

NIVAMATULLAH   MEMORIAL   ESSAY   WRITING  
COMPETITION

66  
WATER   METABOLISM  
AND  
DISORDERS   OF   WATER   BALANCE 55

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## WATER METABOLISM AND DISORDERS OF WATER BALANCE

### INTRODUCTION

Disorders of body fluid are among the most commonly encountered problems in clinical practice. Since body water is primary determinant of osmolality of extracellular fluid (ECF), disorders of water metabolism can be broadly divided into

1) hypoosmolar disorders, in which there is excess of body water relative to body solute.

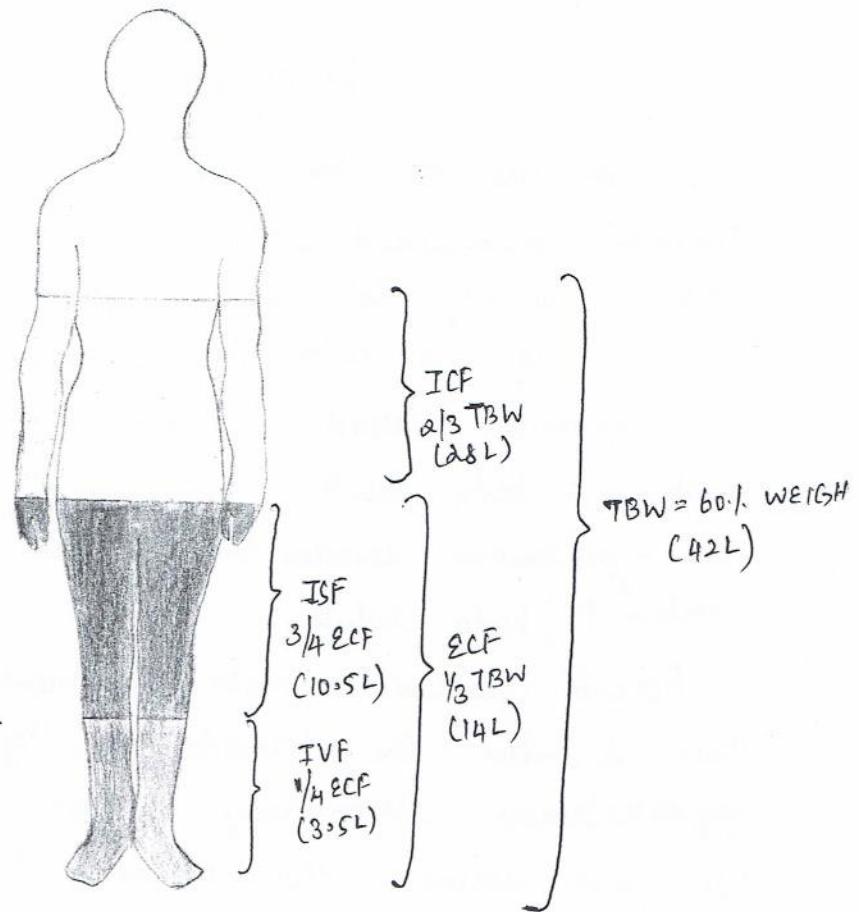
2) hyperosmolar disorders, in which there is deficiency of body water relative to body solute.

Because sodium is main constituent of plasma osmolality ( $\text{Posm}$ ), these disorders are characterized by hyponatremia and hypernatremia respectively. Before discussing these disorders, let's first review the regulatory mechanisms underlying water and sodium metabolism, two major determinants of body fluid homeostasis.

### BODY FLUID COMPARTMENTS

Water constitutes  $\sim 55\text{-}65\%$  of body weight (BW), varying with age, sex and amount of body fat. TBW is distributed between ~~the~~ Intracellular Fluid (ICF) and ECF compartments.

ISF = Interstitial fluid  
IVF = Intravascular fluid.



SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF BODY FLUID COMPARTMENTS  
The shaded areas depict the approximate size of each compartments in 70 kg adult.

### TOTAL AND EFFECTIVE OSMOLALITY

Osmolality is defined as concentration of all solutes in given weight of water. It can be measured directly (via determination of freezing point depression ( $\Delta T_f$ )) or indirectly (via determination of vapour pressure, since each of these are colligative properties of number of free solute particles in a given volume of plasma).

(ii) estimated as

$$\text{Posm (osm/kg H}_2\text{O)} = 2 \times \text{plasma Na}^+ \text{ (meq/L)} + \frac{\text{glucose (mg/dL)}}{18} + \frac{\text{BUN (mg/dL)}}{2.8}$$

Both (i) and (ii) produce comparable results under most conditions. However, total osmolality of plasma is not always equivalent to "effective" osmolality. (X/A Tonicity of plasma) because the latter is function of relative solute permeability properties of membrane separating two compartments. Solutes that are impermeable to cell membrane (Na<sup>+</sup>, mannitol) are restricted to ICF compartments and are ineffective osmopes, since they meal osmotic pressure gradient across cell membrane, leading to osmotic movement of water from ICF to ECF compartments. Osmotic movement of water from ICF to ECF compartments. Solutes that are permeable to cell membrane (Urea, ethanol, methanol) are ineffective solutes, do not create osmotic pressure gradient and not associated with water shift. Glucose is unique solute, at normal physiologic plasma concentrations, taken up by cells via active mechanisms and therefore act as ineffective solutes, but under condition of impaired cellular uptake (e.g. insulin deficiency) it becomes an effective solute.

### WATER BALANCE AND OVERALL RENAL HANDLING OF WATER

3 major sources of water -

- 1) water ingested.

- 2) Water contained within food  
 3) water produced by aerobic metabolism as mitochondria convert food stuffs and  $O_2$  to  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$

INPUT

SOURCE	AMOUNT (ml)
Ingested fluids	1200
Ingested foods	1000
metabolism	300
	2500

OUTPUT

ROUTE	AMOUNT (ml)
Urine	1500
Feces	100
Skin / sweat	550
Exhaled air	350
	2500

\* Kidney can generate a urine as dilute as 30 mosm ( $\frac{1}{10}$  plasma osmolality) or as concentrated as 1200 mosm ( $4 \times$  plasma osmolality).

