Prevention of hyponatraemia in children receiving fluid therapy

John Jenkins
Senior Lecturer in Child Health, Queen's University Belfast and Consultant Paediatrician
Antrim Hospital
Antrim
BT41 2RL
Bob Taylor
Consultant Paediatric Intensivist
Royal Belfast Hospital for Sick Children
Belfast
Miriam McCarthy
Senior Medical Officer
Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety
Belfast

Severe hyponatraemia (serum sodium <130 mmol/l) has become increasingly recognised in recent years as a potential complication of fluid therapy in children¹, and at least two children in Northern Ireland have died in recent years as a result. Worldwide, death or neurological morbidity related to this condition has recently been reported in more than 50 children². Hyponatraemia has also been reported in as many as 5% of adults undergoing elective surgery³ and in 25% of children following spinal fusion⁴. It has been suggested that menstruant women and prepubertal children are particularly at risk of brain damage in this situation⁵. Although risk factors include vomiting, pain, anxiety, disturbances of the central nervous system and metabolic and endocrine disorders, it has become recognised that any child receiving intravenous fluids or oral rehydration is potentially at risk. The particular risks associated with the post-operative period were highlighted by Arieff who pointed out that plasma levels of vasopressin (antidiuretic hormone, ADH) are elevated in virtually every child in the post-operative period ⁵. If such children are given fluids containing less than 140 mmol/l of sodium there will always be a tendency towards post-operative hyponatraemia.

The complex inter-relationships between multiple factors influencing decisions regarding fluid and electrolyte management in children are described in standard texts. These result in difficulty in establishing simple guidelines for fluid administration in children. A solution containing 0.18% sodium chloride in 4% glucose has commonly been used in Paediatric practice and is generally held to be isotonic. However, in the catabolic child the glucose is metabolised rapidly causing the fluid to become hypotonic in vivo, with the potential for significant fluid shifts. If the child is in the post-operative period or in any other situation where there is a high level of circulating vasopressin a situation can arise where excess free water is retained within the

circulation. This can be compounded by water effectively administered in the intravenous fluids. This condition has been called "dilutional hyponatraemia" because the "free" water component of the serum has increased, causing dilution of the major cation, sodium. This "free" water will pass rapidly and unhindered across cell membranes with the particular risk of development of cerebral oedema. Children may be at particular risk of brain damage due to increase in intracranial pressure in this situation².

Guidance and Advice

A Working Group in Northern Ireland has developed guidelines (figure), which have been published by the Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety, and can be downloaded from the internet⁶. These guidelines emphasise that every child receiving intravenous fluids requires a thorough baseline assessment, that fluid requirements should be assessed by a doctor competent in determining a child's fluid requirement, and fluid balance be rigorously monitored. They emphasise the value of accurate measurement of body weight and monitoring of serum urea and electrolytes in any child requiring prescribed fluids after 12 hours, together with the importance of assessment of fluid balance and prescription at least every 12 hours by an experienced member of clinical staff. This assessment needs to take account of all oral and intravenous intake, together with the measurement and recording of all losses (including urine, vomiting, diarrhea, etc.) as accurately as possible.

While general guidance can be given regarding maintenance fluid requirements in children of different weights, these must be assessed in the clinical context of each individual child.

Requirements for water and electrolytes should be considered separately and an appropriate

solution chosen. Although the baseline maintenance requirement for 2 to 3 mmol/kg/day of sodium can be applied to children of all ages, the amount of water needed varies with weight. It will readily be apparent that this means that the concentration of sodium in the maintenance fluid has to be different for children of different ages and weights. For example, an infant of 5 kg requires 150 ml/kg/day of water, so the daily sodium requirement will be provided by a fluid containing 15 to 20 mmol/l of sodium. The standard 0.18% saline solution contains 30 mmol/l and so will adequately provide for this requirement. On the other hand, a child of 40 kg requires 50ml/kg/day, so a solution containing 3 times as much sodium will be needed to provide adequate maintenance sodium. A solution containing 0.18% saline will thus not provide adequate sodium to maintain the normal plasma level in the older child unless there are clinical reasons to limit sodium intake. This would require instead a solution containing 40 to 60 mmol/l. Half normal saline contains 75 mmol/l of sodium.

