## ACID BASE BALANCE

# Fb/Nurse-Info

### Normal acid base values:

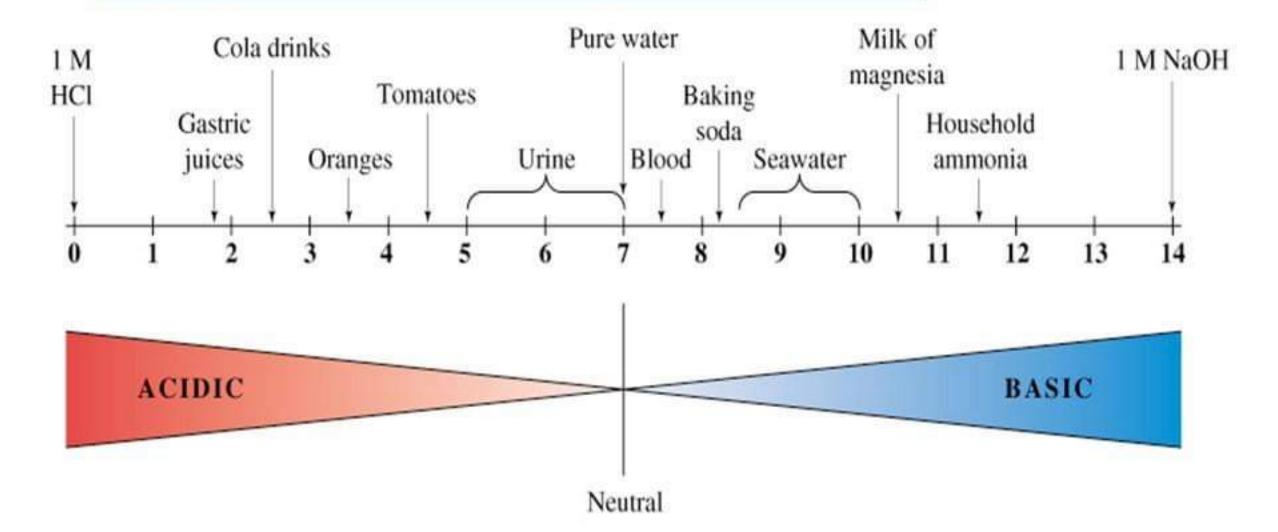
pH PCO2 HCO3-

Range: 7.35-7.45 36-44 22-26

Optimal

value 7.40 40 24

#### pH: A Concentration Scale for Acids and Bases



#### **Definitions**

▶ 1) Acid: a substance which can give H<sup>+</sup> (proton)

Strong acid: dissociates completely (H+, H+, H+,....) e.g Hcl

Weak acid: dissociates partialy (H+,H+)

e.g 
$$H_2CO_3 \rightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^-$$
  
 $H_2PO_4 \rightarrow H^+ + HPO_4^-$ 

2) Base: can accept proton

$$HCO_3^- + H^+ \rightarrow H_2CO_3$$

- 3) Alkali: dissociates to produce OH + group
- 4) Buffering: is the process by which a strong acid (or base) is replaced by a weaker one, with a consequent reduction in the number of free hydrogen ions

$$HCI + NaHCO_3 \rightarrow H_2CO_3 + NaCl$$
  
strong acid buffer weak acid neutral salt

- 5) Buffer pair: weak acid and its conjugate base
- 6) pH: it is a measure of H + activity
- NB: using pH in measuring H + concentration is deceiving (makes significant things appear small, 1nm = 0.01pH)

## Acids are continually produced as a byproduct of metabolism.

Volatile acid e.g carbonic acid (H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>),

Nonvolatile acids

(approximately 15,000 to 20,000 mmol per day)

approximately 80 mmol per day

## Organic acids

sulfuric acid  $\rightarrow$  from sulfur-containing amino acids, from partial metabolism of carbohydrates and fats.

Uric acid  $\rightarrow$  from nucleic acid metabolism,



Inorganic phosphates  $\rightarrow$  from the metabolism of organic phosphorus compounds.

