

International Journal of Research Publication and Reviews

Journal homepage: www.ijrpr.com ISSN 2582-7421

Diabetes Insipidus: Pathogenesis, Diagnosis, and Clinical Management

Astha Bathani¹, Madhvi Anghan¹, Hensi Balar¹

¹ Students, Gyanmanjari Pharmacy College, Bhavnagar 364001, Gujarat, India

ABSTRACT

Antidiuretic hormone (ADH), a posterior pituitary peptide hormone, is involved in diabetes insipidus (DI). ADH acts on the nephron's collecting duct and distal convoluted tubule by increasing the activity of aquaporin-2 (AQP2) channels on the surface of the cell's apical membrane. DI is characterised by excessive urine output that is significantly diluted, intense thirst, and a strong need for cool water.

Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus (NDI), which is characterised by the terminal distal convoluted tubule and collecting duct resistance to ADH, and central diabetes insipidus (CDI), which is characterised by a failure of the posterior pituitary gland to release ADH, are the two basic categories of DI. The two less prevalent categories are called gestational DI, which is defined by elevated thirst brought on by a low osmotic threshold, and dipsogen DI, which is characterised by excessive thirst placental vasopressin's concentration throughout gestation.

DI treatment varies according to the disease classification; nonetheless, if the condition is not properly managed, serious consequences could develop. The most crucial step in managing symptoms is continuing to consume fluids before Fluid loss while prioritising the maintenance of life quality. The most widely used method of CDI and Decompressing (DDAVP), a synthetic ADH, is given during gestational DI. Nephrogenic medicine, However more difficult, necessitates stopping medication and keeping a renal-friendly Diet in order to avoid hypernatremia. The major goal of behavioural therapy used to treat dipsogen DI is Controlling the amount of water consumed and/or giving antipsychotic medication therapy. Both central and Thiazide diuretics are used in a paradoxical manner to treat nephrogenic subtypes of DI.

Introduction

Diabetes insipidus (DI) is an uncommon condition that affects around 0.004% of the world's population, or 1 in 25,000 persons. The different types of DI can be comparatively overlooked in medical education and in a research context for bettering therapeutic therapy because of their uncommon frequency in the general . Despite being a rare endocrine illness, DI can have detrimental effects if left untreated. The patient's standard of living. From an epidemiological perspective, DI does not exhibit a preference for either gender. And it can manifest at any age, however inherited variants typically manifest earlier in life .DI is categorised into There are four main classifications: gestational, nephrogenic, central, and dipsogenic . The most prevalent definition of DI is when an adult with a urine osmolality of less than 300 mOsmol/kg produces more than 3-3.5 litres of urine in a 24-hour period. Urine volume in the majority of DI cases much exceeds 3-3.5 litres in a 24-hour Hourly interval .The posterior pituitary hormone ADH is the primary hormone associated with diabetes insipidus. Is among the key factors that determine the body's water homeostasis. ADH, or antidiuretic hormone Raises the osmolality of urine by acting on the kidney, which is its target organ. The two types of regulation are The two main negative feedback systems that regulate ADH secretion .The hypothalamus's osmo receptors pick up on minuscule variations in plasma osmolality, even those that are less than 1%. ADH is released from the posterior once an increase in osmolality is detected. Pituitary gland. One can investigate a comparable reaction concerning baroreceptors triggered by a reduction in In volume of blood. A variation in volume of roughly 5%-10% is necessary to account for the divergence in blood volume .After being released from the hypothalamus together with its transport protein carrier, neurohypophysin II (NPII), ADH moves to the posterior pituitary, where it is held until it is released. When a shift in plasma osmolality or activation of baroreceptors occurs, ADH is released as a peptide that is soluble in water into the bloodstream. Hormone and binds to the basolateral membrane's aquaporin-2 receptors (AQP2) to effect its target. Within the collecting duct .After attaching itself to the receptor, it triggers the Gs-adenylyl cyclase system pathway, which raises the amounts of cAMP inside cells. Phosphorylation of pre-existing AQP2 channels occurs as a result of protein kinase A being activated by this increase in cAMP levels. The phosphorylation Causes AQP2 to be inserted into the cell's apical membrane surface. It has been shown that the renal collecting duct would continue to be nearly impermeable to water in the absence of this AQP2 insertion. AQP2's function is to concentrate the renal filtrate by removing water from it. Pee. When dialysis is present, water cannot freely flow from the nephron's lumen into the cells of the Excreting diluted urine via a collecting duct that follows an osmotic gradient. ADH is able to Lower urine output to 0.5 ml/min, or roughly 700-800 ml/day. mOsmol/kg, and raise urine osmolality to roughly 1,200 mOsmol/kg. ADH levels in the blood decrease as the body achieves water balance, and the quantity of inserted AQP2 channel proteins in the apical plasma membrane is down-regulated.

