model (p-values)			N_2O effect in pooled sample**
		Females	Males	Pooled sample	Model as a whole	Effect of gender*	Effect of BMI*	
VSRT (ms)	air	244 (36)	214 (17)	229 (31)	0.050	0.036	0.895	0.004
	N ₂ O	272 (44)	223 (38)	247 (47)	0.232	0.091	0.410	
TMT-A (s)	air	17.41 (5.34)	15.74 (3.80)	16.58 (4.62)	0.614	0.594	0.627	0.156
	N ₂ O	18.35 (6.02)	17.14 (3.55)	17.75 (4.87)	0.565	0.819	0.307	
TMT-B (s)	air	34.72 (10.61)	39.66 (14.46)	37.19 (12.65)	0.030	0.781	0.014	0.202
	N ₂ O	37.40 (22.48)	47.51 (23.67)	42.46 (23.16)	0.720	0.434	0.606	

Data are reported as mean (SD); *p-values in the N_2O rows refer to the change score (air $-N_2O$);

[49,50] and consistent effects on performance [13]. The participants breathed through a low-resistance T-shaped Hans Rudolph (Hans Rudolph Inc., Kansas City, USA) respiratory valve. They inspired the breathing mixtures via respiratory tubing subsequent to it being humidified by passing the gas through a water bath at room temperature (21-25° C). During the air trial, the participant inspired air for 10 minutes and then executed the tests. Assessment in the N₂O trial commenced after 10 minutes of breathing the N₂O mixture, to ensure a stable N₂O blood saturation of approximately 95% in the brain [51]. In each trial, the VSRT was followed by TMT-A and then TMT-B. Before each test, the procedure was explained to the subject, and a familiarization test performed.

Statistical analysis

First, an *a priori* comparison of BMI between genders (using independent samples t-test) was performed. Because it revealed a statistically significant difference, the analyses of potential gender effect on psychomotor performance had to account for the potential confounding effect of BMI. For this purpose, baseline (*i.e.*, air trial) psychomotor tests results and their change due to mild narcosis (*i.e.*, change scores computed as the difference between N₂O and air trials, with positive values reflecting a worsening, and negative values an improvement in function under mild narcosis) were analyzed using

linear regression as outcome variables with gender and BMI as predictors. Regression diagnostics (probability plots of residuals, standardized residuals *vs.* standardized predicted values scatterplots, variance inflation factors) were derived and none indicated any substantial departure from the regression model's assumptions.

Because no significant gender effect on change score was found in any of the regression models, simple comparisons between means of the air and N₂O trials were subsequently performed using paired t-tests on the pooled sample. Since psychomotor tests can be considered as having very high reliability, and thus any test score change as exceeding the minimum detectable change (also known as minimal real difference [52]), participants with zero or negative change score were considered as not having reached the concentration threshold. These binary data were compared between genders using Fisher's exact test.

Statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 19 software (SPSS Inc., an IBM Company, 2010). Statistical significance was set at $p \le 0.05$.

RESULTS

BMI differed statistically significantly between genders: on average, females had lower BMI (mean [SD] (22.0 (2.6) kgm⁻²) than males (24.9 [3.4] kgm⁻², p = 0.023).

The results of the psychomotor tests are summarized in Table 1 (above). During the air trials, mean VSRT

^{**}p-value from paired t-tests; see the Methods section for details

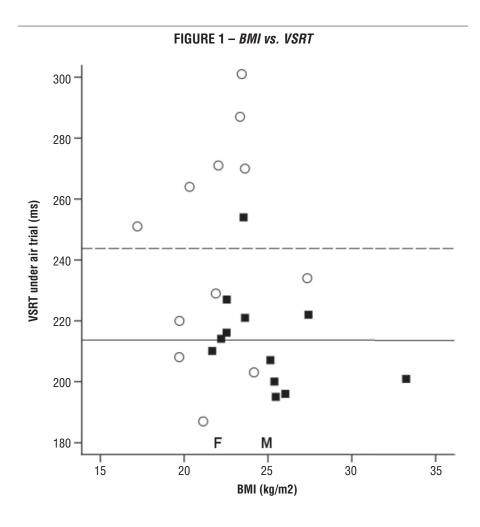


Figure 1. Relation between body mass index (BMI) and computerized visual simple reaction time (VSRT) test, depicted separately by gender. Open circles – female subjects; closed squares – male subjects; horizontal lines – VSRT means (dashed line for females, solid line for males); letters M and F on the horizontal axis – mean BMI for males and females, respectively.