Different buffer systems assume dominant roles in different parts of the body

Extracellular Fluid

Blood

Intracellular Fluid

Urine

#### **Major Buffer**

·Bicarbonate buffer system

#### **Minor Buffers**

- ·Intracellular proteins
- Phosphate buffer system

#### **Major Buffers**

- ·Bicarbonate buffer system
- ·Hemoglobin

#### **Minor Buffers**

- ·Plasma proteins
- Phosphate buffer system

#### **Major Buffers**

- ·Proteins
- ·Phosphate

#### **Major Buffers**

- ·Ammonia
- ·Phosphate

# Mechanisms for the Homeostasis of Hydrogen Ions

Despite the continual metabolic production of acid, the pH of extracellular fluids is normally tightly maintained between 7.35 and 7.45.

The primary organs that deal with the acid load are the lung (respiratory) and kidneys (metabolic).

Chemical bu. within seconds

#### Kidney (24-48h)

The kidneys maintain the HCO3 buffer system..

## Lungs (rapid within I-3 minutes)

Maintaining a concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> by elimination of excess CO<sub>2</sub> in the body fluids.

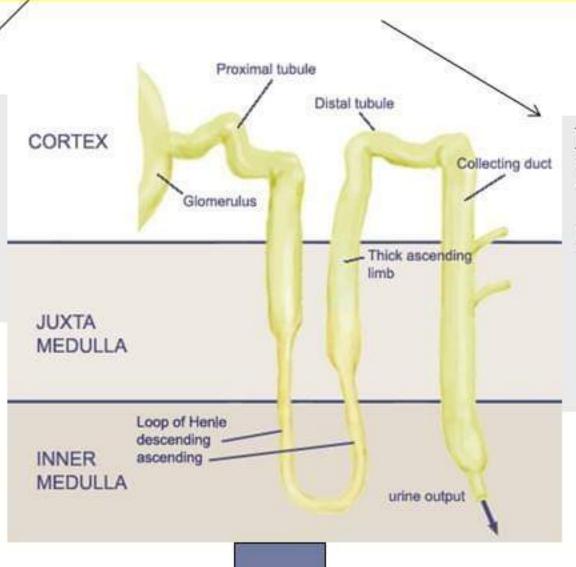
- Acidosis stimulating ventilation
- -Alkalosis depressing it.

Buffering: is the process by which a strong acid (or base) is replaced by a weaker one, with a consequent reduction in the number of free hydrogen ions.

## Physiology of Renal Acidification

The generated acid =50-100 meq/day

Proximal acidification: >PCT absorption of HCO3 (85%)



#### Distal Urinary acidification.

- Reabsorption of HCO3 (15%)
- Excretion of fixed acids through buffering & Ammonia recycling and excretion.

The urine PH can be lowered to a max. 4.5-5 in presence of acid load. This maintained the plasma H+ and PH within a narrow limits

# Increase PH >7.4 Alkalosis

Decreased PH < 7.4
Acidosis



Alkalosis is any abnormality that removes acid or adds base.

Acidosis is any abnormality that results in addition of acid or removal of alkali from the body fluids

## Systematic ABG analysis

- 1. History taking and physical examination
- Assess accuracy of data (validity).
- 3. Identify the primary disturbance
  - Check arterial pH----- acidosis or alkalosis
  - 2. HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> & pCO<sub>2</sub> analysis---primary disorder.
- Compensatory responses
- Calculate AG
- Formulate acid-base diagnosis

## I. Some important "Clues" in history

Pulmonary embolus	Respiratory alkalosis
Cirrhosis	Respiratory alkalosis
Dehydration or shock	Metabolic acidosis
Hyperkalaemia	
Vomiting , Hypokalaemia	Metabolic alkalosis
Severe diarrhea	Metabolic acidosis
salisylates or alcohol intoxication	
Renal failure	Metabolic acidosis
Hyperglycaemia (DKA? if ketones present	suggests metabolic acidosis (high AG
Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	Respiratory acidosis