Pathogenesis

Three interconnected factors primarily govern the physiology of water balance in humans. These include the production and secretion of ADH, thirst, and healthy kidney function. DI has a direct bearing on both the amount of ADH released and how sensitive the collecting duct and terminal distal convoluted tubule. Should the ADH processes be compromised, a broad Numerous alterations occur within the body. Water loss happens, imbalances in electrolytes arise, and Osmolality shifts in the urine and serum take place. When the illness first manifested, hypernatremia with Serum sodium concentrations more than 145 mEq/L (the recognised normal range is 135-145 mEq/L) indicate central or nephrogenic DI, whereas primary polydipsia is indicated by a low sodium level. Furthermore, a serum osmolality of more than 295 mOsm/kg is indicative of DI, but a serum osmolality of less than 285 mOsm/kg is indicative of primary polydipsia. Reduced blood volume (hypovolemia) and urine with an osmolality of less than 200 extracellular fluid (ECF), urine specific gravity of 1.003 to 1.030, reduced urinary sodium level, and mOsm/kg volume, a 3%–5% drop in body weight, and the beginning of moderate hypertension that eventually becomes hypotension observable. Additional evaluation results include dryness, irritation, low skin turgor, and disorientation, mucous surfaces.

The two main negative feedback loops connected to the impacts of DI and bodily water homeostasis are highly pronounced. Changes in serum osmolality trigger the osmoregulation negative feedback loop; the typical range for serum osmolality is 285–295 mOsm/kg. When the osmolality exceeds 295 mOsm/kg, the blood is more concentrated, and there has been a loss of bodily water. Baroreceptor A negative feedback loop reacts to variations in blood pressure and volume. The brainstem Reacts to changes in baroreceptors by either boosting or decreasing the production and release of ADH from The pituitary gland's posterior region. ADH release can be triggered by even small changes, like a 5–10% drop in blood volume or a 5% drop in mean arterial pressure. In reaction to osmoregulation, the body typically controls ADH secretion first. Osmoregulation is subordinated to baroreceptor activation of ADH in cases of severe volume deprivation.

Diagnosis

Fluid is taken out of the patient during an indirect dehydration test, and the patient's fluid levels are checked on a regular basis. Urine production, plasma osmolality, plasma sodium, and urine osmolarity of the patient. Being dehydrated is

Continue for a maximum of 17 hours, or until the plasma concentration reaches 150 mmol/L. On the other hand, the patient's body weight dropped by three to five percent. Desmopressin (DDAVP) or synthetic ADH, once externally delivered, measures and compares the urine osmolality of the patient. Osmolality prior to the administration of DDAVP. A healthy person's urine's osmolarity is assessed at the conclusion of the test. An individual should surpass her 800 mOsm/kg after DDAVP without experiencing a rise in urine osmolality. Both Urine osmolality is less than 300 mOsm/kg in renal and central DI. Respond DDVP Differentiate between central and renal DI. Urine osmolality in CDI rises by more than 50% following DDAVP.

The indirect water deprivation test's 70% diagnostic accuracy, however, places limitations on it [1]. The diagnostic accuracy of the indirect water deprivation test, which has been the gold standard for identifying dipsogenic DI, is just 41% [14]. In pregnancy, the indirect water deprivation test is not frequently employed. It must be administered with careful attention if the patient is pregnant. Extended water limitation may result in Hypernatremia, dehydration in both the mother and the foetus, and an increased risk of uteroplacental insufficiency. If serum osmolality is more than 285 mOsm/kg and persistent urine is present, gestational DI is verified. Less than 300 mOsm/L of osmolality.

