SODIUM is the most common electrolyte in extracellular fluid. Its reference range is 135 to 145 mEq/L. The main role of sodium is in controlling water distribution and fluid balance in the body. Water follows sodium, so high levels of sodium in a fluid compartment take water with it.

Other functions of sodium include:

- promote transmission of nerve impulses
- maintain intracellular osmolality
- activate several enzymatic reactions
- assist with regulation of acid-base balance
- promote myocardial, skeletal, and smooth muscle contractility

Sodium is absorbed by the intestines and excreted by the kidneys. If sodium levels begin to rise, the body will make adjustments by stimulating a thirst mechanism so that the person will want to drink additional water.

- Eating and drinking can easily replace the lost sodium.

Hyponatremia, a condition in which the sodium level is below 135 mEq/L, can be due to low levels of sodium or to excess water in relation to the amount of sodium. Postoperative patients commonly have hyponatremia. Common causes of hyponatremia include: profuse diaphoresis, draining wounds, excessive diarrhea or vomiting, trauma with significant blood loss, low sodium intake, hormonal changes associated with Addison disease, hypothyroidism and overuse of thiazide diuretics. A drop in sodium causes cellular edema which affects the central nervous system and leads to depression and cerebral edema. It is important to monitor the patient for mental status changes, headache, personality changes and irritability. Gastrointestinal symptoms of hyponatremia include nausea, vomiting, abdominal discomfort and diarrhea. In cases where the sodium is 115 mEq/L or less, the patient will have muscle tremors and twitching, focal weakness, signs of intracranial pressure and possible coma. The treatment is to determine the underlying cause and replace the lost sodium. Eating and drinking can easily replace the lost sodium. IV administration of lactated Ringers or normal saline may be needed in those who cannot take sodium orally. In extreme case an oral medication called Tolvaptan may be used.
Hypernatremia, a condition in which the sodium levels are above 145 mEq/L, is generally associated with a hyperosmolar state where a fluid volume deficit exists. The increase in extracellular sodium causes intracellular fluid to shift out of the cells into the extracellular spaces which results in cellular dehydration. Common causes of hypernatremia include: inadequate water intake, excessive fluid loss, administration of tube feedings without adequate water supplements, diarrhea and excessive steroid use. Medical conditions associated with hypernatremia include: hyperaldosteronism, Cushing syndrome, diabetes insipidus and renal failure. Clinically the patient may exhibit muscle weakness and twitching, personality changes, agitation, hallucinations and decreased level of consciousness. Cardiac output is reduced due to decreased myocardial contractility leading to heart failure. Patients with hypernatremia may have symptoms associated with hypovolemia to include: dry, sticky mucous membranes, intense thirst, flushed skin, oliguria, tachycardia, postural hypotension, and fever. Dehydration with hypernatremia is a primary reason for behavior changes in older adults. Blood vessels become fragile in severe cases and can result in intracerebral, subarachnoid, and subdural hemorrhage and permanent brain damage. Treatment is to treat the underlying cause and restore fluid balance. The patient will be treated with salt free fluids either orally or by IV. Rapid reduction of sodium may cause serum osmolality in the brain to be temporarily greater than that of plasma osmolality causing cerebral edema. It is important to monitor levels closely and reduce the sodium gradually.

POTASSIUM is the major element in intracellular fluid. The reference range of potassium is 3.5 to 5.0 mEq/L. Potassium plays an important role in cellular metabolism, especially in protein and glycogen synthesis and in the enzymatic processes necessary for cellular energy. It also aids in maintaining cellular electrical neutrality and osmolality.

Other functions of potassium include:

- acid-base balance
- nerve impulse conduction
- maintenance of normal cardiac rhythm
- skeletal and smooth contraction

The body has no effective way to store potassium so it must be consumed daily. Potassium levels are regulated by kidney excretion with excess levels removed through feces and sweat. The sodium-potassium pump regulates extracellular potassium levels by pumping sodium out of cells and allowing potassium to flow back into cells. In the kidneys sodium and potassium have a reciprocal relationship. Acting on the distal tubules, aldosterone triggers potassium excretion and reabsorption of sodium. The kidneys have no way to detect a potassium deficiency and will continue to excrete potassium even when levels are low. Acid-base changes affect serum potassium levels because potassium is exchangeable with hydrogen ions.

Hypokalemia is a condition where the serum potassium level is below 3.5 mEq/L. Gastrointestinal loss is the most common cause of hypokalemia. When extracellular potassium is lost from diarrhea, vomiting, diaphoresis, laxative or diuretic overuse, gastric suctioning or alkalosis, the body compensates by shifting potassium from the intracellular spaces. Potassium can also be lost through kidney excretion in association with metabolic alkalosis and hyperaldosteronism. Potassium levels below 3 mEq/L can cause a problem with cardiovascular and neuromuscular function causing respiratory function to be compromised. Prolonged low levels of potassium impair the kidneys’ ability to concentrate urine which results in polyuria and urine with a low specific gravity. Hypokalemia also depresses insulin release from the pancreas, resulting in glucose intolerance. Cardiac and/or respiratory arrest can also result from very low levels of potassium. Patients need to have vital signs closely monitored and watched for irregularities in the apical pulse. The ECG in hypokalemia show
BLOOD ELECTROLYTES—Continued