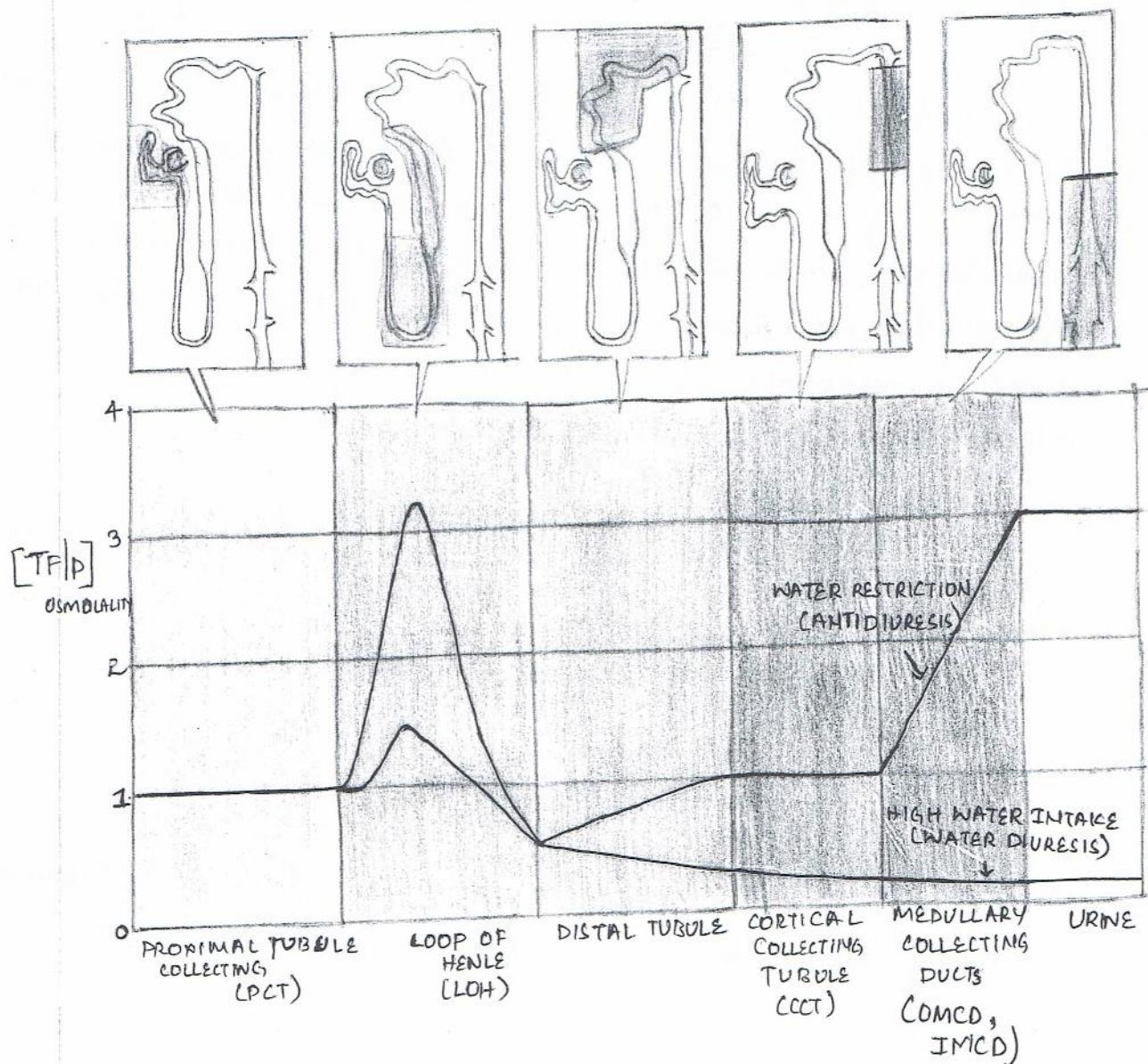
\* Free Water clearance is positive if kidney produces urine that is less concentrated than plasma and negative if kidney produces urine that is more concentrated than plasma.

$$\dot{V} = C_{osm} + C_{H2O} \\ (\text{Urine output}) \quad (\text{osmolal}) \quad (\text{Free water clearance})$$

$$C_{H2O} = \dot{V} - C_{osm}$$

## WATER TRANSPORT BY DIFFERENT SEGMENTS OF NEPHRON

\* Kidney generates concentrated Urine by using osmosis to draw water from tubule lumen, across a water-permeable epithelium into hypertonic interstitium.



- RELATIVE OSMOLALITY OF TUBULE FLUID ALONG NEPHRON. PLOTTED ON Y-AXIS IS RATIO OF OSMOLALITY OF TUBULE FLUID ( $[TF]$ ) TO OSMOLALITY OF PLASMA ( $[P]$ ). ON X-AXIS REPRESENT DISTANCE ALONG NEPHRON.

Tubular fluid is isotonic in PCT, become dilute in LOH and then either remains dilute or becomes concentrated by end of collecting duct.

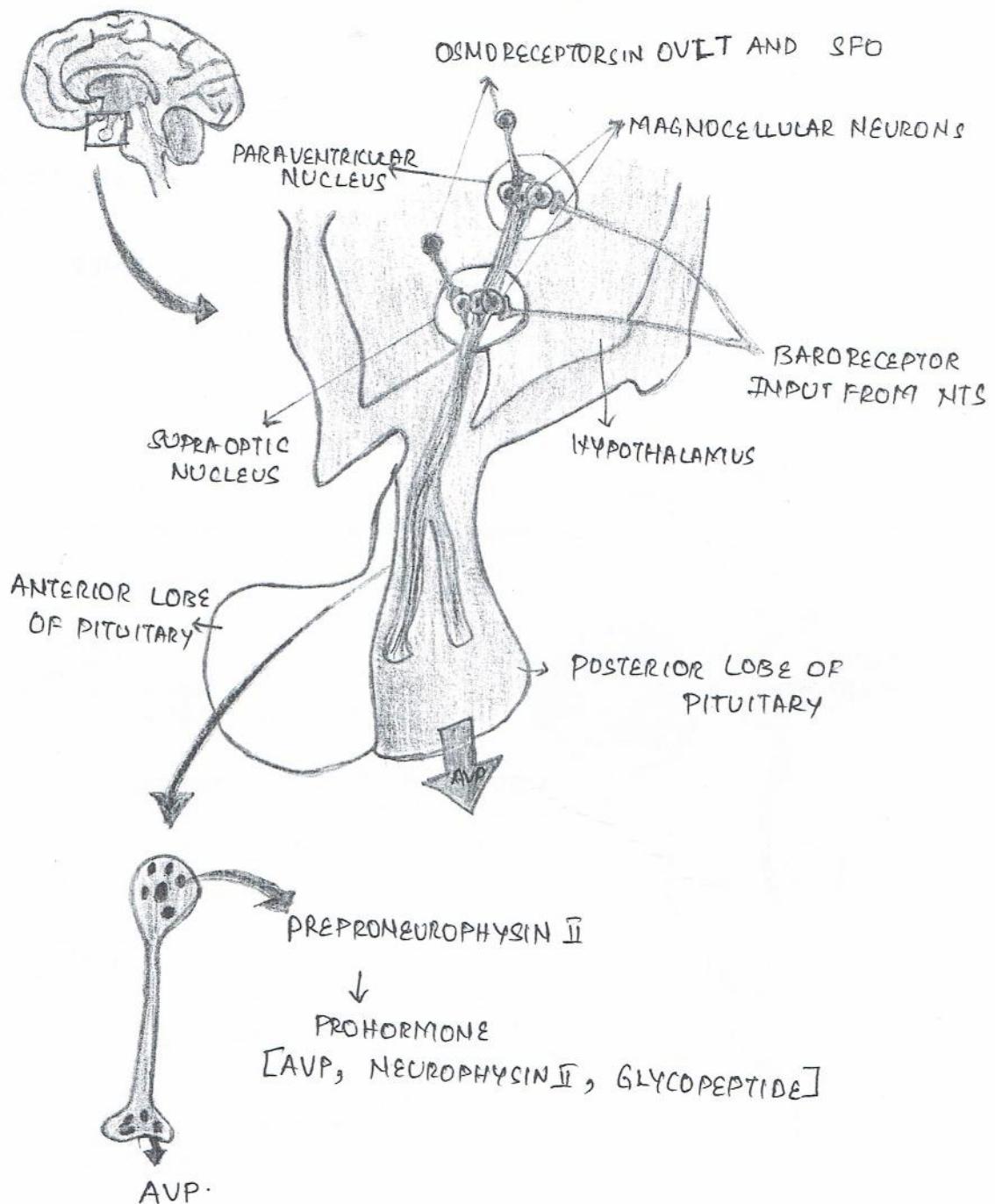
Redcurve: Under unrestricted water intake; elevated levels of Arginine Vasopressin (AVP), increase water permeability from Initial Collecting Tubule (ICT) to end of Inner Medullary Collecting Duct (IMCD). So osmolality of tubular fluid increases along ICT, achieving osmolality of cortical interstitium (same as plasma osmolality ~290mOsm) by end of this nephron segment. IMCD, luminal osmolality rises sharply as tubular fluid equilibrates with surrounding medullary interstitium, which becomes increasingly more hyperosmotic from corticomedullary junction to papillary tip.

**[IMCD]** responsible for concentrating final urine.

- \* Two major mechanisms responsible for regulating water metabolism are
  - (i) pituitary secretion of hormone Vasopressin
  - (ii) Thirst.