The diagnosis of CDI and NDI can be more accurately achieved through a direct AVP measurement, as suggested by Zerbe and Robertson. A rudimentary form of polydipsia. Both water and are taken away from the patient in direct AVP measurements. Using hypertonic saline infusion to stimulate the patient through an osmotical stimulus. AVP levels are then assessed and.In relation to the zone of normalcy. NDI can be diagnosed when AVP levels are elevated above the area. If AVP is present. 'CDI can be identified when levels are below the area. Primary polydipsia diagnosis is achievable when the AVP is present. 'These are within the normal range of levels. The accuracy of direct AVP measurements is limited to 38% with Available commercially assays .Because of test instability and challenging measurements that require direct measurement. Hence, AVP levels are not being used in clinical practice for diagnosis. Due to the fact that Copeptin is the most recent clinical diagnostic marker for DI and has a strong correlation with plasma arginine vasopresshin (AVP), it is given as dietary supplements in pregnant women as an example of pharmacologically-deficient antidiabetic drugs. Copeptin and AVP are derived from the same precursor protein, pre provasopressin. With a small volume of 50 L, copeptin is an ideal diagnostic marker that can be obtained in less than two hours, making it essentially 'assay' as opposed to AVP. Copeptin and AVP are released when there is an increase in systemic osmolality or a decrease in arterial blood volume and pressure. The results of a study by Timper et al. Indicate that copeptin is not only dependable for diagnosing polyuria polydipsia syndrome but also serves as an acceptable surrogate marker in AVP. Patients who had a baseline copeptin level of >21.4 pmol/L had already undergone NDI before they were stimulated. Osmotic stimulation is necessary to differentiate CDI from primary polydipsia if the initial copeptin levels fall below 21.4 pmol/l at baseline. Why this happens. Following osmotic stimulation (water deprivation and 3% saline injection), patients with primary polydipsia had AP (acopeptin) levels >4.9 pmol/L, while those with CDI had Phosphorin levels in 4.9 ampl/H. The diagnostic accuracy of this study was 96%. The research involved 156 individuals with polyuria polydipsia syndrome who underwent a follow-up study. The patients were inhaled with a hypertonic saline injection, which stimulated their sexual desires. After obtaining the serum of the patients. Copeptin levels were accurately measured with a 97% accuracy, as the sodium content was at least 150 mmol/L. The measurements were precise. Enhanced options.Research is necessary to establish a specific copeptin level that accurately represents gestational DI. High volumes of The use of copeptin during the third trimester can lead to complications, including pregnancy. A state of preeclampsia. CDI can be detected through an MRI scan of the pituitary gland. The patient's MRI results.

Patients with CDI typically exhibit thickening of the infundibular stalk and absence of their normal posterior pituitary. PPBS is the location of Bright Spot. CDI's early stages could be associated with PPBS.

Treatment

The quality of life of the patient is greatly improved through treatment with DI. First wave of the. determine whether symptoms can be completely cured or not. DI is present in both central and nephrogenic systems. Keep fluid levels stable through a range of first line treatments. Having uninterrupted access to water is essential. 'It is crucial to avoid getting too thirsty quickly. An ironic method that is utilized to deal with. The inhibition of the NaCl cotransporter in the renal distal is achieved through the use of thiazide diuretics, which are also used to treat CDI and NDI. An intricate ganglion. '. The nephros are impermeable to water and are thought to contain this part. 'The diluting. The water preservation effect of thiazide diuretics is not likely to be linked to a. Therefore, A direct impact on the distal convoluted tubule. The most widely accepted theory is that the. The antidiuretic effect is secondary to increased renal sodium excretion. This is caused by a renal sodium deficiency. Diminished extracellular volume leads to an increase in the proximal area and a decrease in its glomerular filtration rate (GFR). Reabsorption of sodium in the tubular and water. The principal type influences the different treatment methods.

