Risk factors and therapeutic approach to acute hyponatremia in pediatrics

Atheer Musaed Aljuhani,Wafaa Abdullah M Alzahrani, Yasir Ghareeb Ibrahim Alrashdan, Sami Ayyadah Ghareeb Alshammari, Nouf Mohammed Ashwi Alshammari, Sohaib Aziz Habhab, Khaled Ayed Alzhrani, Maram Ahmed Aljezani, Tahani Mohammad Alhumaidi Alshammari

Abstract:

Hyponatremia manifests most commonly with neurologic dysfunction and results more from the rate of change of sodium concentration. This review discusses the recent evidence concerning the pathophysiology, risk factors and treatment techniques. We performed detailed search through electronic databases; PubMed, and EMBASE, for studies published in English language and human subjects thought instant to 2017. Studies discussing the acute hyponatremia in pediatrics, management approaches. Hyponatremia is a severe adverse event that can be avoided with proper IV fluids option and cautious monitoring. Because hospitalized children are at an increase danger for hyponatremia secondary to nonosmotic stimulus that could stimulate the release of ADH, isotonic intravenous (IV) fluids appears to be a safer empirical option. The studies discussed demonstrate that the use of isotonic IV fluids could decrease the risk of hospital-acquired hyponatremia. There is proof to sustain that hypotonic saline solutions could trigger acute hyponatremia, which may result in severe unfavorable effects and even fatality, especially in postoperative patients. Like all drugs, there is no ideal IV fluids for all kids, so response to IV fluids therapy need to be observed closely. When hypotonic saline is utilized health care providers need to be educated on the signs and symptoms associated with acute hyponatremia.

Introduction:

Acute hyponatremia is specified as a decrease in serum sodium (Na+) to less than 136 mEq/L. Symptoms of hyponatremia include neurological dysfunction related to cerebral edema with very early indications of nausea, headache, and malaise. Hyponatremia could at some point bring about seizures and death depending on the magnitude and seriousness of beginning [1].Hospitalized and postoperative kids are at high risk for creating acute hyponatremia because the early indicators are nonspecific and health care providers could associate these signs to various other causes such as today ailment, postoperative effects, anesthesia, or opioids. A lot of instances of neurological dysfunction and fatalities resulting from hyponatremic encephalopathy have actually happened in medical patients [2].

The kidney is the major regulator of water with antidiuretic hormone (ADH). ADH acts straight on the kidneys triggering reabsorption of water, which aids keep regular Na+ levels. When Na+ levels decrease, ADH release is prevented; this responses system assists Na+ levels stay within typical array despite having varying electrolyte-fee water intake and discharging. Nonetheless, many nonosmotic stimulations can stimulate ADH action. Some examples of nonosmotic stimuli consist of nausea, vomiting, pain, stress, injury, and opioids. Hospitalized and postoperative kids have numerous threat factors that predispose them to nonosmotic release of ADH, which will certainly create the retention of totally free water and might ultimately result in acute hyponatremia [3].

Kids going through surgery are at a higher danger for creating hyponatremia, specified as a plasma sodium level < 136 mmol/L, which creates cells to attract excess water and swell. Gathering evidence indicates that amongst those with a serum sodium < 125 mmol/L, greater than 50% develop hyponatremic encephalopathy and are at a threat for seizure, respiratory failing and inevitably death [4]. Therefore, appropriate perioperative fluid management is vital to avoid perioperative hyponatremia.

Hyponatremia manifests most commonly with neurologic dysfunction and results more from the rate of change of sodium concentration. This review discusses the recent evidence concerning the pathophysiology, risk factors and treatment techniques.

Methodology:

We performed detailed search through electronic databases; PubMed, and EMBASE, for studies published in English language and human subjects thought instant to 2017. Studies discussing the acute hyponatremia in pediatrics, management approaches, were included whether were reviews or control studies. following keywords are used in search process: “Hyponatremia”, “pediatrics”, “children”, “treatment”, “Management”. We excluded case reports. Moreover, references of included studies were scanned for more relevant articles.