### Arginine Vasopressin (AVP)

Large bodied neurons in paraventricular and supraoptic nuclei of hypothalamus synthesize AVP, 9-aminoacid peptide (C<sub>1</sub>A<sub>8</sub>D<sub>10</sub>H<sub>1</sub>)

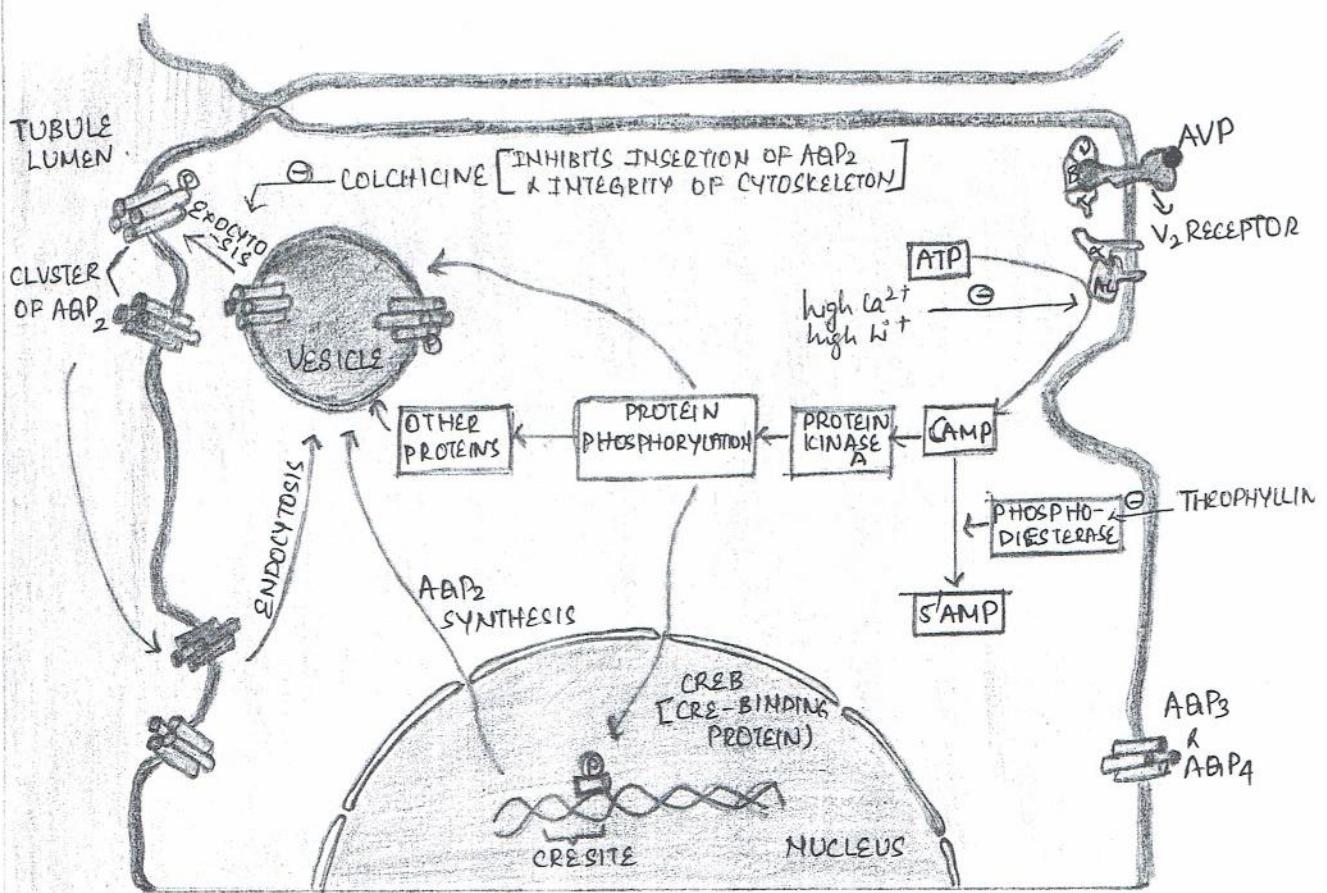


CONTROL OF AVP SYNTHESIS & RELEASE BY OSMORECEPTORS.

Signals from atrial, low pressure baroreceptors travel with vagus nerve to nucleus tractus solitarius (NTS).

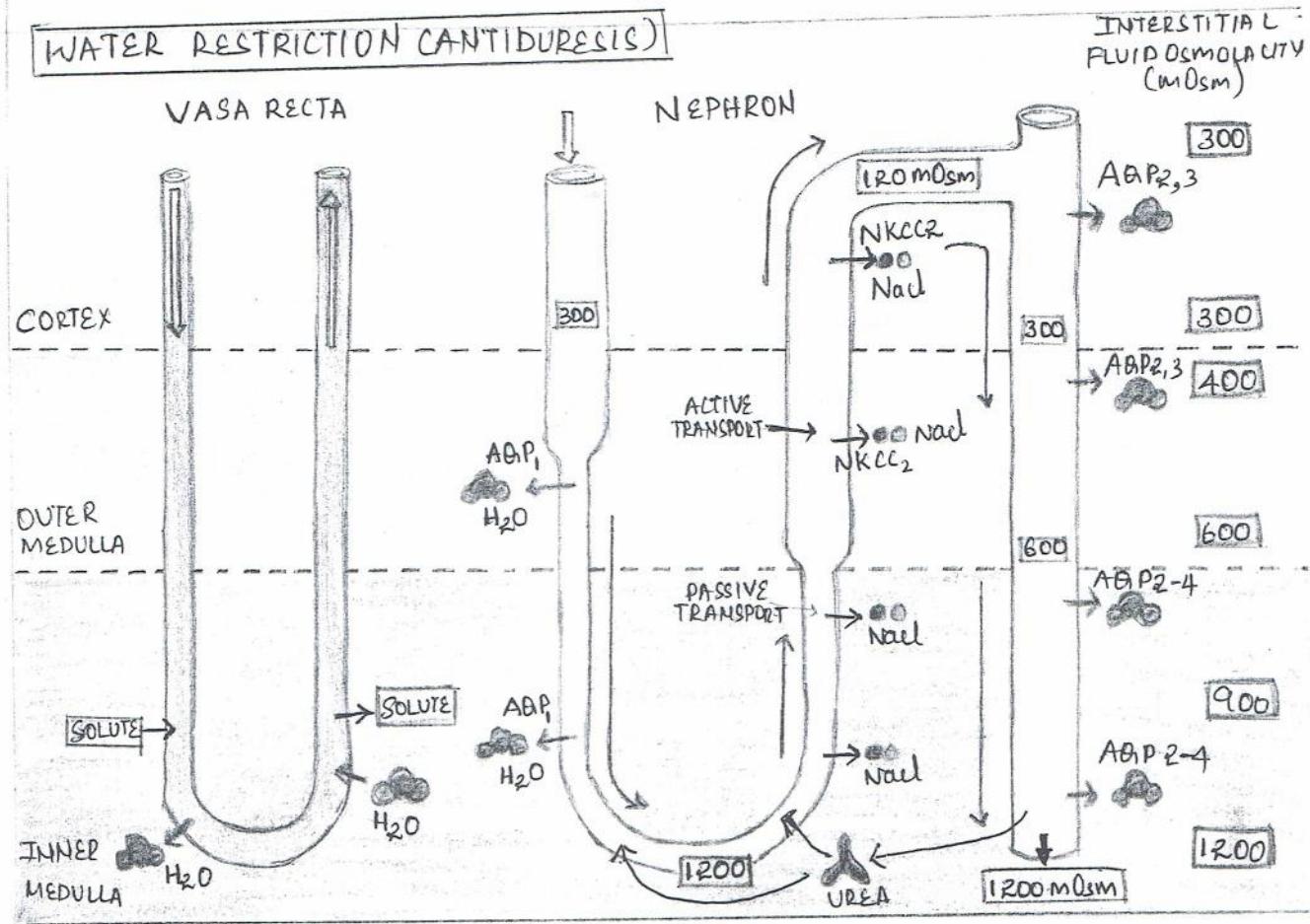
## 2 ACTIONS OF AVP

- (i) IN HYPOVOLMIC SHOCK - acts on Naeclar smooth muscle to cause vasoconstriction.
- (ii) ACTS ON KIDNEY - major regulator of water excretion by
  - a) increasing water permeability in all segments beyond DCT
  - b) Increase Urea permeability in IMCD
  - c) Increase active Na<sup>+</sup> reabsorption in TAL