Replacement fluids must reflect fluid loss, and in most situations this will imply a minimum sodium content of 130 mmol/l. This must be considered and prescribed separately, reflecting the fluid loss in both volume and composition. In some situations laboratory analysis of the electrolyte content of the fluid lost may be helpful.

It is important to remember that, while children receiving intravenous fluids are at particular risk, children receiving oral rehydrating fluids may also be at risk as these are invariably hypotonic.

Vigilance is therefore required for all children receiving fluids. Medical and nursing staff need to be aware of risks in this situation, and of early signs of developing cerebral oedema such as vomiting, deteriorating level of consciousness or headache before more serious symptoms such

as seizures occur, as deterioration to this extent is associated with significant morbidity and mortality.

Particular attention needs to be given to fluid management in specific situations such as diabetic ketoacidosis, renal failure and the newborn, but attention to detail in assessment and management of intravenous and oral fluids in all children where these are required for medical or surgical reasons is essential to minimise the risks associated with hyponatraemia. It must be clearly recognized that prevention is quite different from treatment of hyponatraemia. All those working with children must be familiar with good practice to prevent hyponatraemia but not all will have the necessary expertise in treating a child with hyponatraemia which can be extremely complex. If concern is raised regarding clinical deterioration or biochemical abnormality then advice and clinical input should be obtained from a senior member of medical staff, for example a Consultant Paediatrician, Consultant Anaesthetist or Consultant Chemical Pathologist.

We recommend that complications and critical incidents related to intravenous fluids are reported to the Medicines Control Agency (MCA) in the same way as drug side-effects by using the "yellow card" system. Fluids are contained in the British National Formulary and are under the regulatory authority of the MCA. This will permit a nationwide analysis of the problem and also direct information to clinicians. When one of the deaths locally was reported to the MCA it was asked to consider issuing a "hazard warning" about the use of a solution containing 0.18% sodium chloride in 4% glucose in children following surgery. After due consideration the MCA replied that electrolyte imbalance is a risk with the use of all intravenous solutions. The MCA

Working Group on Paediatric Medicines advised that there should be no amendments to product information (personal communication).

Conclusion

It is important that all doctors caring for children are aware of current literature and advice in relation to the rare but serious condition known as "Dilutional Hyponatraemia". A complex neuro-endocrine response in susceptible children can occur where the "free" water component of intravenous fluids can cause a sudden and unheralded decrease in the serum sodium concentration. Preventative measures to avoid this potentially fatal condition need to be instituted in all units caring for children.

Correspondence to:

Dr John Jenkins, Senior Lecturer in Child Health and Consultant Paediatrician, Paediatric
Department, Antrim Hospital, Antrim, BT41 2RL, UK

j.jenkins

References

- 1. Halberthal M, Halperin ML, Bohn D. Acute hyponatraemia in children admitted to hospital: retrospective analysis of factors contributing to its development and resolution. *Brit Med J* 2001; 322:780-2.
- 2. Moritz ML, Ayus JC. Prevention of hospital-acquired hyponatremia: a case for using isotonic saline. *Pediatrics* 2003; 111:227-30.

- 3. Chung HM, Kluge R, Schrier RW, Anderson RJ. Post-operative hyponatraemia a prospective study. *Arch Intern Med* 1986; **146**: 333-36.
- 4. Burrows FA, Schutack JG, Crone RK. Inappropriate secretion of antidiuretic hormone in a post-surgical population. *Crit Care Med* 1983; 11: 527-31.
- 5. Arieff AI. Postoperative hyponatraemic encephalopathy following elective surgery in children. *Paediatric Anaesthesia* 1998; 8: 1-4.
- 6. http://www.dhsspsni.gov.uk/publications/2002/Hypno%20WallChart.pdf Last accessed 21st July 2003.
- 7. Jenkins J, Taylor B. Prevention of hyponatraemia. *Arch Dis Child* 2003; accepted for publication.