flattened T waves, depressed ST segments and prominent U waves as well as life-threatening dysrhythmias. Neuromuscular assessments should be done to look for the absence of deep tendon reflexes and myalgia. Other symptoms include skeletal muscle cramps and weakness, progressing from mild lower extremity weakness to more generalized paralysis. Nausea, vomiting, anorexia, constipation, the absence of bowel sounds and a paralytic ileus are common GI effects. Prolonged hypokalemia affects the kidneys’ ability to concentrate urine so the patient’s input and output must be monitored. It is also important to monitor all the serum electrolytes. If the patient takes digoxin, he must be monitored for signs of toxicity, i.e. anorexia, nausea, vomiting, cardiac dysrhythmias and seeing yellow-green halos. Loss of potassium in extracellular fluid increases myocardial sensitivity to digitals by potentiating digoxin’s effects. Treatment involves restoring the body to a normal potassium level. This is done by a providing the patient with a diet high in potassium to include whole grains, green leafy vegetables, potatoes, beans and fruits. Oral and IV replacement is also an option.

Hyperkalemia is a condition where the serum potassium level is above 5.0 mEq/L. Hyperkalemia is most often related to kidney failure due to inadequate kidney function. Other causes include over use of oral potassium or salt substitute products, hypoaldosteronism and Addison’s disease. Certain medications such as potassium chloride, angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors and nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs can cause the potassium to increase. Excess serum potassium can be created in cases of severe infections, burns, metabolic acidosis and in traumatic crush injuries.

It is important to be aware of pseudohyperkalemia, a falsely elevated potassium level, because if discovered in a presurgery workup, it can unnecessarily delay surgery and result in additional testing and a longer hospital stay. It can also mask a real illness which can lead to medical mistakes due to the administration of wrong medication or wrong treatment. Certain medical conditions, such as diabetes, renal failure, can elevate a patient’s potassium. Many medications used to treat heart conditions, anti-inflammatory drugs and heparin can alter potassium levels. Hemolysis, rupture of red blood cells, can release excess potassium into the blood. Pre-collection factors such as fist pumping and prolonged tourniquet application can falsely elevate a patient’s potassium. Collection factors that can falsely elevate potassium include drawing through vascular access devices, not letting alcohol dry on the skin prior to puncture, use of a syringe with excessive pulling on the plunger, forcing the blood from the syringe into an evacuated tube instead of using a syringe transfer device and shaking the blood after collection instead of gently inverting. Collection of specimens using the wrong order of draw, i.e. drawing a tube for electrolytes after a tube containing EDTA because of the carry over from the EDTA tube. The longer that a specimen is allowed to clot the more potassium that can diffuse out of the red blood cells into the blood. Another significant factor in pseudohyperkalemia is improper centrifugation especially in the tubes with gel barriers. It is important to allow serum separator tubes to clot for at least 30 minutes, as per manufacturer instructions, and then centrifuge for the required number of minutes at the required speed. The most clinically dangerous problem associated with hyperkalemia is on myocardial tissue because of the effect on cardiac conduction. The higher the potassium level, the higher and more peaked the T wave will appear on the ECG. There will also be a prolonged PR interval and a widening of the QRS complex which can lead to life threatening ventricular dysrhythmias. Patients with hyperkalemia will exhibit cardiac problems, muscle weakness and paralysis, respiratory problems, nausea, diarrhea and intestinal problems. Treatment involves bringing the serum potassium levels back to normal. Dietary restrictions of potassium can help along with removing medications containing potassium. IV administration of diuretics can be used as long as blood pressure and heart rate are monitored. In extreme cases hemodialysis or peritoneal dialysis may be needed to remove excess potassium.

GARDASIL VACCINE FOR BOYS AND GIRLS

The human papillomavirus (HPV) vaccine is not just for girls. Females are just half the equation. There are 30 to 40 types of HPV that will affect an estimated 75-80% of males and females in their lifetime. For most people, HPV will clear up on its own, but for some others HPV can cause cervical cancer in females and genital warts in both females and males. GARDASIL is the only HPV vaccine that helps protect against four types of HPV. In girls and young women ages 9 to 26, GARDASIL helps to protects against two types of HPV that cause about 75% of cervical cancer and two more types that cause 90% of genital warts. In boys and young men ages 9 to 26, GARDASIL helps protect against 90% of genital warts.

GARDASIL may not fully protect everyone nor will it protect against diseases caused by other HPV types or against diseases not caused by HPV. GARDASIL does not prevent all types of cervical cancer so it is important for women to continue routine cervical cancer screenings. GARDASIL does not treat cervical cancer or genital warts. The vaccine is given in three injections over a 6 month period. The GARDASIL vaccine is not for anyone allergic to the ingredients especially yeast, nor for women that are pregnant. Side effects include pain, swelling, itching, bruising, redness at the injection site, headache, fever, nausea, dizziness, vomiting and fainting.

To decide if GARDASIL is right for your son or daughter, it is important to discuss it with your own physician.

For more information: www.gardasil.com

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