## **VALIDITY**

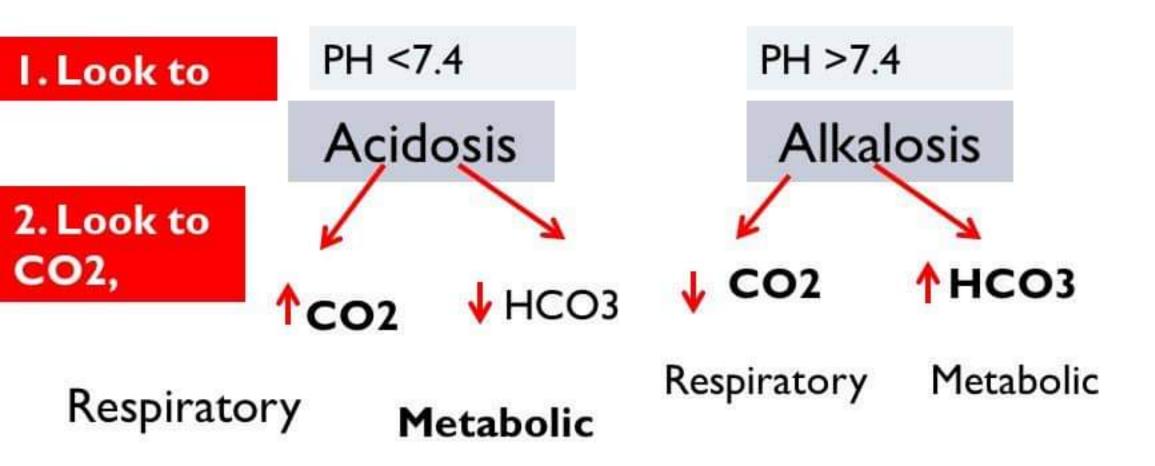
## [H]=24 x Pco2/HCO3 lungs/kidneys

A modified Henderson-Hasselbalch equation can be used to check the validity of the laboratory values obtained.

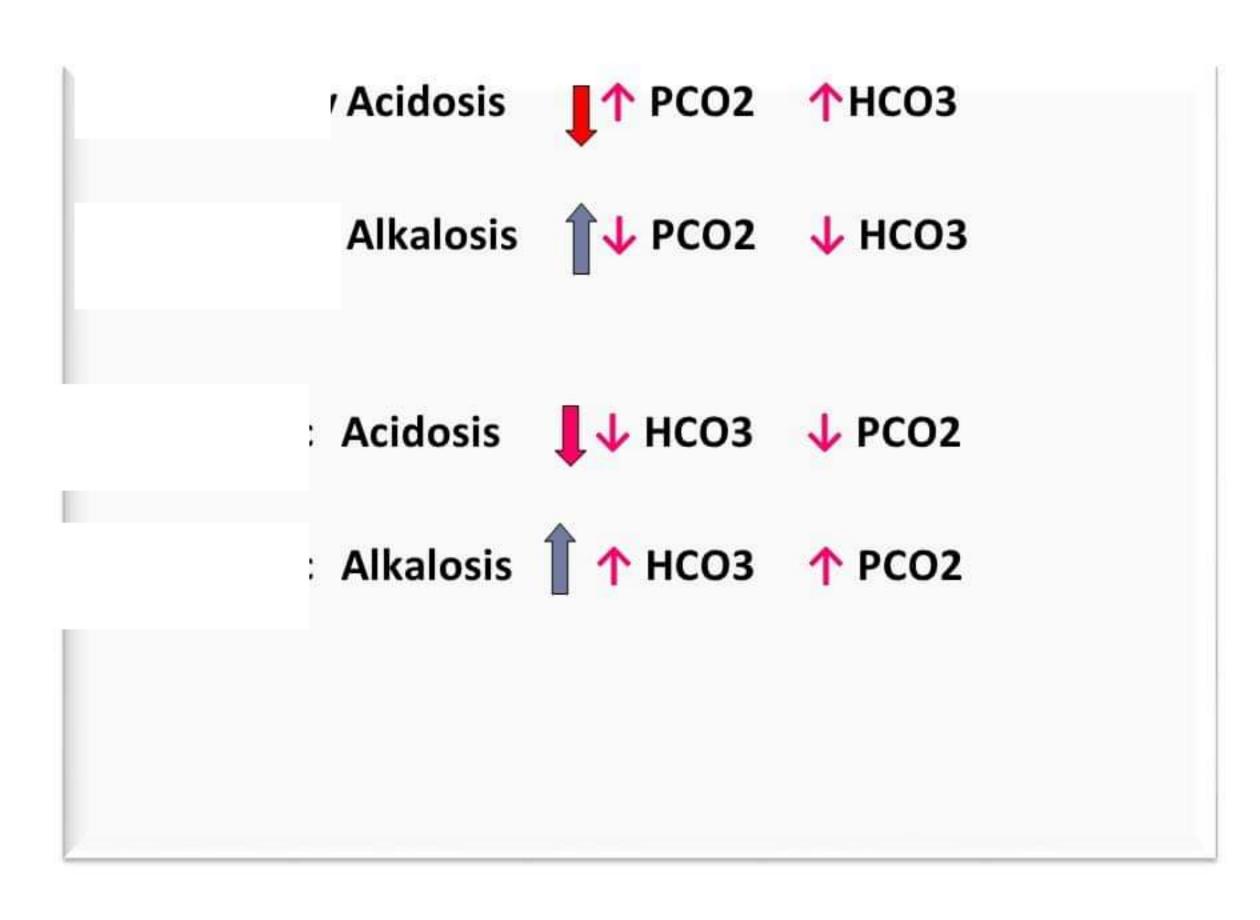
$$H = (PCO2/HCO3) \times 24 = PH-7.8 \times 100$$