any CIIIU S AT RISK OF

RECEIVING PRESCRIBED FLUID

INTRODUCTION

- Any child on IV fluids or oral rehydration is potentially at risk of hyponatraemia.
- may be non-specific and include nausea, malaise seizures and death. Warning signs of hyponatraemia a rapid fall in sodium leading to cerebral oedema. Hyponatraemia is potentially extremely serious,
- of anti-diuretic hormone (ADH), which inhibits water water. Stress, pain and nausea are all potent stimulators Hyponatraemia most often reflects failure to excrete
- fluid to a sick child, usually intravenously. due to the administration of excess or inappropriate Complications of hyponatraemia most often occur
- Hyponatraemia may also occur in a child receiving excess or inappropriate oral rehydration fluids
- Hyponatraemia can occur in a variety of clinical situations, even in a child who is not overtly "sick" Particular risks include:
- Post-operative patients
 Bronchiolitis
 Burns
 Vomiting

BASELINE ASSESSMENT

Before starting IV fluids, the following must be measured

- Weight: accurately in kg. [In a bed-bound child use best estimate.] Plot on centile chart or refer to normal
- U&E: take serum sodium into consideration.

FLUID REQUIREMENTS

calculation is essential and includes: in determining a child's fluid requirement. Accurate Fluid needs should be assessed by a doctor competent

Maintenance Fluid

- . 100mls/kg for first 10kg body wt, plus 50mls/kg for the next 10kg, plus
- 20mls/kg for each kg thereafter, up to max of 70kg [This provides the total 24 hr calculation; divide by 24 to get the mls/hr].

Replacement Fluid

- Must always be considered and prescribed separately.
- Must reflect fluid loss in both volume and composition (lab analysis of the sodium content of fluid loss may be

CHOICE OF FLUID

- Maintenance fluids must in all instances be dictated of very young children, must also be met requirements. The glucose requirements, particularly by the anticipated sodium and potassium
- Replacement fluids must reflect fluid lost. In most situations this implies a minimum sodium content
- When resuscitating a child with clinical signs of shock normal (0.9%) saline is an appropriate choice, while if a decision is made to administer a crystalloid, awaiting the serum sodium
- The composition of oral rehydration fluids should also be carefully considered in light of the U&E

Hyponatraemia may occur in any child receiving any IV fluids or oral rehydration. Vigilance is needed for all children receiving fluids

326-001b-008

- and general well-being should be documented Clinical state: including hydrational status. Pain.
- Fluid balance: must be assessed at least every 12 hours by an experienced member of clinical staff.

Intake: All oral fluids (including medicines) must be recorded and IV intake reduced by equivalent

Output: Measure and record all losses (urine, vomiting diarrhoea, etc.) as accurately as possible

a senior member of medical staff. starting, their requirements should be reassessed by If a child still needs prescribed fluids after 12 hours of

Biochemistry: Blood sampling for U&E is essential The rate at which sodium falls is as important as the losses or if clinical course is not as expected least once a day - more often if there are significant fluid

facilitate repeat U&Es Consider using an indwelling heparinised cannula to accompanied by rapid fluid shifts with major clinical plasma level. A sodium that falls quickly may be

Capillary samples are adequate if venous sampling is not Do not take samples from the same limb as the IV infusion

Urine osmolarity/sodium: Very useful in hyponatraem@Compare to plasma osmolarity and consult a senior Paediatrician or a Chemical Pathologist in interpreting Coresults.

SEEK ADVICE

Advice and clinical input should be obtained from a semial member of medical staff, for example a Consultant Paediatrician, Consultant Anaesthetist or Consultant

SEEK ADVICE

Chemical Pathologist Advice and clinical input should be obtained from a se Paediatrician, Consultant Anaesthetist or Consultant member of medical staff, for example a Consultant

 In the event of problems that cannot be resolved loc help should be sought from Consultant Paediatricians Anaesthetists at the PICU, RBHSC.