Discussion:

- **Pathophysiological considerations**

Blood-brain barrier

The capillary endothelium which divides interstitial fluid (ISF) and plasma is easily permeable to water and electrolytes, whereas the cell membrane layer which divides the intracellular fluid (ICF) from extracellular fluid (ECF) is relatively impenetrable to various solutes. When SNa decreases, both Na and water move freely throughout the capillary membrane to keep osmotic balance in between plasma and ISF. At the level of the cell membrane in most body organs, osmotic balance is achieved only by motion of interstitial water into the cell and the advancement of intracellular edema. The net size of the tissue does not alter dramatically as the boosted cell size is made up for by a reduced interstitial space. The CNS acts differently because the blood-brain barrier (BBB) is made up of tight junctions in between capillary endothelial cells and astrocytic end-feet processes. Many solutes, consisting of Na, take a number of hours to equilibrate across the BBB between plasma and mind interstitium, whereas water moves rapidly in either direction. An osmolal gradient, for that reason, has a considerable and special effect on total brain size that is not seen in other body organs because the critical limit impeding osmolar motion is the capillary endothelium rather than the cell membrane. The intrinsic characteristics of the BBB causes the brain to reply to osmolal gradients as if it were a solitary cell [5].When hyponatremia (hypo-osmolality) exists, osmotic stability is accomplished by the action of water into brain interstitium as well as into the intracellular area leading to an internet rise in tissue size. Consequently, the mind, when compared to various other body organs, is more probable to experience a modification in its complete size in feedback to an acute change in plasma osmolality. It swells in feedback to lowered osmolality and shrinks when subjected to hyperosmolality.

Intracranial pressure-volume relationship

The skull with fused sutures is a rigid container filled with liquid and solid tissues. Since intracranial materials are noncompressible, a rise in volume in any one compartment need to be accompanied by an equal reduction in volume in other compartments in order for the intracranial pressure (tCP) to remain constant. When cerebral edema arises from hyponatremia, the early ICP homeostatic mechanism includes variation of intracranial cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) right into the distensible spinal subarachnoid area avoiding a rise in ICP. Clinical signs of cerebral edema, such as altered awareness and seizures, might occur before intracranial hypertension. When optimum displacement of CSF has happened, any type of additional increase in analytical edema leads to an exponential rise in ICP with devastating effects - brain stem herniation, apnea, and fatality. Compared with older children and grownups, open fontanelles and unfused sutures provide young infants partial protection from a precipitous rise in ICP to dangerous levels. Security, nevertheless, is not absolute and significant disruptions in CNS function from acute hyponatremia can happen in any kind of age-group.

CNS osmoregulatory mechanism

The brain has flexible systems to protect its mobile volume in response to continual changes in ECF osmolality that are not discovered in numerous various other organs. These osmoregulatory mechanisms allow the brain to normalize its water content when based on an altering osmolar environment. The time frame over which the brain water content is totally normalized is not developed in human beings. When an elevated ECF osmolality persists over 12-24 h, the brain generates added osmols, typically described as idiogenic osmols. The newly created osmols enable the intracellular compartment to gain back some of the water lost during the acute or consistent stage of hyperosmolality. Conversely, the brain can also reduce its osmolar content in situations where the ECF osmolality is reduced for a period of time, thus reducing the gain in

intracellular water. In acute hyponatremia the brain water content is increased whereas in chronic hyponatremia it tends to be normal.

- **CNS consequences of hyponatremia**

Hyponatremia and its treatment may cause brain injury by 2 distinctive mechanisms: hypoxic encephalopathy and central pontine myelinolysis (CPM). A significant and precipitous decline in SNa can trigger cerebral edema, brain stem herniation, and apnea. Severe hyponatremia of quick beginning can cause seizures, coma, breathing arrest, and irreversible brain damage [6], [7].Histopathological results in patients with acute hyponatremia and respiratory arrest are characteristic of cerebral hypoxia. Herniation of the brain stem into the foramen magnum, cerebral edema, and cortical necrosis with sparing of the white matter have been described in this setting. Acute hyponatremic encephalopathy is defined by cerebral edema resulting from hyponatremia with succeeding intracranial hypertension, apnea, and cerebral hypoxia. A rise in brain volume of 5% could cause these problems [8].Fast correction of chronic hyponatremia has actually been associated with a distinct neurological syndrome called central pontine myelinolysis (CPM) [9].The clinical symptoms of CPM consist of: spastic quadriplegia, pseudobulbar palsy, a reducing level of awareness, and behavior changes without focal findings [10], [11].CPM, a descriptive term, is characterized by demyelination within the central part of basal ports with sparing of both the axis cylinders and neurons. Foamy macrophages gather and oligodendroglia are diminished [9].The lesion has been shown to be restricted to the pons alone. Similar modifications have been observed in basal ganglia, corpus callosum, interior and external capsule, lateral geniculate nuclei, and thalamus. Originally acknowledged just at necropsy, the lesion can be acknowledged by computed tomography, magnetic resonance imaging, and brain stem auditory stimulated potentials. In big series of basic autopsies the occurrence of CPM has