Acidosis		Alkalosis	
6.8	PH 7.4	7.8	
100	40	16	

## 3. Identify the primary disturbance



- If PCO2 is the initial chemical change, then process is respiratory (weak acids).
- if HCO3- is the initial chemical change, then process is metabolic (weak alkali).
- Mixed disturbances are possible (e.g., a mixed metabolic acidosis and respiratory alkalosis).
- The term acidemia refers to a decrease in blood pH from normal, whereas alkalemia refers to an abnormal increase in blood pH.



#### The Four Cardinal Acid Base Disorders

Disorder	рН	pCO <sub>2</sub>	[HCO <sub>3</sub> -]	
M acidosis	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b>	<b>\</b>	
M alkalosis	1	<b>↑</b>	<b>↑</b>	
R acidosis	1	1	<b>↑</b>	
R alkalosis	<b>↑</b>	$\downarrow$	<b>\</b>	

## 4. Compansation

- The body attempts to maintain its pH when confronted with acid—base disturbances.
- The compensatory processes are different for respiratory and renal disturbances.
- The magnitude of an appropriate compensatory response has been determined from empirical observation of the responses in humans and experimental animals.

# Assessment of compensatory responses Metabolic

Metabolic acidosis

Expected pCO2 =  $1.5 \times [HCO3] + 8 \text{ (range: +/- 2)}$ 

Metabolic alkalosis

Expected pCO2 = 0.7 [HCO3] + 20 (range: +/- 5)

"If the actual pCO<sub>2</sub> or [HCO<sub>3</sub>-] is different from the predicted values,

You must suspect a 2<sup>nd</sup> acid-base disorder"

## Respiratory

- Acute Respiratory Acidosis:
- The [HCO<sub>3</sub>] will increase by <u>I mmol/I</u> for every <u>I0</u> mmHg elevation in pCO<sub>2</sub> above 40 mmHg
- Chronic Respiratory Acidosis:
- The [HCO3] will increase by 4 mmol/l for every 10 mmHg elevation in pCO2 above 40mmHg.