was statistically significantly shorter in males than in females (p=0.036). A similar trend was observed in TMT-A, but the gender effect was not statistically significant. Conversely, the observed mean execution time for the more demanding TMT-B was shorter in females, albeit not significantly. There was no statistically significant effect of either gender or BMI on change of performance in the N₂O trials. Higher BMI was statistically significantly associated with longer TMT-B time during air trials (the raw and standardized regression coefficient, not reported in Table 1, was 2.196 and 0.558, respectively). Overall, N₂O statistically significantly worsened performance in VSRT (p=0.004), but not in TMT-A (p=0.156) or TMT-B (p=0.202), though the observed mean execution times were prolonged in both TMT parts as well.

The gender difference in the air trial VSRT is depicted in Figure 1 (above). The vertical lines show that the mean VSRT was shorter in males than in females. Additionally; the letters on the horizontal axis clearly indicate that males had higher BMI on average. However, it is also apparent that confounding was not an issue in this comparison, because neither the groups nor the pooled samples exhibited a correlation between BMI and VSRT. This can also be illustrated, albeit not properly statistically tested, by computing the three correlations, none of which was statistically significant (r = 0.155, p = 0.630 for females; r = 0.371, p = 0.235 for males; r = 0.250, p = 0.239 for the pooled sample).

Eight participants (three women and five men) performed VSRT equally or faster during the N₂O trials.

Six participants (four women and two men) performed equally or better under N₂O in TMT-A, and 11 participants (seven women and four men) in TMT-B. None of the differences between genders in the proportion of (non-) responders was statistically significant (p=0.667,0.640 and 0.414 for VSRT, TMT-A and TMT-B, respectively). Only four participants performed worse (and could therefore be considered as having reached the concentration threshold) in all three tests in the N₂O trial, and only one performed equally or better on all three tests in the N₂O trial (and could therefore be considered as not having reached the concentration threshold in any of them). During the N₂O trials, none of the participants reached the cutoff time for TMT-A and only two exceeded the cutoff time for TMT-B.

DISCUSSION

The observed gender difference in the air-trial VSRT is in agreement with the finding that males have faster reaction times than females in almost every age group [53,54]. Almost all of the gender differences appear to be accounted for by the lag between the presentation of the stimulus and the beginning of muscle contraction [55]. However, there is some disparity in the results of studies investigating the concentration threshold of N₂O at which such changes are detected. The initial conclusion [56] that the threshold concentration of N2O for an effect on psychomotor performance (as assessed by choice reaction times) probably lies between 8% and 12% is not supported by more recent studies [57,58], which do not report any significant differences in simple reaction time between N₂O (25% of N₂O and 75% O₂) and control (air) sessions. Our findings of prolonged visual reaction times are similar to those [59] who observed a prolongation of auditory reaction time under sub-anesthetic concentrations of various inhalation anesthetics (including N₂O).

TMT scores are affected by age, education [60-62] and general intelligence [60]. The influence of these factors was minimized in the present study, because the gender groups were age-balanced and the participants were studying in the same university department, at the same level, and had been admitted to the department by meeting the same strict high-school grade criterion for admission (which can be taken as a rough proxy for intelligence). In some studies, gender correlated neither with raw TMT scores [62] nor with derived indices [63]. Our results confirmed the observation [60] that females tend to take a longer time to complete Part A than males.

We observed a clear overall decline in performance in the N₂O trial only regarding VSRT. Previously, significant decrease in Digit-symbol Substitution Test scores has been observed in subjects who inspired 30% N_2O as compared to placebo (air) at five and 15 minutes of the inhalation period [64]. Similarly, inhalation of a normoxic mixture containing as little as 15% N_2O produced significant impairments in cognitive tasks (as measured by the Digit-symbol Substitution Test and the Sentence Verification test) [65]. In contrast, 25% N_2O was used in a study establishing that performance regarding accuracy of digit vigilance between N_2O and control sessions did not differ [58].