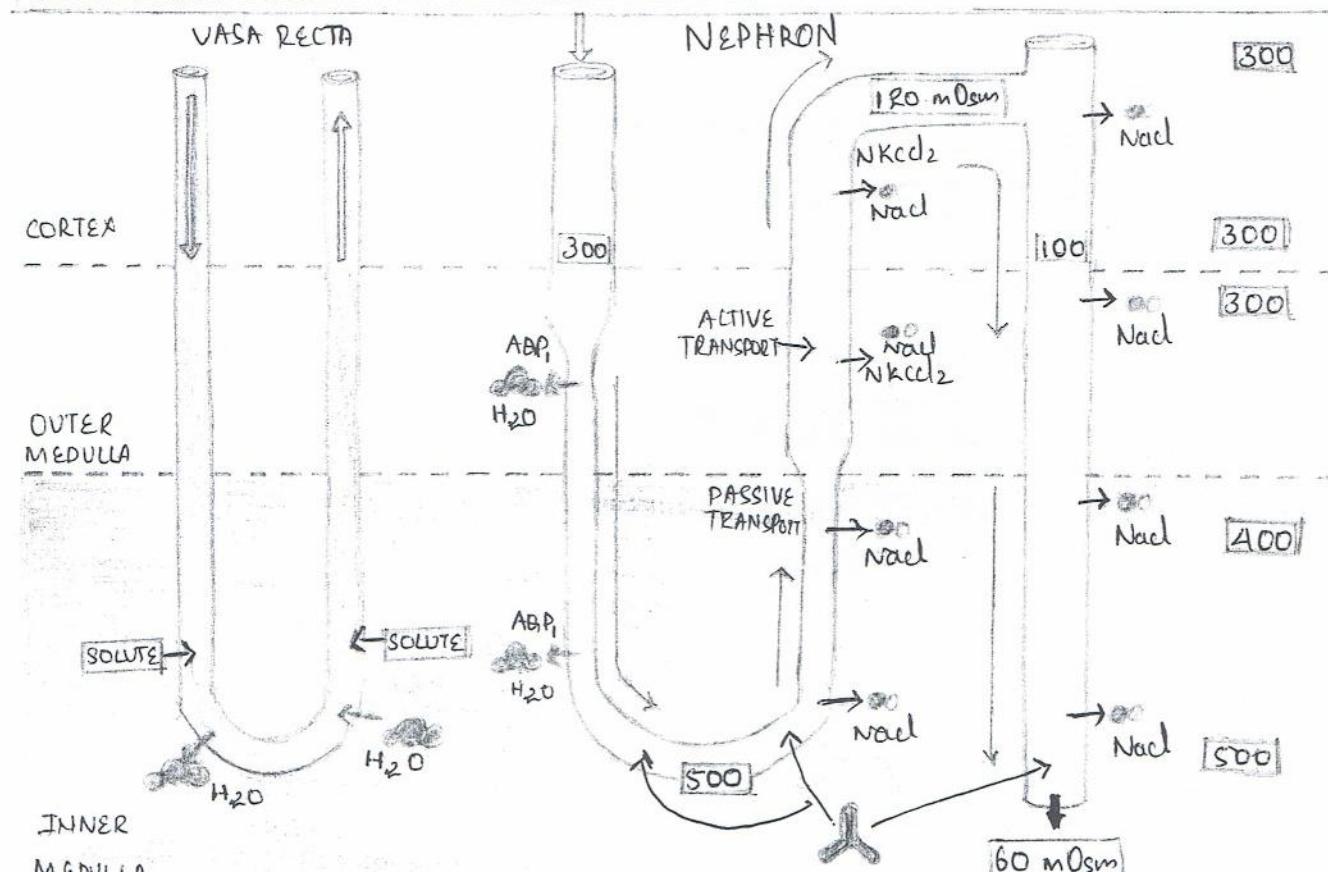


CELLULAR MECHANISM OF AVP ACTION IN COLLECTING TUBULE

### WATER RESTRICTION (ANTIDIUREESIS)

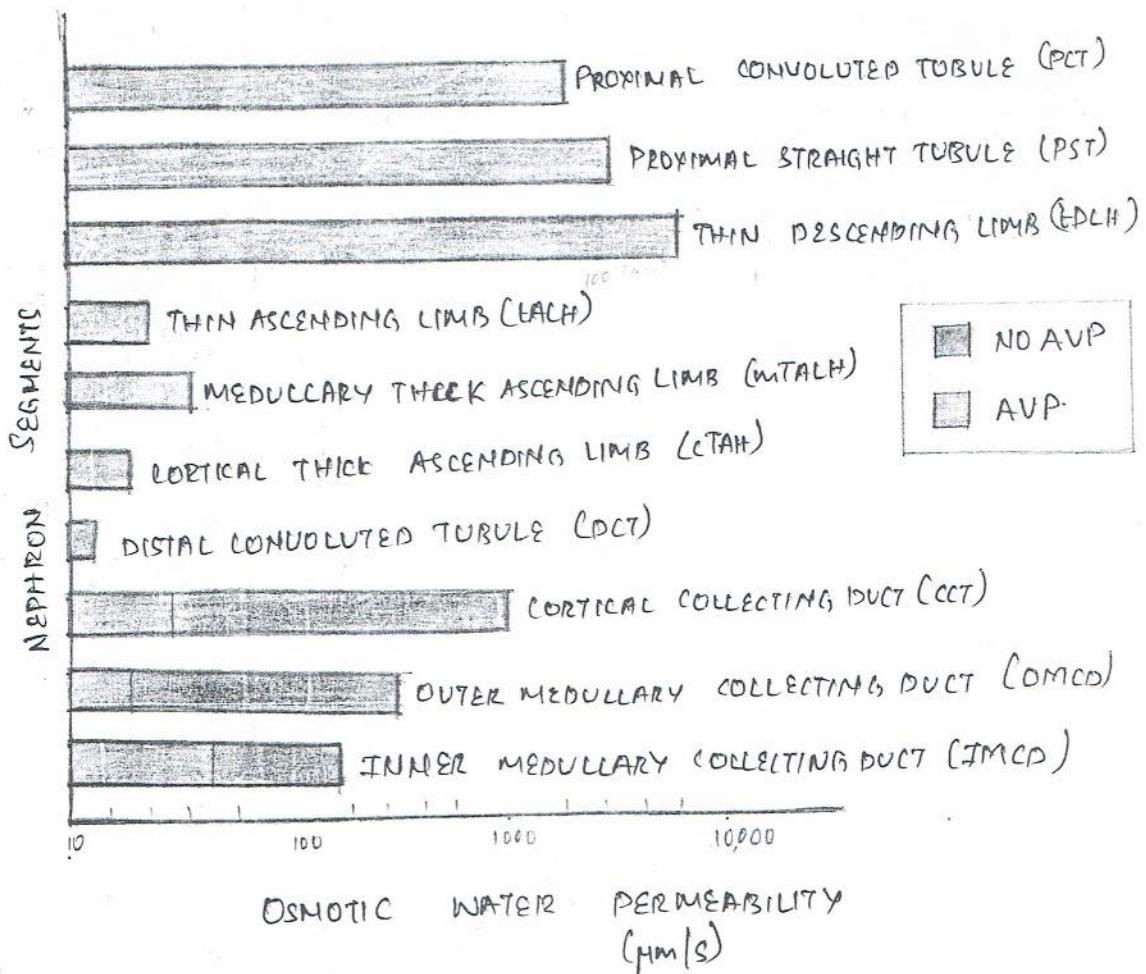


### HIGH WATER INTAKE (WATER DIURESIS)



- \* Highest water permeability seen in PCT and TDLH → reflects abundant presence of AQP<sub>1</sub> water channel in apical and basolateral cell membrane.
- \* AVP dramatically increases water permeability of collecting tubules (JCT and eCT) and duct (OMCD and IMCD) by causing AQP<sub>2</sub> water channel to insert into apical membrane.
- \* AQP<sub>3</sub>, AQP<sub>4</sub> → present in Basolateral cell membrane of MCPs