- Acute Respiratory Alkalosis:
- The [HCO3] will decrease by 2 mmol/l for every 10 mmHg decrease in pCO2 below 40 mmHg.
- Chronic Respiratory Alkalosis:
- The [HCO3] will decrease by 5 mmol/l for every 10 mmHg decrease in pCO2 below 40 mmHg.

# 5. The Gap"

# "Anions and Cations in Serum (Values in mEq/L)

<b>ANIONS</b>	CATIONS	
Proteins 15	Calcium 5	
Organic acids 5	Magnesium 1.5	
Phosphates 2	Potassium 4.5	
Bicarbonates 24	Sodium 140	
Sulfates 1		
Chlorides 104		
Total 151	Total 151	

## Anion = Cation

Anion gap=measured cation-measured anion =  $[Na^{\dagger}]$  -  $([Cl^{-}] + [ECO_{3}^{-}])$ 

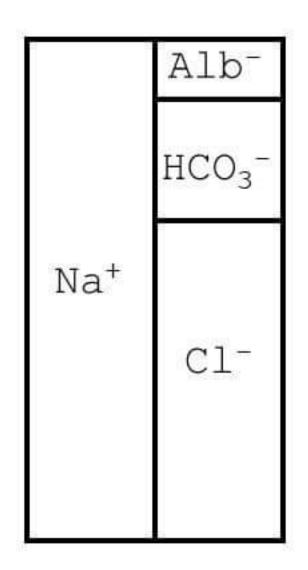
## 5. The "Anion Gap"

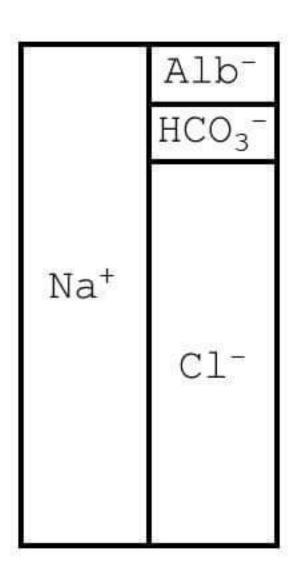
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Anion gap \equiv [Na<sup>+</sup>] - ([Cl<sup>-</sup>] + [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>])
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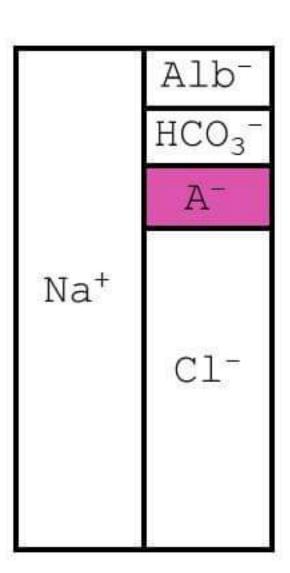
The gap reflects unmeasured anions, mostly the negative charge on albumin. The gap is used to differentiate metabolic acidosis caused by loss of HCO<sub>3</sub>. (normal gap) from acidosis caused by organic acids like ketoacids, lactic acid, or toxins like ethylene glycol, or methanol

#### Metabolic Acidosis: The "Anion Gap"

$$\equiv [Na^{+}] - ([Cl^{-}] + [HCO_{3}^{-}])$$







M acidosis

Nl Anion gap High Anion gap M acidosis

## metabolic acidosis



#### **High Anion Gap**

#### Normal anion gap

- 1. Ketoacidosis
  - Diabetic
  - Alcoholic
  - Starvation
- 2. Lactic acidosis
- 3. Toxicosis
  - Ethylene glycol
  - Methanol
  - Salicylates
- 4. Advanced renal failure

- ▶ 1. GIT HCO<sub>3</sub> loss
  - Diarrhea
  - External fistulas
- 2. Renal HCO<sub>3</sub> loss
  - Proximal RTA
  - Distal RTA
  - Hyperkalemic RTA

#### Metabolic alkalosis

Metabolic alkalosis arises by

increased loss of acid (generally from the stomach or kidney).