Synthetic ADH, also known as desmopressin or, is the preferred treatment option for CDI. DDAVP is the term used to refer to. DDAVP is a modified version of the endogenous hormone ADH, but with 2,000 to 3,000 times less variation. Antibacterial properties. 'DDAVP can be given orally, intranasally and parenterally. The optimal approach. 'It appears to be intranasal or oral, as plasma concentrations are achieved within 40 and 55 minutes respectively. In general, the use of urine. Following administration, the time taken to take action will range from 6 to 18, and the output will decrease by one to two hours. The intranasal delivery of DDAVP can cause eye irritation, headache, and dizziness, which are uncommon side effects. Diarrhea, coughing or flushing, nausea and vomiting, abdominal pain, chest pain & palpitations. Tachycardia is a common occurrence.

NDI is slightly more complex than just drinking water and taking diuretics (thiazide) to relieve symptoms. Lithium-treated patients with bipolar disorder are the primary cause of acquired cases of this rare disease. Prolonged use of lithium therapy results in complications. Irreversible nephrogenic diabetes insipidus may develop after lithium therapy is discontinued for an extended period. The nephron's insensitivity to ADH and the absence of ADP release make DDAVP an unsuitable treatment for this condition. Despite this, progress is being made in treating nephrogenic diabetes insipidus. Mice have been found to be involved in studies that demonstrate an increase in AQP2 levels in cells by secretin. The plasma membrane was triggered by Fluvastatin's inclusion, which may indicate that this combination could serve as an effective therapeutic agent for treating non-diabetics. This led to the initiation of fresh research on the function of statins in NDI. ' A pilot study using lithium in a double blind, placebo controlled double trial found that there was no significant difference in the proportion of urine osmolality seen by NDI patients over. Following the results of further trials and monitoring, it may be possible to determine whether atorvastatin is effective in controlling NDI. Additionally, additional research on the biological mechanisms of ATORVATINTIN may enable psychiatrists to use lithium therapy more safely for regulating RDI symptoms. Proper dietary habits, such as a renal diet or sodium restriction, can be helpful in treating illnesses.

The most effective treatment for dipsogenic DI is behavioral therapy that involves reducing voluntary water consumption. Nonetheless, the patient's excessive thirst poses a challenge. It is possible to teach the patient about. Group therapy, relaxation techniques using biofeedback, and treatment for disease. There are also measures to provide support. A balanced diet, avoiding drugs that cause dry mouth, and weight monitoring are among the measures that can be taken. Examine whether water is being retained. 'Antipsychotic drugs are also effective in preventing hyponatremia. Eu. Enhance the behavior of polydipsia patients. The drugs that are being tested include lithium, olanzapine, and the medications clozapine and risperidone. Pronoloin, phenytoin and propranolic. Dipsogenic DI can lead to hyponatremia, which can be managed by restricting its water intake, or the use of 3% saline injection in serious cases. However.

Due to its resistance to placental vasopressinase, DDAVP is the preferred treatment option. Higher levels of vasopressinase hinder the process's effectiveness. The resistance is a result of an altered form of arginine. Seated in the eighth position. Moreover, DDAVP is more selective for the AVPR2 activator. 'Reduced oxytocic activity results in reduced stimulation and propulsion of the uterine. 'Intranasal is a term used to describe .The most desirable way of governing. DDAVP is a class B teratogen that has minimal effects in pregnancy. Side effects of maternal and fetal development. 'A higher dose may be required in later stages of pregnancy. Levels of the vasopressin receptor in the phallus. DDAVP can be administered at lower doses or completely after pregnancy ,Ceased. Breast milk does not experience any effects from DDAVP as it does NOT enter the milk. The work that has gone before has been done. Proved that the use of DDAVP has no adverse effects on neonates and is safe and effective. ' There must be hypernatremia. The correction can be achieved in a critical care setting through observation and controlled fluid resuscitation of 1mmol/L per hour. The oligohydramnios is an uncommon problem that has been reported. DI, causes and vasopressin response as well as diagnosis and clinical management.