The dose-response profiles of various tests used to date reveal substantial differences [13]: no measure showed evidence of a change at the lowest concentrations (5% N_2O), several measures (digit-symbol substitution, choice reaction time – latency and total, tapping, and continuous attention) showed significant impairment at 10% N_2O , and all tests except critical flicker fusion showed substantial effects at the highest dose (40% N_2O). These results indicate that comparisons of profiles of drug-induced changes must take into account the variable effects of dose before interpretations in terms of specific drug effects can be made [13].

There were substantial differences among the participants in our study regarding their responses to N_2O in terms of psychomotor performance. Only about one-fifth of the participants could be classified as responders on all three tests, and only one as a non-responder on all three tests. Given such inter-individual differences, it is not surprising that the results of the three tests could not provide a good indication of a gender effect regarding the proportion of "responders" and "non-responders." As further explained in the Appendix, it may therefore be very difficult, or at least unproductive, to try to separate gender differences from effects of body stature.

The main effects of inhaling subanesthetic concentrations of N₂O are observed in the central nervous system. The global increase in cerebral blood flow induced by N₂O is distributed unevenly, with the main increases observed in the frontal, temporal, parietal cortex, basal ganglia, insula and thalamic regions [44]. The flow pattern suggests that inhalation of N2O augments flow through regions associated anatomically with the limbic system, most likely due to selective activation of these areas [44]. In contrast, N2O deactivates the posterior cingulate, hippocampus, parahippocampal gyrus, and visual association cortices in both hemispheres; the former two regions are known to mediate learning and memory [66]. This may, in part, explain why subjects who reached concentration threshold were not able to execute psychomotor tests equally or better.

A recent animal study provided evidence that N₂O impairs information processing by altering at least the stage of motor adjustment [67]. Since N₂O spared the sensory processes implemented during the stimulus preprocessing stage, the authors concluded that at some concentrations, N₂O displays opposite effects on reaction time and movement time. These results further preclude any universal and dose-independent conclusions regarding psychomotor functioning under nitrogen narcosis, including any straightforward gender differences.

To summarize, we believe that the most likely reason for the lack of agreement between the results of different studies involving N_2O -induced narcosis is the disregard for individual concentration thresholds of the participants. In other words, it seems that some experiments (or groups) may have involved mainly participants who did not reach the concentration threshold, while the opposite goes for the others. The solution to this problem appears to be twofold. The first option may be to carry out all such experiments in a dose-response manner; a second option may be to use a single concentration of N_2O but incorporate a subject inclusion criterion based on preliminary psychomotor tests to select susceptible participants.

APPENDIX - Some statistical considerations

It should be emphasized that conducting either an analysis of variance (mixed-model ANOVA with gender as between-subject and air vs. N_2O trial as within-subject factor, thus ignoring the confounding effect of BMI) or an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA; in an attempt to "adjust" for BMI) on our data would not be valid.

The reason for the latter deserves special emphasis, because in addition to the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes, ANCOVA also requires that the groups do not differ on the covariate [68]. This is a well-known and widespread issue in quasi-experimental research (i.e., comparison of pre-existing groups, observational studies, non-randomized studies), known as Lord's paradox [69,70], for which no simple solution exists.

In our analysis we used regression modeling of change scores, since it is arguably the most appropriate approach in such studies [71,72].