Volume loss with chloride depletion (vomiting, gastric drainage, diuretics, villous adenoma)

Excess alkali intake (milk-alkali syndrome, bicarbonate administration)

Hypermineralocorticoid states (exogenous steroid treatment, primary aldosteronism, Cushing syndrome, renovascular disease)
Severe potassium deficiency

## Primary respiratory abnormalities

 Failure of respiration, leading to accumulation of carbon dioxide and

## Respiratory Acidosis

- Acute respiratory failure (drug intoxication, cardiopulmonary arrest)
- Chronic respiratory failure (chronic obstructive pulmonary disease [COPD], neuromuscular disorders, obesity)

Hyperventilation, leading to a reduction in carbon dioxide and

## Respiratory alkalosis

- Hypoxia stimulating hyperventilation: (asthma, pulmonary edema, pulmonary fibrosis, high altitude, congenital heart disease)
- Increased respiratory drive (pulmonary disease, anxiety, salicylate intoxication, cerebral disease, fever)
- 3. Cirrhosis, pregnancy
- 4. Excessive mechanical ventilation

#### **CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS**

- Nonspecific signs such as:
  - Fatigue
  - Mental status changes can be seen along with findings related to the underlying etiologies.
- Some signs and symptoms that can be suggestive are the following:
  - Profound hyperventilation in the setting of acute metabolic acidosis (Kussmaul respiration)
  - Papilledema with severe, acute hypercapnia in the setting of acute respiratory acidosis
  - Neurologic symptoms in acute respiratory alkalosis (paresthesias, numbness, light-headedness

#### DIAGNOSTIC EVALUATION

- The diagnosis of acid-base disorders is made by measurement of serum electrolytes and ABGs.
- Measurement of the urine pH and plasma creatinine level can be useful in assessing renal function.

#### **Renal Tubular Acidosis**

Renal tubular acidosis (RTA) is applied to a group of transport defects in the reabsorption of bicarbonate (HCO3-), the excretion of hydrogen ion (H+), or both.

The RTA syndromes characterized by:

Relatively normal GFR.

Hyperchloremia Metabolic Acidosis (with normal plasma anion gap).

## Types of RTA

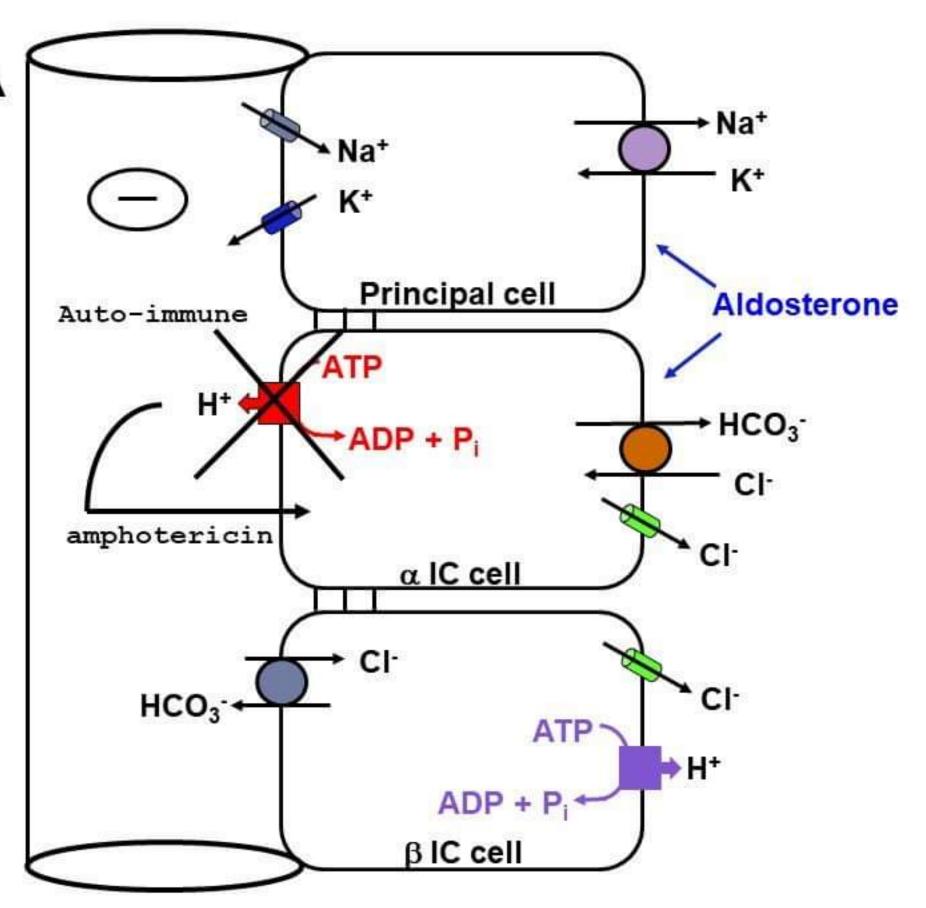
- Type 1 or distal RTA is associated with a defect in distal hydrogen ion excretion.
- Type 2 or proximal RTA is characterized by a reduction in proximal bicarbonate reabsorptive capacity.
- Type 3 is considered as infantile variant of type 1 RTA.
- Type 4 RTA or hypoaldosteronism is associated with hyperkalemia and a mild metabolic acidosis.