Prognosis and prevention

Treatment and quality of life may vary depending on the cause of disease if symptoms become apparent in individuals with DL.Very flexible. While the identification of the primary type and origins of DI has increased. Due to the genetic origin of the condition and its extreme severity, there is no current that can be identified. All patients receive a treatment regimen that completely relieves their symptoms. CDI is introduced by. Whether it's severe trauma or head injury, which can cause quality of life problems, DI is the first sign of the disorder. Why Could potentially cause multiple difficulties for the patient and their loved ones. Individuals with the cause. In cases of malignancy, the outlook is uncertain in comparison to benign causes. Damage can

completely reduce NDI. The nephron does not undergo significant expansion, which is evident during extended lithium therapy. 'Should the drug be. 'Quietly halted during the initial stages of illness can decrease the severity and manage the impact on kidney function. A type of DNA dilution. The hypothalamus or pituitary damage can be fully cured, even though it is not extensive. It is possible to cause damage by. A tumor, head trauma, inflammation, infection, or surgery. The mental condition can also be treated. The underlying illness that leads to excessive thirst is appropriately managed.

Gestational DI can only occur during pregnancy when vasopressinase is produced by the placenta. The vast majority Treatment is not necessary for women after delivery, but they may experience gestational di later. Pregnant women are more prone to type 2 diabetes mellitus. If, as previously noted. Due to the severe damage, it remains untreatable to cure for permanent damage that is irreversible. In depending upon. Keeping up with the severity of the condition by ensuring adequate fluid intake meets excretory requirements ,thiazide therapy), following a renal diet, weight loss monitoring (DDAVP). Usurers Diuretics can lead to a relatively comfortable life. DI that is poorly managed can be fatal.

No particular gender, race or sex is immediately more likely to be affected by acquired DI. Whenever it is possible to Traumatic brain injury and DDI can be acquired through various factors such as infections, surgery or cancer Hemorrhaging of the hypothalamus and posterior pituitary. DDI can also be caused by mental illness, such as A mental illness that is characterized by schizophrenia. Bipolar patients typically receive lithium therapy as their primary form of NDI. The occurrence of NDI is extremely low due to the use of medications like amphotericin B and demeclocycline. The frequency of autosomal forms in congenital CDI is not known at present. Concerning NDI in congenital development. x is the linked pattern of inheritance. In particular, x linked NDI makes up around 90% of The frequency of congenital NDI in male births is 4 8 out 1,000,000 live. There has been no variation in gender Autosomal dominant and recessive forms have both been reported. It's interesting to see women who are Expectant mothers who are pregnant with males have a greater likelihood of developing gestational diabetes. But the most significant factor. Genetics and sedentary lifestyle factors are among the causes of gestational diabetes.

Conclusions

Untreated diuretic retinopathy (DI) can significantly impact a patient's quality of life. It is characterized by a deficiency in ADH release from the posterior pituitary gland, leading to Chronic Dehydration of the Kidney (CDI), and a deficiency in ADH release from the collecting duct (NDI). Dipsogenic DI and GDI are characterized by a deficiency in ADH, leading to abnormally low osmotic thirst threshold, increased fluid intake, and a rise in placental vasopressinase, leading to ADH degradation in the mother. Diagnosis of DI involves measuring urine osmolality, vasopressin response, and copeptin measurement. MRI of the brain can also be useful for CDI. Management of DI focuses on improving patient quality of life and counteracting extreme fluid floss. Treatment for CDI includes DDAVP administration and adequate fluid intake. NDI can be managed by discontinuing the offending agent, such as Lithium. Dipsogenic DI requires behavioral therapy to reduce water intake and may include antipsychotic medication if warranted. DDAVP is the principal treatment option for GDI. The prognosis of each type is usually excellent, as adequate treatment leads to improved quality of life for patients.