varied from 0.17% to 0.28%, and over 250 instances have actually been reported [12]. Because comparable lesions have been observed in extrapontine regions where grey and white matter are carefully connected, the term osmotic demyelination syndrome has been recommended as a better description of the lesion [7]. Extrapontine myelinolysis might likewise occur without entailing the pons. Whether CPM takes place consequently of hyponatremia or its treatment has actually generated much conflict. CPM has been most regularly observed in patients with pre-existing medical conditions such as alcoholism, cirrhosis, enhanced ICP, malignancy, arteriosclerotic encephalopathy, obtained immunodeficiency disorder, membranous nephritis, and various other infections [13], [14]. A considerable number of patients have had poor nutrition and dehydration with and without accompanying electrolyte imbalance. Menstruating females seem at increased risk of developing CPM. These cfinical correlations have cast uncertainty as to the causal relationship between CPM and hyponatremia or its treatment. Nevertheless, in certain patients fast adjustment of hyponatremia is connected with neurological deterioration characterized by a modified degree of consciousness, a "locked-in disorder" (awake but not able to interact or relocate), abnormal qua & riplegia, pseudobulbar palsy, and the imaging or postmortem searchings for of CPM.

- **Identifying patients at risk for hyponatremia**

While hyponatremia of any kind of kind benefits evaluation and therapy, exactly what is of critical significance is identifying patients at risk for developing hyponatremic encephalopathy, as this problem could bring about transtentorial herniation, with death or irreversible neurologic impairment, if not recognized and managed [15]. Hypoosmolality results in an increase of water into the intracellular space down a focus gradient, leading to parenchymal cell swelling. This is described as cytotoxic cerebral edema. The brain's primary mechanism for adapting to

hyponatremia is the extrusion of intracellular electrolytes and osmolytes [16].The brain's adaptation to hyponatremia, however, takes some time; evidence from animal studies indicates a period of roughly 48 hours for the brain to adapt [17].Thus, acute hyponatremia is defined as hyponatremia less than 48 hours in duration and chronic hyponatremia as above 48 hours. The brain is also more vulnerable to neurologic injury from overcorrection following chronic hyponatremia [18] While hyponatremia that is abrupt and extreme is most likely to generate brain edema than moderate and chronic hyponatremia, there are numerous risk aspects for establishing hyponatremic encephalopathy with light or chronic hyponatremia as well. People at increased danger include those G16 years old [19], postmenarchal women [15], patients with hypoxemia [20], and those with underlying central nervous system illness [21]. These danger aspects are associated with either impaired brain cell volume regulation or lowered intracranial capability for brain development. Hyponatremic encephalopathy is more than likely to occur in postoperative patients and patients with SIAD receiving hypotonic fluids in the health center setup, and as a difficulty of thiazide diuretics, SSRIs, exercise-associated hyponatremia, the recreational drug euphoria (3,4-methylenedioxy-methamphetamine [MDMA], or psychogenic polydipsia in the outpatient setup. Hyponatremic encephalopathy can be difficult to acknowledge, as the presenting signs are variable and can be nonspecific. Therefore, it is of paramount value that serum sodium levels are kept an eye on in patients with signs and symptoms suggestive of hyponatremic encephalopathy, and hyponatremic worths should not be ignored or rejected. One of the most usual presenting attributes are headache, nausea, throwing up, and sleepiness. Advanced signs consist of seizures, coma, non-cardiogenic pulmonary edema, and decorticate posturing. Hyponatremic encephalopathy can offer with irregular features, such as a bone fracture in the aged as a result of a fall or a pulmonary edema in an otherwise healthy and balanced female [22], [23].These signs and symptoms can conveniently be misattributed to various other reasons, so

physicians should know this organization. A cranial CT scan could not constantly be used to rule out hyponatremic encephalopathy, as this method is not delicate enough to detect moderate cerebral edema, for which diffusion weighted-imaging MRI is better [24].

Table1. Signs and symptoms. CNS findings [2],[3].

CNS findings		
1. Early signs of hyponatremia include the following:	**2. Advanced signs include the following:**	**3. Far-advanced signs include the following:**
Anorexia	Impaired response to verbal stimuli	Decorticate or decerebrate posturing
Headache	Impaired response to painful stimuli	Bradycardia
Nausea	Bizarre behavior	Hypertension or hypotension
Emesis	Hallucinations	Altered temperature regulation
	Obtundation	Dilated pupils
	Respiratory insufficiency	Seizure activity
	Incontinence	Respiratory arrest
	Seizure activity	Coma

- **Treatment**

Hyponatremia is a multifactorial problem with various reasons, and management will differ relying on the etiology of the condition and the underlying disease. There are numerous therapies offered, a lot of which have not been officially studied in wonderful detail.