Conflict of interest statement

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

REFERENCES

- 1. Behnke AR, Thomson RM, Motley EP. The psychologic effects from breathing air at 4 atmospheres pressure. Am J Physiol 1935;112:554-558.
- 2. Fowler B, Ackles KN, Porlier G. Effects of inert gas narcosis on behavior: a critical review. Undersea Biomed Res 1985;12:369-402.
- 3. Bennett PB. Inert gas narcosis. In: Bennett PB, Elliott DH, eds. The physiology and medicine of diving, 4th ed. London: WB Saunders, 1993:170-193.
- 4. Turle-Lorenzo N, Zouania B, Risso J-J. Narcotic effects produced by nitrous oxide and hyperbaric nitrogen narcosis in rats performing a fixed-ratio test. Physiol Behav 1999; 67(3):321-325.
- 5. Fothergill DM, Hedges D, Morrison JB. Effects of CO₂ and N₂ partial pressures on cognitive and psychomotor performance. Undersea Biomed Res 1991;18:1-19.
- 6. Tetzlaff K, Leplow B, Deistler I, et al. Memory deficits at 0.6 MPa ambient air pressure. Undersea Hyperb Med 1998; 25(3):161-166.
- 7. Damant GCC. Physiological effects of work in compressed air. Nature 1930;126:606-608.

- 8. Shilling CW, Willgrube WW. Quantitative study of mental and neuromuscular reactions as influenced by increased air pressure. USN Med Bull 1937;35:373-380.
- 9. Levett DZ, Millar IL. Bubble trouble: a review of diving physiology and disease. Postgrad Med J 2008;84(997):571-578.
- 10. Korttila K, Ghoneim MM, Jacobs L, Mewaldt SP, Petersen RC. Time course of mental and psychomotor effects of 30 per cent nitrous oxide during inhalation and recovery. Anesthesiology 1981;54:220-226.
- 11. McMenemin IM, Parbrook GD. Comparison of the effects of subanaesthetic concentrations of isoflurane or nitrous oxide in volunteers. Br J Anaesth 1988;60:56-63.
- 12. Block RI, Ghoneim MM, Pathak D, Kumar V Hinrichs J. Effects of a subanaesthetic concentration of nitrous oxide on overt and covert assessments of memory and associative process. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 1988;3:324-331.
- 13. Fagan D, Paul DL, Tiplady B, Scott DB. A dose-response study of the effects of inhaled nitrous oxide on psychological performance and mood. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 1994;116:333-338.

- 14. Halpern DF. Sex differences in cognitive abilities. New Jersey: Erlbaum, 1992.
- 15. Nyborg H. Performance and intelligence in hormonally different groups. In: De Vries GJ, De Bruin JPC, Uylings HBM, Corner, MA, eds. Progress in Brain Research 61. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science, 1984:491-508.
- 16. Benbow CP, Benbow RM. Biological correlates of high mathematical reasoning ability. In: De Vries GJ, De Bruin JPC, Uylings HBM, Corner MA, eds. Progress in brain research. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science, 1984:469-490.
- 17. Gouchie C, Kimura D. The relationship between testosterone levels and cognitive ability patterns. Psychoneuro-endocrinology 1991;16:323-334.
- 18. Geary DC. Sexual selection and sex differences in mathematical abilities. Behav Brain Sci 1996;19:229-284.
- 19. Linn MC, Petersen AC. Emergence and characterization of sex differences in spatial ability: a meta analysis. Child Dev 1985:56:1479-1498.
- 20. Gladue BA, Beatty WW, Larson J, Staton RD. Sexual orientation and spatial ability in men and women. Psychobiology 1990;18:101-108.
- 21. Mann VA, Sasanuma S, Sakuma N, Masaki S. Sex differences in cognitive abilities: a cross-cultural perspective. Neuropsychologia 1990;28:1063-1077.
- 22. Gladue BA, Bailey JM. Spatial ability, handedness, and human sexual orientation. Psychoneuroendocrinology 1995; 20:487-497.
- 23. Collins DW, Kimura D. A large sex difference on a two-dimensional mental rotation task. Behav Neurosci 1997; 111:845-849.
- 24. Galea LAM, Kimura D. Sex differences in route-learning. Pers Individ Diff 1993;14:53-65.
- 25. Watson NV, Kimura D. Right-handed superiority for throwing but not for intercepting. Neuropsychologia 1989; 27:1399-1414.
- 26. Kimura D, Watson NV. Nontrivial sex differences in throwing and intercepting: relation to psychometrically-defined spatial functions. Pers Indiv Diff 1991;12:375-385.
- 27. Feingold A. Cognitive gender differences are disappearing. Am Psychol 1988;43:95-103.
- 28. Hyde JS, Linn MC. Gender differences in verbal ability: a meta-analysis. Psychol Bull 1988;104:53-69.
- 29. Eals M, Silverman I. The hunter-gatherer theory of spatial sex differences: proximate factors mediating the female advantage in recall of object arrays. Ethol Sociobiol 1994; 15(2):95-105.
- 30. James TW, Kimura D. Sex differences in remembering the locations of objects in an array: location-shifts versus location-exchanges. Evol Hum Behav 1996;18:155-163.