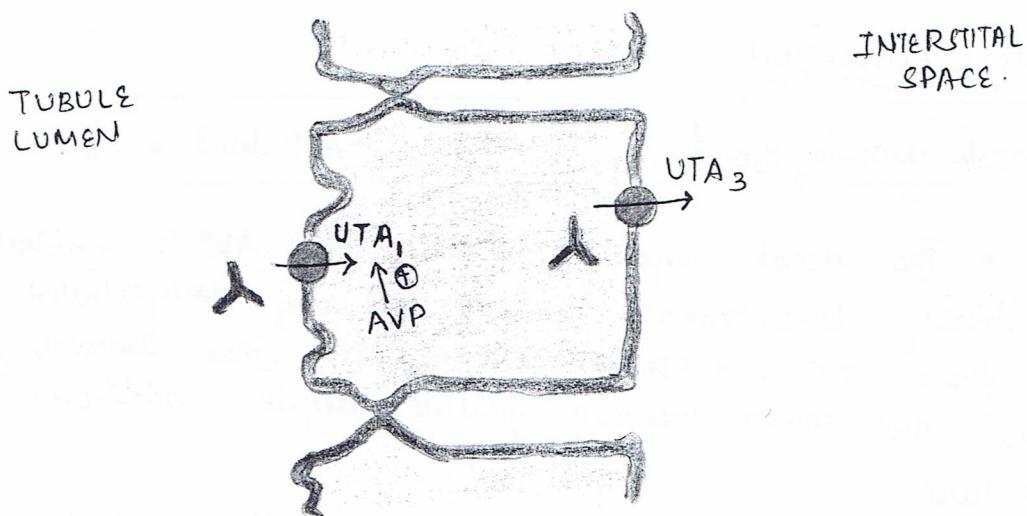
$AQP_2 \rightarrow$ sensitive to AVP
$AQP_1, AQP_3, AQP_4 \rightarrow$ insensitive to AVP.



WATER PERMEABILITY IN DIFFERENT NEPHRON SEGMENTS

In inner medulla, AVP enhances urea permeability of terminal  $\frac{2}{3}$  of IMCD. AVP-dependent increase in cAMP that triggers apical insertion of  $\text{AQP}_2$ -containing vesicle, also leads to phosphorylation of apical UT-A<sub>1</sub> (urea transporter) & increases its activity. Substantial increase in urea reabsorption and thus high interstitial urea i.e. indirectly responsible for generating osmotic gradient that drives water reabsorption in IMCD.

### IMCD



### REGULATION OF WATER PERMEABILITY

#### SHORT TERM

AVP - through cAMP - stimulates vesicle containing water channel move to apical membrane from subapical pool

#### LONG TERM

AVP - by enhancing transcription of  $\text{AQP}_2$  gene - increase abundance of  $\text{AQP}_2$  protein in principle cells

- \* Breakdown of AVP take place in Liver and Kidney
- \*  $t_{1/2}$  of AVP is 18 minutes

congestive heart failure } can compromise breakdown of AVP  
 congestion of liver }  
 Renal impairment }  
 ↓  
 high circulating levels of AVP.

- \* 1% rise in plasma osmolarity  
 $\rightarrow$  5 to 10% reduction in effective circulatory volume }  
 ⇒ AVP release.

### OSMOTIC REGULATION

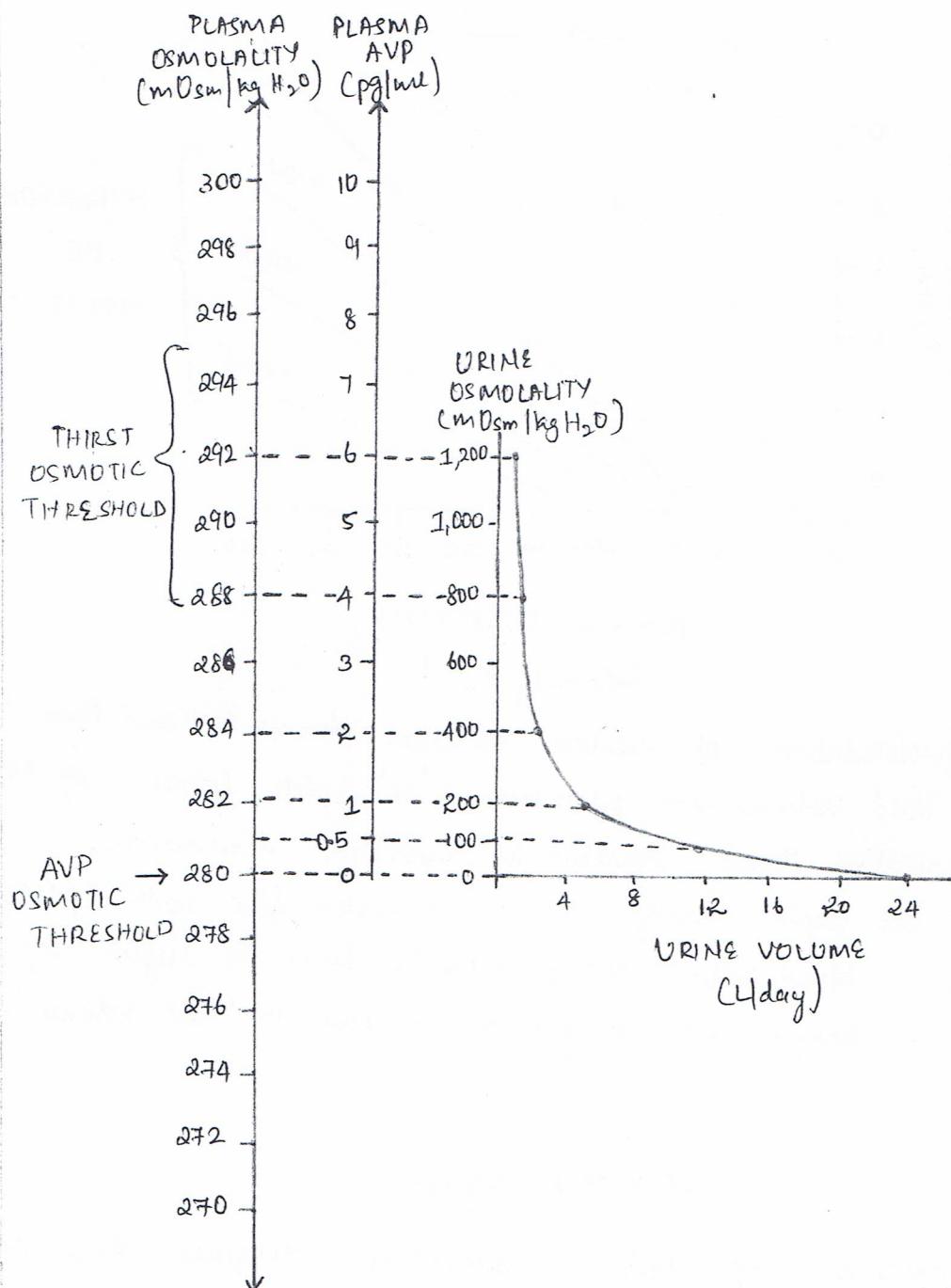
for each  $1 \text{ mOsm/kg H}_2\text{O} \uparrow \text{in Po}_\text{sm} \Rightarrow \uparrow \text{plasma AVP level of } 0.4 \text{ to } 0.8 \text{ pg/ml}$

\* The renal response to circulating AVP is similarly linear, with Urinary concentration that is directly proportional to AVP levels from 0.5 to 4.5 pg/ml after which Urine Osmolarity is maximal and cannot increase further despite additional increase in AVP level.