References

- Christ-Crain M, Bichet DG, Fenske WK, Goldman MB, Rittig S, Verbalis JG, Verkman AS: Diabetes insipidus . Nat Rev Primers. 2019, 5:54. 10.1038/s41572-019-0103-2
- Moeller HB, Rittig S, Fenton RA: Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus: essential insights into the molecular Background and potential therapies for treatment. Endocrine Rev. 2013, 34:278-301. 10.1210/er.2012-1044
- 3. Robertson GL: Antidiuretic hormone: normal and disordered function. Endocrinology. 2001, 30:671-694. 10.1016/S0889-8529(05)70207-3
- Hickey J: Fluid and metabolic disorders in neuroscience patients. The Clinical Practice of Neurological and Neurosurgical Nursing. 2009 (ed): Lippincott Williams & Wilkins, Philadelphia, PA; 195-205.
- Adams NC, Farrell TP, O'Shea A: Neuroimaging of central diabetes insipidus—when, how and findings. Neuroradiology. 2018, 60:995-1012. 10.1007/s00234-018-2072-7
- Schernthaner-Reiter MH, Stratakis CA, Luger A: Genetics of diabetes insipidus. Endocrinol Metabol Clin N Am. 2017, 46:305-334. 10.1016/j.ecl.2017.01.002
- Osman AA, Saito M, Makepeace C, Permutt MA, Schlesinger P, Mueckler M: Wolframin expression induces Novel ion channel activity in endoplasmic reticulum membranes and increases intracellular calcium. J Bio Chem. 2003, 278:52755-52762. 10.1074/jbc.M310331200
- Fonseca SG, Fukuma M, Lipson KL, Nguyen LX, Allen JR, Oka Y, Urano F: WFS1 Is a novel component of the Unfolded protein response and maintains homeostasis of the endoplasmic reticulum in pancreatic β-cells. Bio Chem. 2005, 280:39609-39615. 10.1074/jbc.M507426200
- Barrett TG, Bundey SE, Macleod AF: Neurodegeneration and diabetes: UK nationwide study of Wolfram (DIDMOAD) syndrome. Lancet. 1995, 346:1458-1463. 10.1016/S0140-6736(95)92473-6
- 10. Sands JM, Bichet DG: Nephrogenic diabetes insipidus . Ann Intern Med. 2006, 144:186-194. 10.7326/0003-4819-144-3-200602070-00007