- 31. Hall JA, Kimura D. Sexual orientation and performance on sexually dimorphic motor tasks. Arch Sex Behav 1995;24: 395-407.
- 32. Casey EB, Le Quesne PM. Digital nerve action potentials in healthy subjects, and in carpal tunnel and diabetic patients. Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry 1972;35(5):612-623.
- 33. Felsenthal G. Comparison of evoked potentials in the same hand in normal subjects and in patients with carpal tunnel syndrome. Am J Phys Med 1978;57(5):228-232.
- 34. Trojaborg WT, Moon A, Andersen BB, Trojaborg NS. Sural nerve conduction parameters in normal subjects related to age, gender, temperature, and height: a reappraisal. Muscle Nerve 1992;15(6):666-671.
- 35. Garibaldi SG, Nucci A. Dorsal ulnar cutaneous nerve conduction: reference values. Arq Neuropsiquiatr 2002;60 (2-B):349-352.
- 36. Gur RC, Turetsky BI, Matsui M, et al. Sex differences in brain gray and white matter in healthy young adults: correlations with cognitive performance. J Neurosci. 1999; 19(10):4065-4072.
- 37. Chen X, Sachdev PS, Wen W, Anstey KJ. Sex differences in regional gray matter in healthy individuals aged 44-48 years: a voxel-based morphometric study. Neuroimage 2007; 36(3):691-699.
- 38. Gur RC, Gur RE, Obrist WD, et al. Sex and handedness differences in cerebral blood flow during rest and cognitive activity. Science 1982;217(4560):659-661.
- 39. Gur RC, Mozley LH, Mozley PD, et al. Sex differences in regional cerebral glucose metabolism during a resting state. Science 1995;267(5197):528-531.
- 40. Rodriguez G, Warkentin S, Risberg J, Rosadini G. Sex differences in regional cerebral blood flow. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1988;8(6):783-789.
- 41. Esposito G, Van Horn JD, Weinberger DR, Berman KF. Gender differences in cerebral blood flow as a function of cognitive state with PET. J Nucl Med 1996;37(4):559-564.
- 42. Andreason PJ, Zametkin AJ, Guo AC, Baldwin P, Cohen RM. Gender-related differences in regional cerebral glucose metabolism in normal volunteers. Psychiatry Res 1994;51(2):175-183.
- 43. Yousem DM, Maldjian JA, Siddiqi F, et al. Gender effects on odor-stimulated functional magnetic resonance imaging. Brain Res 1999;818(2):480-487.
- 44. Reinstrup P, Ryding E, Algotsson L, Berntman L, Uski T. Effects of nitrous oxide on human regional cerebral blood flow and isolated pial arteries. Anesthesiology 1994;81(2):396-402.
- 45. McGraw KO, Wong SP. Forming inferences about some intraclass correlation coefficients. Psychol Methods 1996; 1(1):30-46.