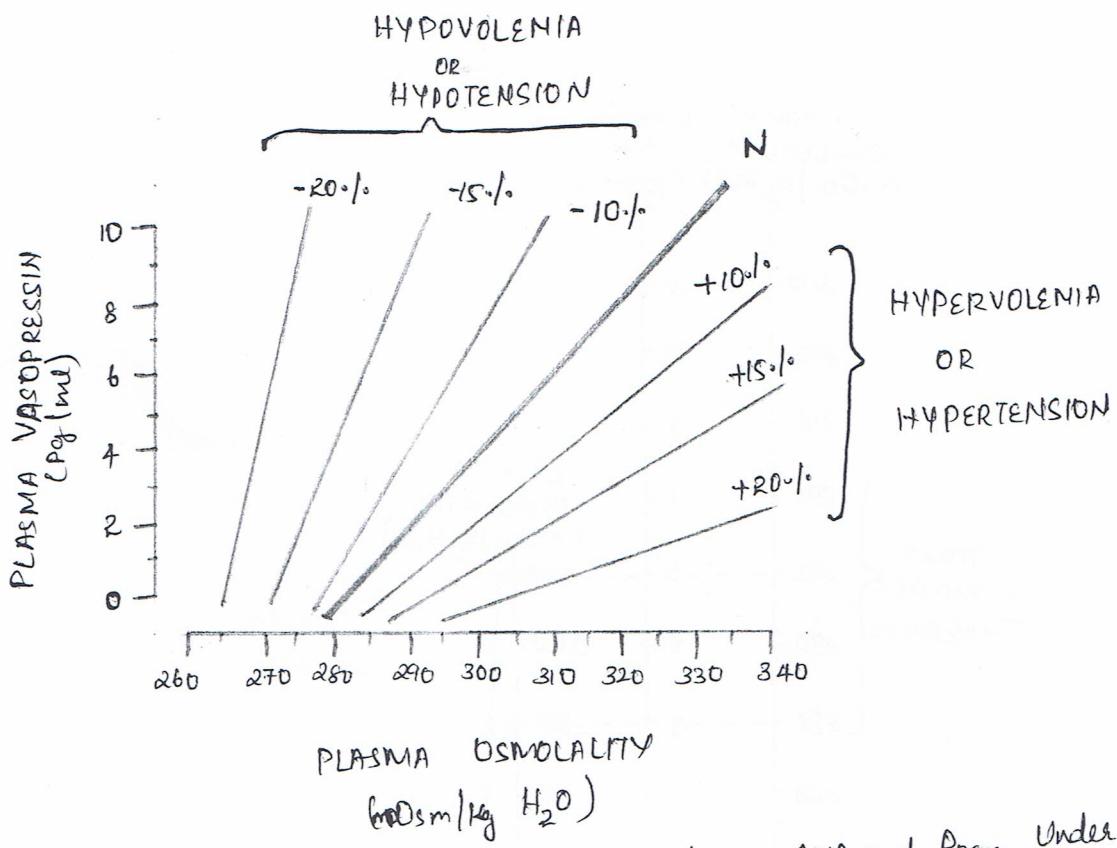
Thus, change of 1% in Po<sub>sm</sub> are sufficient to cause significant  $\uparrow$  in AVP levels and maximal antidiuresis is achieved i.e. after increase in Po<sub>sm</sub> of 5-10 mOsm/kg H<sub>2</sub>O (2-4%) above threshold for AVP secretion.

### VOLUME REGULATION

In case of thirst, hypovolemia is stimulus for AVP secretion. AVP secretion is much less sensitive to small changes in Blood Volume and Blood pressure than to changes in Osmolarity.



Schematic representation of normal physiological relationships among P<sub>osm</sub>, Plasma AVP, Osm and Urine Volume. Note particularly inverse relationship between Osm and Urine Volume, resulting in disproportionate effects of small changes in Plasma AVP on Urine Volume.



Representation of relation between plasma AVP and Posm under varying blood volume and pressure. 'N' depicts linear regression line associating these variables in euvolemic normotensive subjects. Lines to left depict changes in this regression line with progressive decrease in blood volume and pressure. Lines to right depict the opposite changes with progressive increase in blood volume and pressure.

### SODIUM METABOLISM

Maintenance of sodium homeostasis requires simple balance between intake and excretion.

SALT APPETITE: A robust salt appetite occurs predominantly in adrenal insufficiency and related to high ACTH, produced as a result of loss of cortisol feedback on pituitary.

## DISORDERS OF WATER BALANCE

### HYPEROSMOLALITY AND HYPERNATREMIA

Hyperosmolality refers to deficiency of water relative to solute in ECF.  
 Hypernatremia → can be caused by excess of body sodium. Vast majority of cases due to loss of body water in excess of body solute.

#### Pathogenesis of hyperosmolar disorder

WATER DEPLETION (DECREASE IN TOTAL BODY WATER IN EXCESS OF BODY SOLUTE).

##### 1. INSUFFICIENT WATER INTAKE:

- Hypodipsia (osmoreceptor dysfunction, age)
- Neurological deficits (cognitive dysfunction, motor impairment).

##### 2. HYPOTONIC FLUID LOSS:

###### A. RENAL: Diabetes insipidus

- Insufficient AVP secretion (central DI, osmoreceptor dysfunction)
- Insufficient AVP effect (euphogenic DI)

###### B. RENAL: Other fluid loss

- Osmotic diuresis (hyperglycemia, manitol).
- Diuretic drugs (furosemide, ethacrynic acid, thiazides)
- Postobstructive diuresis
- Diuretic phase of acute tubular necrosis

###### C. NONRENAL FLUID LOSS:

- Gastrointestinal (vomiting, diarrhoea, nasogastric suction).
- cutaneous (sweating, burns).
- Pulmonary (hyperventilation).
- Peritoneal dialysis.

SOLUTE EXCESS C INCREASE IN TOTAL BODY SOLUTE IN EXCESS OF  
BODY WATER)

1. SODIUM:

- Excessive  $\text{Na}^+$  administration ( $\text{NaCl}$ ,  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ )
- Sea water drowning.

2. OTHER:

- Hyperalimentation (enteravenous, parenteral).

COMMON ETIOLOGIES OF POLYDIPSIA AND HYPOTONIC POLYURIA

CENTRAL (NEUROGENIC) DIABETES INSIPIDUS

- Congenital (congenital malformations; autosomal dominant: AVP-neurophysin gene mutation)
- Drug / toxin - induced (ethanol, diphenylhydantoin, snake venom)
- Granulomatous (histiocytosis, sarcoidosis)
- Neoplastic (craniopharyngioma, meningioma, germinoma, metastatic pituitary tumor)
- Infectious (meningitis, encephalitis)
- Inflammatory / autoimmune (lymphocytic infundibuloneurohypophysitis)
- Trauma (neurosurgery, deceleration injury)
- Vascular (cerebral hemorrhage or infarction).

Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus

- Congenital (X-linked recessive: AVP V<sub>2</sub> receptor gene mutation; Autosomal recessive: AVP<sub>2</sub> gene mutation)
- Drug induced (demeclacycline, lithium, cisplatin, methoxyflurane)
- hypercalcemia
- hypokalemia
- infiltrating lesions (sarcoidosis, amyloidosis)
- Vascular (sickle cell anemia).

### OSMORECEPTOR DYSFUNCTION:

- Granulomatous chorioretinitis, sarcoidosis)
- Neoplastic Craniopharyngioma, pituitoma, meningioma, metastasis
- Vascular (anterior communicating artery aneurysm / ligation, intrahypothalamic hemorrhage)
- other (hydrocephalus, ventricular/suprasellar cyst, trauma, idiopathic)

### Increased AVP metabolism:

- pregnancy.

