International Journal for Multidisciplinary Research (IJFMR)



E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

Diabetes Insipidus Can Increase Patient Security: A Review

Alka Sen¹, Farhat Khan², Chetna Singh Thakur³

¹Lecturer, Apollo College Of Pharmacy
²Student, Shri Shankracharya Professional University, Bhilai
³Lecturer, Chhatrapati Shivaji Institute Of Pharmacy

Abstract:

Diabetes insipidus (DI) is a condition marked by polydipsia (drinking more than three liters of fluid per day) and a high hypotonic urine production (greater than 50 milliliters per kilogram of body weight per 24 hours). The hypothalamus or pituitary gland's insufficient production of arginine vasopressin (AVP) and its consequent inadequate secretion cause central DI. In addition to central DI, different primary forms (of renal origin) or secondary forms of polyuria may be the cause of additional underlying etiologies of DI. These variations are all part of the Polyuria Polydipsia Syndrome. This is crucial since different treatment plans have different effects, and using the incorrect one can be harmful. Since its discovery in 1942, diabetes insipidus has been linked to pregnancy complications in at least 4 out of every 100,000 patients. The regulatory mechanisms behind CDI and NDI are then discussed, with an emphasis on the water channel molecule aquaporin 2 (AQP2) and the vasopressin receptor 2 (V2R) regulatory axis. (DI) is a complicated pregnancy condition that can affect about 1 in 30,000 pregnancies. It is a heterogeneous illness that most commonly manifests as polyuria and polydipsia. The pathophysiology of DI during pregnancy determines the course of treatment; DI without AVP can be managed with desmopressin (DDAVP); DI with AVP resistance necessitates investigation of the underlying reasons. Previously known as diabetes insipidus (DI), arginase vasopressin disorder is a disease condition that causes electrolyte imbalances by either reducing the secretion of antidiuretic hormone (ADH, also known as vasopressin or AVP) or by reducing the body's response to ADH. Both arginine vasopressin deficiency (AVP-D; formerly known as central DI) and arginine vasopressin resistance (AVP-R; formerly known as nephrogenic DI) are forms of arginine vasopressin disease, with both congenital and acquired origins. Lithium increased the amount of lipid peroxidation (LPO) and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in the kidney.

Keywords: Diabetes insipidus, Aquaporin, Vasopressin, Polydipsia.

Introduction:

The term Diabetes Insipidus (DI) refers to a historical term used to describe two disorders that cause polyuria or "diabetes," which is Greek for "syphon." Excessive fluid consumption that results in polyuria (diluted urine) and, Urine production more than 40–50 ml/kg in a 24-hour period is referred to as polyuria. Primary polydipsia is divided into two groups. Two types of polydipsia: dipsogenic and psychogenic. Psychogenic polydipsia, as the name implies, is a condition that affects people with mental illnesses. Dipsogenic polydipsia, also known as forced water consumption, is primarily observed in



International Journal for Multidisciplinary Research (IJFMR)

E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

individuals who deliberately consume high amounts of water to uphold a healthy lifestyle or in those with hypothalamic impairments. The indirect water deprivation test (WDT), which combines the administration of desmopressin with an indirect evaluation of arginine vasopressin (AVP) activity, is a long-standing diagnostic technique. This test helps distinguish between central and nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, as well as primary polydipsia and diabetes insipidus. normal human gestation has a range of impacts on the mother's hypothalamic-pituitary axis and the metabolism of AVP, this disease can also manifest during pregnancy. Pregnancy causes the pituitary gland to undergo significant changes that modify the morphology and functioning of the gland. A decrease in the production or activity of AVP, which is encoded by the AVP gene on the short arm of chromosome 20, results in the clinical presentation of DI, which is excessive renal output of large volumes of diluted urine.

Etiology:

Primary polydipsia represents a third potential cause of the clinical condition. It results from high, osmotically-independent fluid ingestion that physiologically suppresses AVP secretion.

The term "primary polydipsia" is used to distinguish it from other forms of DI, in which secondary polydipsia arises as a result of water loss. There is a tiny subgroup of people with primary polydipsia, known as dipsogenic DI, in which polydipsia appears to be caused by an extremely low thirst threshold. These patients include psychiatric patients as well as health enthusiasts.

Patients with developmental abnormalities such as autism and intellectual disabilities frequently experience primary polydipsia. Patients with mental illnesses such as psychotic depression, bipolar disorder, schizophrenia, and schizoaffective disorder are known to have polydipsia. The condition known as psychogenic polydipsia was initially identified in people with schizophrenia.

Pathophysiology:

Psychogenic polydipsia's pathogenesis is not well known. When a patient drinks a lot of water, their kidneys adjust by excreting a maximum of 12 L of water per day. In order to reduce water retention, there is also a decrease in arginine vasopressin secretion, which leads to hypotonic polyuria. Another name for arginine vasopressin is anti-diuretic hormone (ADH). This physiology is impacted when the intake exceeds the kidney's ability to excrete waste, or when the kidneys' excretory capacity declines as a result of outside influences. This may cause hyponatremia. Hyponatremia can result from a number of risk factors, including the chronicity of primary polydipsia, medications (antipsychotics, antidepressants, and diuretics), stress, and smoking. Medication side effects that are anticholinergic may make you feel more thirsty. Psychogenic polydipsia is characterized by persistent drinking, which is thought to be caused by dysregulation of the thirst center and the hippocampal area as a result of abnormal dopaminergic and cholinergic system functioning. The secretion of AVP is stimulated by an increase in serum osmolality. AVP secretion can also be increased by exercise, hypoglycemia, sepsis, hypotension, vomiting, and nausea. Conditions such as infiltrative, vascular, congenital, neoplastic, and traumatic might influence the osmoreceptors in the hypothalamus area that are responsible for the thirst mechanism, thereby causing an increase or decrease in fluid intake. Due to reduced solute intake, the kidneys' excretory capacity decreases in people with beer potomania and malnourishment, from 12 L/day to 8 L/day or fewer.