- 46. Reltan RM. Validity of the trail making test as an indication of organic brain damage. Percept Mot Skills 1959;8:271-276.
- 47. Roberts C, Horton AM Jr. Demographic effects on the trail-making test in hallucinogen abusers. Int J Neurosci 2001;110: 91-97.
- 48. Roberts C, Horton AM Jr. Using the trail making test to cdreen cognitive impairment in a drug abuse treatment sample. Int J Neurosci 2001;109: 273-280.
- 49. Maze M, Fujinaga M. Recent advances in understanding the actions and toxicity of nitrous oxide. Anaesthesia 2000; 55:311-314.
- 50. Quock RM, Vaughn LK. Nitrous oxide: Mechanism of its antinociceptive action. Analgesia 1995;1:151-159.
- 51. Eger EI II. Pharmacokinetics. In: Eger EI II, ed. Nitrous oxide. London: Edward Arnold, 1985:81-107.
- 52. Weir JP. Quantifying test-retest reliability using the intraclass correlation coefficient and the SEM. J Strength Cond Res 2005;19(1):231-240.
- 53. Dane S, Erzurumluoglu A. Sex and handedness differences in eye-hand visual reaction times in handball players. Int J Neurosci 2003;113(7):923-929.
- 54. Der G, Deary IJ. Age and sex differences in reaction time in adulthood: Results from the United Kingdom health and lifestyle survey. Psychol Aging 2006;21(1):62-73.
- 55. Botwinick J, Thompson LW. Components of reaction time in relation to age and sex. J Genet Psychol 1966;108:175-183.
- 56. Allison RH, Shirley AW, Smith G. Threshold concentration of nitrous oxide affecting psychomotor performance. Br J Anaesth 1979;51(3):177-180.
- 57. Zacny JP, Sparacino G, Hoffman PM, Martin R, Lichtor JL. The subjective, behavioral and cognitive effects of subanesthetic concentrations of isoflurane and nitrous oxide in healthy volunteers. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 1994;114:409-416.
- 58. Thompson JM, Naeve N, Moss MC, Scholey AB, Wesnes K, Girdler NM. Cognitive properties of sedation agents: comparison of the effects of nitrous oxide and midazolam on memory and mood. Brit Dent J 1999;187(10):557-562.
- 59. Tomi K, Mashimo T, Tashiro C, et al. Alterations in pain threshold and psychomotor response associated with subanesthetic concentrations of inhalation anaesthetics in humans. Br J Anaesth 1993;70(6):684-686.

- 60. Giovanoli AR, Del Pesce M, Mascheroni S, Simoncelli M, Laiacona M, Capitani E. Trail Making Test: normative values from 287 normal adult controls. Ital J Neurolog Sci 1996; 17:305-309
- 61. Mitrushina MN, Boone KL, D-Elia L. Handbook of normative data for neuropsychological assessment. New York: Oxford University Press, 1999.
- 62. Tombaugh TN. Trail making test A and B: normative data stratified by age and education. Arch Clin Neurophysiol 2004;19:203-214.
- 63. Horton AM, Roberts C. Derived trail making test indicies in a sample of hallucinogen abusers demographic effects. Int J Neurosci 2002;112: 565-573.
- 64. Galinkin JL, Janiszewski DB, Young CJ, et al. Subjective, psychomotor, cognitive, and analgesic effects of subanesthetic concentrations of sevoflurane and nitrous oxide. Anesthesiology 1997;87(5):1082-1088.
- 65. Tiplady B, Sinclair WA, Morisson LMM. Effects of nitrous oxide on psychological performance. Psychopharmacol Bull 1992;28:207-211.
- 66. Gyulai FE, Firestone LL, Mintun MA, Winter PM. In vivo imaging of human limbic responses to nitrous oxide inhalation. Anesth Analg 1996;83(2): 291-298.
- 67. Courtière A, Hardouin J, Vidal F, Possamaï C-A, Hasbroucq T. An additive factor analysis of the effect of subanaesthetic doses of nitrous oxide on information processing: evidence for an impairment of the motor adjustment stage. Psychopharmacology (Berl) 2003;165(4):321-328.
- 68. Miller JA, Chapman JP. Misunderstanding analysis of covariance. J Abnorm Psychol 2001;110(1):40-48.
- 69. Lord FM. A paradox in the interpretation of group comparisons. Psychol Bull 1967;68(5):304-305.
- 70. Lord FM. Statistical adjustments when comparing preexisting groups. Psychol Bull 1969;72(5):336-337.
- 71. Allison PD. Change scores as dependent variables in regression analysis. Sociol Methodol 1990;20: 93-114.
- 72. Maris E. Covariance adjustment versus gain scores revisited. Psychol Methods 1998;3(3):309-327.

•