### Primary polydipsia:

- psychogenic (schizophrenia)
- dipsogenic (downward resetting of thirst threshold:  
≈ to central DI).

### DISTINGUISHING BETWEEN CENTRAL AND NEPHROGENIC DI

Evaluating response to administration of desmopressin (dDAVP) 1 μg sc (or) IV → significant increase in Vosm within 10-2 hr after injection indicates sufficient endogenous AVP secretion (central DI). Although conceptually simple, interpretation of central DI can be difficult because water diuresis produced by AVP deficiency often arise because water diuresis produced by AVP deficiency produce a 'wash-out' of menal medullary concentration gradient, so increase in Vosm in response to AVP are not as great as would be expected.

Increase in Vosm of 50% → central DI

Increase in Vosm of <10% → nephrogenic DI

Response between 10-50% are less certain.

For this reason, plasma AVP level is measured to aid in this distinction.

## MANAGEMENT OF HYPERNATREMIA

Hypernatremia is frequently a preventable electrolyte disorder if water losses are recognized and appropriately replaced. Treatment depends on two important factors:

(i) ECF volume status

(ii) Rate of development of hypernatremia

### Correction of ECF volume depletion:

Primary goal is to administer isotonic saline until restoration of ECF volume is achieved, as assessed by needle urine, absence of orthostatic hypotension and tachycardia. Hypotonic (0.45%) NaCl or 5% glucose solutions can be used to correct plasma osmolality.

### Correction of ECF volume expansion:

Diuretics (eg furosemide) with liberal fluid intake can be used to correct hyponatremia. In presence of advanced renal failure, may need to be dialyzed.

### Water replacement method of calculation:

e.g. method of calculation of necessary water replacement in a 75kg man with plasma sodium of 154 meq/L is as

$$TBW = \text{Body weight} \times 0.6$$

$$TBW = 75 \times 0.6 = 45 \text{ L}$$

$$\frac{\text{Actual Plasma Sodium}}{\text{Desired plasma sodium}} \times TBW$$

$$= \frac{154 \text{ meq/L}}{140 \text{ meq/L}} \times 45 \text{ L} = 49.5 \text{ L}$$

Therefore depletion of 4.5L (49.5 - 45L) positive water balance  
water losses should

### Rate of correction:

Depends on rate of development of hypernatremia and symptoms. More neurological signs and symptoms are associated with acute hypernatremia, therefore this biochemical abnormality should be corrected rapidly, over few hours.

Conversely idiopathic osmolar appears to accumulate in brain cells during chronic hypernatremia, as mechanism to protect against shrinkage. So correction is done gradually, at a rate not to exceed  $\frac{3600}{24}$  mOsm/hour. One half of correction can be achieved in 24 hours and other half in next 24 hours or longer.

### Management of Diabetes insipidus

Central DI: \* Desmopressin (DDAVP), a synthetic analogue of AVP

\* Increases urine concentration and decrease urine flow in a dose-dependent manner.

\* can be given by IV or SC injection, nasal inhalation, or oral.

\* onset of action ~15 mins after injection, 60 mins after oral route.

\* produces slight increase (1-3%) in total body water and a decrease in plasma osmolality, that eliminates thirst and polydipsia.

Nephrogenic DI: \* Thiazide diuretic and/or amiloride in conjunction with low-sodium diet and prostaglandin synthesis inhibitor (eg. Indomethacin) usually reduces polyuria and polydipsia by 50-70% and may eliminate completely in some patients.

## HYPOTONICITY AND HYponatremia

Hypo osmolarity indicates excess water relative to solute in ECF, because water moves freely between ECF and ICF. It indicates an excess of TBW relative to total body solute.

HYPONATREMIA AND HYPO OSMOLALITY ARE USUALLY SYNONYMOUS WITH TWO EXCEPTIONS

① pseudohyponatremia: produced by marked elevation of serum lipids and proteins

② HIGH concentration of effective solutes other than sodium  
eg: glucose - can cause relative decrease in serum  $[Na^+]$   
despite an unchanged Pserum

Misdiagnosis can be avoided by

- 1) direct measurement of Pserum
- 2) correcting serum  $[Na^+]$  by 1.6 meq/l for each 100mg/dl increase in plasma glucose concentration above 100mg/dl.

## PATHOGENESIS OF HYPOTONIC DISORDERS

SOLUTE DEPLETION (primary decrease in total body solute plus secondary water retention)

### I RENAL SOLUTE LOSS:

- Diuretic use
- Solute diuresis (glucose, mannitol)
- Salt wasting nephropathy
- mineralocorticoid deficiency

## 2. NON RENAL SOLUTE LOSS:

- Gastrointestinal (diarrhoea, vomiting, pancreatitis, bowel obstruction)
- cutaneous (sweating, burns)
- Blood loss.

SOLUTE DILUTION (primary increase in TBW & secondary solute depletion)

## 1. IMPAIRED RENAL FREE WATER EXCRETION

### A. INCREASED PROXIMAL NEPHRON REABSORPTION:

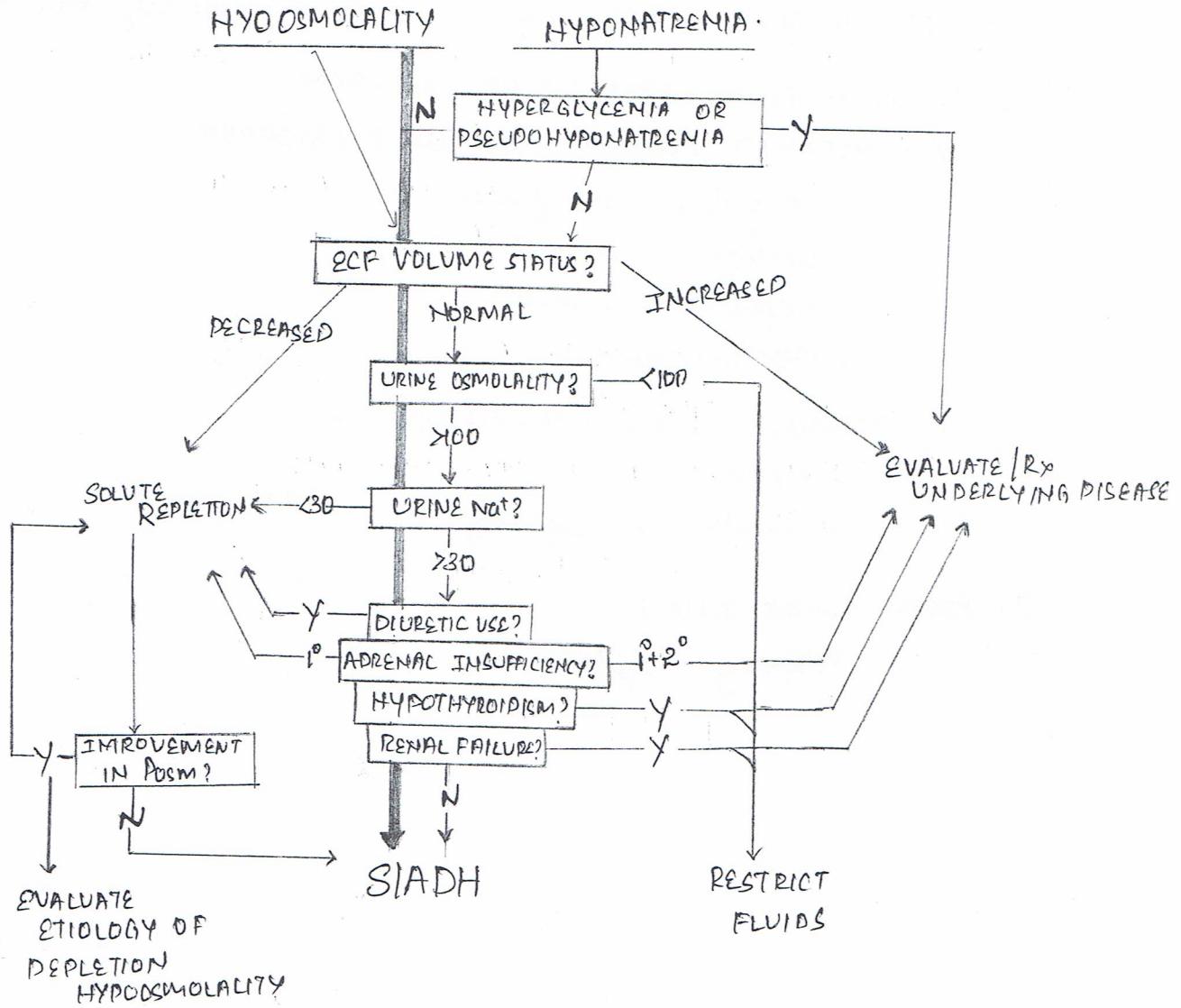
- congestive heart failure
- nephrosis
- Nephrotic syndrome
- hypothyroidism