Liquid restriction is the cornerstone in the management of hyponatremia, as hyponatremia is not likely to occur in the absence of liquid consumption. Liquid restriction is primarily shown in the management of euvolemic and hypervolemic hyponatremia, as is seen in SIADH and congestive heart failure [25]. Liquid constraint is a slow-moving methods of fixing hyponatremia and is not ideal as the single therapy of symptomatic hyponatremia. Liquid restriction alone is connected with virtually 100 % morbidity and mortality in the therapy of hyponatremic encephalopathy

[25].For liquid restriction to be successful, fluid intake from all sources must be less than total daily urine output.

Isotonic saline is mainly suggested for the management of hypovolemic hyponatremia, as can accompany gastrointestinal losses, diuretics, or mineralocorticoid shortage. Management of isotonic saline can likewise be useful in distinguishing hypovolemic hyponatremia from SIADH, as it is generally ineffective in increasing serum sodium in SIADH and can possibly worsen hyponatremia [26]. A significant response in serum sodium in response to saline follows quantity deficiency. Saline should be stayed clear of in patients with hypervolemic hyponatremia, as it can worsen fluid overload.

Hypertonic saline is mainly shown for the management of symptomatic hyponatremia; the preferred treatment is intermittent 100 ml boluses in repeated style, with the goal of an acute elevation in serum sodium of 4-6 mEq/L [26]. Slow constant infusions could likewise be utilized to either correct or keep serum sodium, particularly in cases of intracranial disease where there might be cerebral salt wasting [28]. Hypertonic saline in mix with furosemide has actually been effectively utilized to correct hyponatremia in both SIADH and congestive heart failure [27]. Continuous infusions of hypertonic saline need to be used with caution, as formulas do not dependably forecast the rate of improvement, and extreme modification of hyponatremia could take place. As a rule of thumb, 1 ml/kg of 3 % sodium chloride will increase serum sodium by 1 mEq/L. Salt degrees need to be monitored every few hrs in patients on continual infusions of 3 % sodium chloride in order to avoid excessive adjustment, and rates of mixture need to generally not surpass 0.5- 1 ml/kg/hour. Patients obtaining hypertonic saline ought to be carefully checked for liquid overload symptoms such as lung congestion and hypertension, particularly patients with renal failing or congestive heart failure.

Loop diuretics impair renal concentration by inhibiting the progression of the hypertonic medullary concentration gradient, leading to urinary free water loss. They are a helpful adjuvant to either typical saline, hypertonic saline, or oral sodium tablets in the treatment of euvolemic or hypervolemic hyponatremia [28].It is specifically beneficial if there is a concern for fluid overload related to hypertonic saline or when large volumes of hypertonic saline are required due to really high urine osmolality.

Both oral and intravenous urea are available for the therapy of hyponatremia, although not extensively used in the United States [29].Urea functions mainly as an osmotic diuretic by raising the kidney solute lots. It has been most typically used in the therapy of the nephrogenic disorder of inappropriate antidiuresis (NSIAD), a chronic problem where there is a gain-of-function mutation in the V2 receptor for which vaptans will be inadequate. Theoretically, urea could be a perfect treatment for extreme and chronic hyponatremia, as animal researches recommend that it could secure the brain versus myelinolysis. We do not advise it for symptomatic hyponatremia, as urea is an inefficient osmole, and it is not as reliable as hypertonic saline in reducing brain swelling.

Renal replacement therapy

Hyponatremia can be a problem of oliguric acute kidney injury, and hemodialysis or continuous renal replacement treatment has been used to correct serum sodium amounts [30].Adjustment will should be made to the prescription in order to avoid overcorrection.

Conclusion:

Hyponatremia is a severe adverse event that can be avoided with proper IV fluids option and cautious monitoring. Because hospitalized children are at an increase danger for hyponatremia secondary to nonosmotic stimulus that could stimulate the release of ADH, isotonic intravenous (IV) fluids appears to be a safer empirical option. The studies discussed demonstrate that the use of isotonic IV fluids could decrease the risk of hospital-acquired hyponatremia. There is proof to sustain that hypotonic saline solutions could trigger acute hyponatremia, which may result in severe unfavorable effects and even fatality, especially in postoperative patients. Like all drugs, there is no ideal IV fluids for all kids, so response to IV fluids therapy need to be observed closely. When hypotonic saline is utilized health care providers need to be educated on the signs and symptoms associated with acute hyponatremia.

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