Differential Diagnosis

Initially, common diseases like hyperglycemia and hypercalcemia, which can lead to polyuria, need to be ruled out. Diabetes insipidus, either central or nephrogenic, is the predominant differential diagnosis for primary polydipsia (PP).

Serum sodium levels need to be measured once polyuria (>40–50 ml/kg/24 hours) is verified and urine osmolality is less than 800 mOsm/kg. A serum sodium level of less than 135 meq is indicative of primary polydipsia (PP). Diabetes insipidus can be diagnosed if the serum sodium level is more than 147.

The indirect water deprivation test, which assesses AVP activity indirectly, is a conventional test that has been used by providers for a long time. When hypotonic polyuria is verified and serum sodium is between 135 and 147, this test is initiated. A DI diagnosis is made if, following water deprivation, the urine's osmolality is still less than 300 mOsm/kg.

Desmopressin treatment distinguishes between nephrogenic and central insipidus. Central DI is diagnosed if the urine's osmolality increases by more than 50% following desmopressin treatment. Nephrogenic DI can be diagnosed if the urine osmolality increases by less than 50%.

Fluids should be given to newborns every two hours, and feeding via a gastrostomy or nasogastric tube may be required overnight. Intravenous patients should be given hypotonic fluids (0.22-2.5% saline) in order to prevent the development of hypernatremia. Children's diets should have a low osmotic load, but they still need to have the recommended amounts of protein and calories for healthy growth.

Complication

Hyponatremia is the cause of primary polydipsia complications. Nausea, vomiting, blurred vision, tremors, disorientation, ataxia, confusion, lethargy, and, most frequently, seizures are among the symptoms or presentations.

Summary

Due to their rarity, primary polydipsia and DI are mostly ignored in medical research aimed at improving diagnosis and treatment, as well as in medical education. The general population is experiencing an increase in the prevalence of polyuria, polydipsia syndrome, primarily as a result of the growing acceptance of lifestyle programs that advocate drinking multiple liters of water daily. Rarely, diabetes insipidus can impact pregnancy and result in significant volume loss of diluted urine. Numerous causes of DI can arise during pregnancy, and the physiological changes in water balance that come with pregnancy might exacerbate moderate underlying types of DI that existed before the pregnancy. Decreased central secretory reserve (central DI) or impaired renal response (nephrogenic DI) to the hormone AVP, which is essential for maintaining water balance, could be present.

REFERENCE

- 1. Lu, HA Jenny. "Diabetes insipidus." Aquaporins (2017): 213-225.
- 2. Di Iorgi, Natascia, et al. "Diabetes insipidus-diagnosis and management." *Hormone research in paediatrics* 77.2 (2012): 69-84.
- 3. Christ-Crain, M., B. Winzeler, and JJJoIM Refardt. "Diagnosis and management of diabetes insipidus for the internist: an update." *Journal of internal medicine* 290.1 (2021): 73-87.



International Journal for Multidisciplinary Research (IJFMR)

E-ISSN: 2582-2160 • Website: <u>www.ijfmr.com</u> • Email: editor@ijfmr.com

- 4. Refardt, Julie, Bettina Winzeler, and Mirjam Christ-Crain. "Diabetes insipidus: an update." *Endocrinology and Metabolism Clinics* 49.3 (2020): 517-531.
- 5. Levy, Miles, Malcolm Prentice, and John Wass. "Diabetes insipidus." *Bmj* 364 (2019).
- Arima, Hiroshi, et al. "Central diabetes insipidus." *Nagoya journal of medical science* 78.4 (2016): 349.
- 7. Bockenhauer, Detlef, and Daniel G. Bichet. "Pathophysiology, diagnosis and management of nephrogenic diabetes insipidus." *Nature Reviews Nephrology* 11.10 (2015): 576-588.
- 8. Robertson, Gary L. "Diabetes insipidus: differential diagnosis and management." *Best practice & research Clinical endocrinology & metabolism* 30.2 (2016): 205-218.
- 9. Garrahy, Aoife, Carla Moran, and Christopher J. Thompson. "Diagnosis and management of central diabetes insipidus in adults." *Clinical endocrinology* 90.1 (2019): 23-30.
- 10. Dabrowski, Elizabeth, Rachel Kadakia, and Donald Zimmerman. "Diabetes insipidus in infants and children." *Best practice & research Clinical endocrinology & metabolism* 30.2 (2016): 317-328.
- Fenske, Wiebke, and Bruno Allolio. "Current state and future perspectives in the diagnosis of diabetes insipidus: a clinical review." *The Journal of Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 97.10 (2012): 3426-3437.
- 12. Garrahy, Aoife, and Christopher J. Thompson. "Management of central diabetes insipidus." *Best Practice & Research Clinical Endocrinology & Metabolism* 34.5 (2020): 101385.
- 13. Weiner, Alyson, and Patricia Vuguin. "Diabetes insipidus." Pediatrics in review 41.2 (2020): 96-99.
- 14. Valenti, Giovanna, and Grazia Tamma. "History of diabetes insipidus." *Giornale italiano di nefrologia* 33 (2016): 33-S66.
- 15. Christ-Crain, Mirjam. "Diabetes insipidus: new concepts for diagnosis." *Neuroendocrinology* 110.9-10 (2020): 859-867.