### B. IMPAIRED DISTAL NEPHRON DILUTION:

- SIADH
- Glucocorticoid deficiency

## 2. EXCESS WATER INTAKE

- Primary polydipsia



SCHEMATIC SUMMARY OF EVALUATION OF HYPOSMOLAR PATIENTS.

DARIC ARROW IN CENTRE → emphasize presence of CNS dysfunction due to hyponatremia should always be assessed immediately, so that appropriate therapy can be started as soon as possible in symptomatic patients

ABBREVIATIONS

N → no

Y → yes

ECF → extracellular fluid volume

Rx → Treat

1<sup>o</sup> → primary2<sup>o</sup> → secondary

SIADH → syndrome of inappropriate antidiuretic hormone secretion.

COMMON ETIOLOGIES OF SIADHTUMORS:

- pulmonary / mediastinal (bronchogenic carcinoma, mesothelioma, thymoma)
- Non chest (duodenal carcinoma, pancreatic carcinoma, bladder (prostate carcinoma, uterine carcinoma, nasopharyngeal carcinoma, leukemia))

CNS DISORDERS:

- Mass lesions (tumors, brain abscesses, subdural hematoma)
- Inflammatory disease (encephalitis, meningitis, systemic lupus)
- Degenerative / demyelinating disease (Guillain-Barré, spinal cord lesions)
- Miscellaneous (subarachnoid hemorrhage, head trauma, acute psychosis, delirium tremens, pituitary stalk lesion).

Drug induced:

- Stimulated AVP release (ciclospine, phenothiazines, tricyclines)
- Direct renal effects and/or potentiation of AVP effects (dDAVP, oxytocin, prostaglandin synthesis inhibitors)
- Mixed or uncertain actions (chlorpropamide, clofibrate, carbamazepine, cyclophosphamide, vincristine)

### Pulmonary disease:

- Infection (Tuberculosis, aspergillosis, pneumonia, empyema)
- mechanical ventilatory (acute respiratory failure, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [COPD], positive pressure ventilation).

### CRITERIA FOR DIAGNOSIS OF SIADH

#### ESSENTIAL:

1. Decreased effective osmolality of ECF ( $\text{P}_{\text{osm}} < 275 \text{ mOsm/kg H}_2\text{O}$ )
2. Inappropriate urinary concentration ( $\text{U}_{\text{osm}} > 100 \text{ mOsm/kg H}_2\text{O}$  with normal renal function) at some level of hypoosmolality.
3. Clinical euvolemia, a defined by absence of signs of hypovolemia (orthostasis, tachycardia, decreased skin turgor, dry mucous membranes) or hypervolemia (subcutaneous edema, ascites).
4. Elevated Urinary sodium excretion which on a normal salt and water intake
5. Absence of other potential causes of euvolemic hypoosmolality: hypothyroidism, hypoadrenocorticism (Addison's disease or pituitary ACTH insufficiency) and diuretic use.

#### SUPPLEMENTAL:

6. Abnormal water load test (inability to excrete atleast 80% of 20ml/kg water load in the and/or failure to dilute urine to  $< 100 \text{ mOsm/kg H}_2\text{O}$ )
7. Plasma AVP level inappropriately elevated relative to  $\text{P}_{\text{osm}}$
8. No significant correction of serum  $[\text{Na}^+]$  with volume expansion but improvement after fluid restriction.

## MANAGEMENT OF HYponatremia

Factors affecting approach to treatment?

- \* presence (or) absence of symptoms
- \* duration of hyponatremia [because time dependent process are involved in adaptation to toxicity changes and presence of cerebral symptoms reflect a failure of adaptation]

In this regard, hyponatremia developing within 48 hours carries greater risk of permanent neurologic sequelae from cerebral edema, if plasma sodium correction is not corrected expeditiously. Conversely, chronic hyponatremia are at risk of osmotic demyelination, if corrected too rapid.

### Acute symptomatic hyponatremia:

Aim to raise serum  $[Na^+]$  by 0.5 to 1 mEq/L until symptoms subside

- \* Hypertonic saline (3.1. NaCl) is infused at rate of 1 to 2 mL/kg/hour and loop diuretic - furosemide, enhances solute-free water excretion and hastens return to normal serum  $[Na^+]$
- \* If severe neurological symptoms (obnudication or coma) are present, 3.1. NaCl infused at 4 to 6 mL/kg/hour.

### Chronic symptomatic hyponatraemia:

[Hyponatraemia  $>48$  hrs ordination is unknown].

FOLLOWING GUIDELINES ARE FUNDAMENTAL TO SUCCESSFUL THERAPY

1. Because cerebral water is increased only by ~10% in severe chronic hyponatraemia, promptly increase serum  $[Na^+]$  level by 10%  
 (i) by ~10 meq/L  
 2. After initial correction, do not exceed a correction rate of 1.0 to 1.5 meq/L/hour  
 3. Do not increase serum  $[Na^+]$  by more than 12 meq/L/24 hours  
 (ii) 18 meq/L/8 hours.

### Chronic asymptomatic hyponatraemia:

Hypothyroidism & adrenal insufficiency are sought as possible aetiologies and hormone replacement if deficient.

### MANAGEMENT OF SIADH

#### 1) FLUID RESTRICTION

#### 2) PHARMACOLOGICAL AGENTS:

DEMECLOCYCLINE inhibits formation and action of cAMP in renal CT

- \* Onset: 8 to 6 days after treatment started
- \* Metabolized by liver
- \* Do not combine with calcium, aluminium, magnesium containing antacids.

## VASOPRESSIN ANTAGONIST

### CONIVAPTA

- \* IV formulations
- \* antagonizes both V<sub>1a</sub> and V<sub>2</sub> receptors
- \* approved for SIADH and hypervolemic hyponatraemia associated with cardiac failure  
(which V<sub>1a</sub> component may improve heart function by decreasing cardiac afterload)
- \* CE: cirrhosis (increases splanchnic flow).

### TOLVAPTA

- LIDIAPATTA
- SATAVAPTA
- \* available as oral formula
- \* increase solute-free water excretion in cardiac failure, cirrhosis & SIADH

SOLUTE DEPLETION: Restoration of ECF Volume with crystalloids (or)  
collarids interrupts non osmotic release of vasopressin

SOLUTE DILUTION: requires attention to underlying disorders of CHF, CRF and CLD.

- \* [Na<sup>+</sup>] and water restriction
- \* Refractory patients → treated with combination of

ACE inhibitors and diuretics

Resultant increase in cardiac output with ACE inhibitor may increase solute-free water excretion and correct hyponatraemia.

LOOP DIURETICS - diminish action of Vasopressin on collecting tubules thereby increasing solute-free water excretion. THIAZIDE DIURETICS

IMPAIRS URINARY DILUTION & WORSEN HYponatraemia ]