- 11. Iorgi ND, Napoli F, Allegri AEM, et al.: Diabetes insipidus—diagnosis and management. Hormone Res Paediatrics. 2012, 77:69-84. 10.1159/000336333
- 12. Bendz H, Aurell M: Drug-induced diabetes insipidus: incidence, prevention and management . Drug Safety. 1999, 21:449-456. 10.2165/00002018-199921060-00002
- Perkins RM, Yuan CM, Welch PG: Dipsogenic diabetes insipidus: report of a novel treatment strategy and Literature review. Clin Exp Nephrol. 2006, 10:63-67. 10.1007/s10157-005-0397-0
- 14. Sailer CO, Winzeler B, Christ-Crain M: Primary polydipsia in the medical and psychiatric patient: Characteristics, complications and therapy. Swiss Medical Weekly. 2017, 147: 10.4414/smw.2017.14514
- Ananthakrishnan S: Diabetes insipidus during pregnancy . Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2016, 30:305-315. 10.1016/j.beem.2016.02.005
- Ananthakrishnan S.: Gestational diabetes insipidus: diagnosis and management. Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2020, 34:101384. 10.1016/j.beem.2020.101384
- Timper K, Fenske W, Kühn F, et al.: Diagnostic accuracy of copeptin in the differential diagnosis of the Polyuria-polydipsia syndrome: a prospective multicenter study. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2015, 100:2268- 2274. 10.1210/jc.2014-4507
- Christ-Crain M, Fenske W: Copeptin in the diagnosis of vasopressin-dependent disorders of fluid Homeostasis. Nat Rev Endocrinol. 2016, 12:168-176. 10.1038/nrendo.2015.224
- Fenske W, Quinkler M, Lorenz D, et al.: Copeptin in the differential diagnosis of the polydipsia-polyuria Syndrome—revisiting the direct and indirect water deprivation tests. J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2011, 96:1506-1515. 10.1210/jc.2014-4507
- 20. Simerville JA, Maxted WC, Pahira JJ: Urinalysis: a comprehensive review. Am Fam Physician. 2005, 71:1153-1162.
- John CA., Day MW: Central neurogenic diabetes insipidus, syndrome of inappropriate secretion of Antidiuretic hormone, and cerebral saltwasting syndrome in traumatic brain injury. Critical Care Nurse. 2012, 32:e1-e7. 10.4037/ccn2012904
- 22. Hui C, Radbel JM: Diabetes insipidus . StatPearls, Treasure Island, FL; 2020.
- 23. Refardt J, Winzeler B, Christ-Crain M: Diabetes insipidus . Endocrinol Metab Clin N Am. 2020, 49:517-531. 10.1016/j.ecl.2020.05.012
- 24. Refardt J, Winzeler B, Christ-Crain M: Copeptin and its role in the diagnosis of diabetes insipidus and the Syndrome of inappropriate antidiuresis. Clin Endocrinol. 2019, 91:22-32. 10.1111/cen.13991
- Refardt J: Diagnosis and differential diagnosis of diabetes insipidus: update . Best Pract Res Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2020, 34:101398. 10.1016/j.beem.2020.101398
- Zerbe RL, Robertson GL: A comparison of plasma vasopressin measurements with a standard indirect test in The differential diagnosis of polyuria. N Engl J Med. 1981, 305:1539-1546. 10.1056/NEJM198112243052601
- 27. Christ-Crain M: Diabetes insipidus: new concepts for diagnosis . Neuroendocrinology. 2020, 110:859-867. 10.1159/000505548
- Fenske W, Refardt J, Chifu I, et al.: A copeptin-based approach in the diagnosis of diabetes insipidus. N Engl J Med. 2018, 379:428-439. 10.1056/NEJMoa1803760
- Bichet D, Sterns RH, Emmett M, Wolfsdorf JI: Treatment of Central Diabetes Insipidus . Forman JP, Hoppin A (ed): UpToDate, Waltham, MA; 2019.
- 30. Bichet D., Sterns R. H., Mattoo T. K.: Treatment of Nephrogenic Diabetes Insipidus . UpToDate, Forman, J.
- Diabetes Insipidus | NIDDK. (n.d.) . Accessed: September 7, 2020: <u>https://www.niddk.nih.gov/health-Information/kidney-disease/diabetes-insipidus</u>.
- 32. Kim GH: Antidiuretic effect of hydrochlorothiazide in lithium-induced nephrogenic diabetes insipidus is Associated with upregulation of aquaporin-2, Na-Cl Co-transporter, and epithelial sodium channel. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2004, 15:2836-2843. 10.1097/01.ASN.0000143476.93376.04
- Procino G, Milano S, Carmosino M, et al.: Combination of secretin and fluvastatin ameliorates the polyuria Associated with X-linked nephrogenic diabetes insipidus in mice. Kidney Int. 2014, 86:127-138.10.1038/ki.2014.10
- Fotso Soh J, Beaulieu S, Trepiccione F, et al.: A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled pilot trial of Atorvastatin for nephrogenic diabetes insipidus in lithium users. Bipolar Disorders. 2020, 23:66-75.10.1111/bdi.12973
- Ray JG: DDAVP use during pregnancy: an analysis of its safety for mother and child. Obstet Gynecol Surv. 1998, 53:450-455. 10.1097/00006254-199807000-00025

- Hanson RS, Powrie RO, Larson L: Diabetes insipidus in pregnancy: a treatable cause of oligohydramnios Obstet Gynecol. 1997, 89:816-817. 10.1016/s0029-7844(97)00029-x
- Choi HS, Kim YH, Kim CS, Ma SK, Kim SW, & Bae EH: Diabetes insipidus presenting with oligohydramnios And polyuria during pregnancy. J Nippon Med School. 2018, 85:191-193. 10.1272/jnms.JNMS.2018_85-29
- Noctor E: Type 2 diabetes after gestational diabetes: the influence of changing diagnostic criteria. World J Diab. 2015, 6:234-244. 10.4239/wjd.v6.i2.234
- 39. Quigley J, Shelton C, Issa B, Sripada S: Diabetes insipidus in pregnancy . Obstet Gynaecol. 2018, 20:41-48.