## Features of Classic Distal Renal Tubular Acidosis ("Type I")

```
Diminished distal H' secretion
(autoimmune)
      or backleak of secreted H+ (ampho-
B)
Plasma [HCO<sub>3</sub>-] may be below 10 mEq/L
Urine pH always > 5.5
Fractional HCO<sub>3</sub> < 3% plasma [HCO<sub>3</sub>]
Plasma [K<sup>+</sup>] reduced
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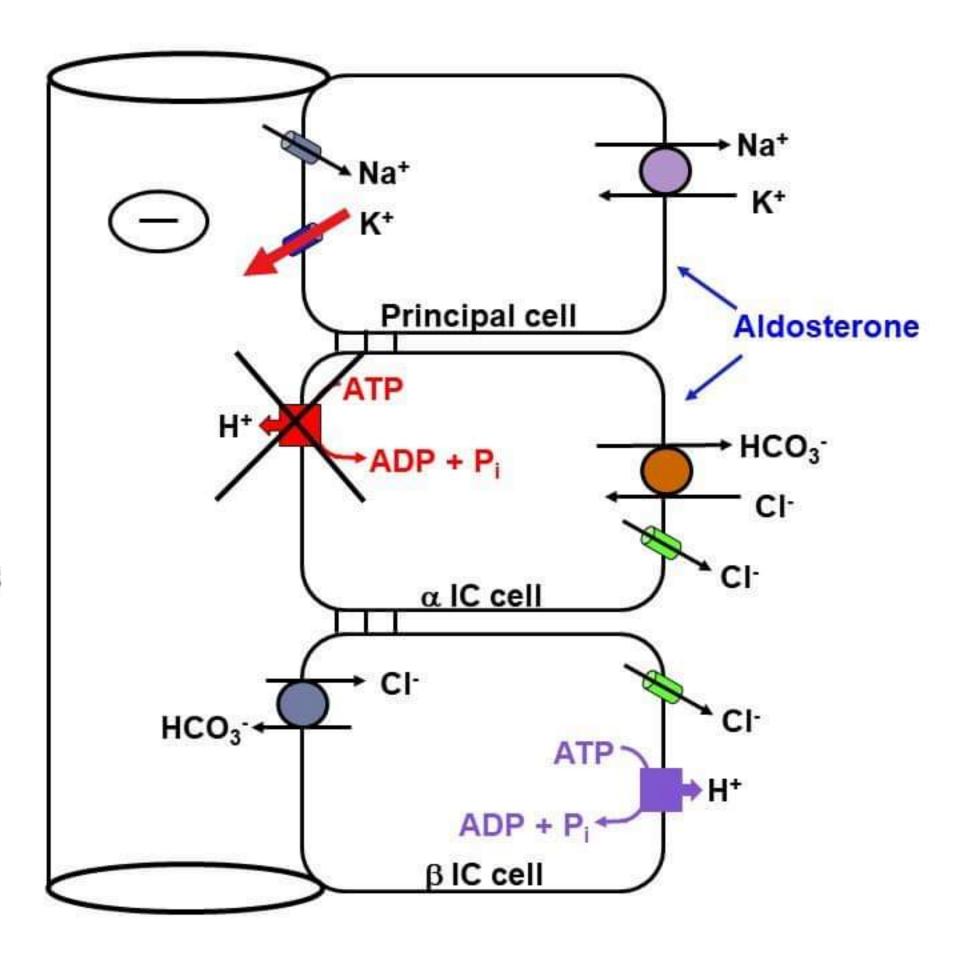
Dose of daily HCO<sub>3</sub> required: 1-2 mEq/kg/d

## **Distal RTA**

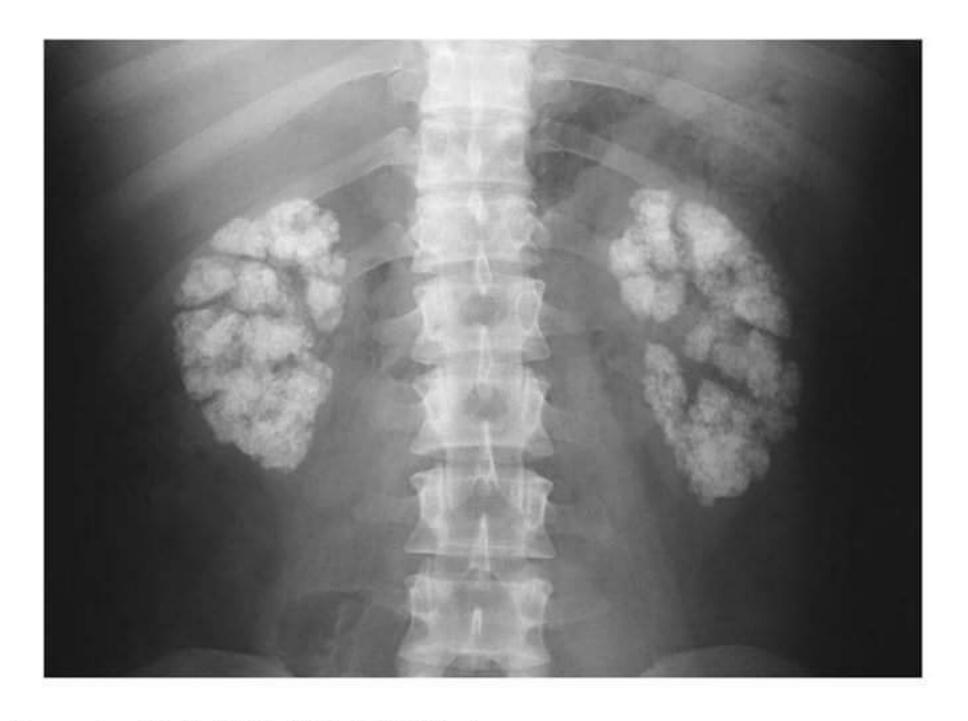


Hypokalemia in distal RTA:

H <sup>+</sup> no longer shunts Na <sup>+</sup> current so K<sup>+</sup> must do so



#### A 37-year-old man was referred for evaluation of distal renal tubular acidosis



Serrano A and Batlle D. N Engl J Med 2008;359:e1

## Type 1 distal RTA

#### Causes:

- Primary
  - Idiopathic, sporadic
  - Familial AD, AR
- Secondary
  - Autoimmune (SLE, Sjogren's, RA)
  - Hereditary hypercalciuria, hyperparathyroidism, Vit D intoxication
  - Hypergammaglobulinemia
  - Drugs (Amphotericin B, Ifosfamide, Lithium)
  - Chronic hepatitis
  - Obstructive uropathy
  - Sickle cell anemia
  - Renal transplantation

## Features of Proximal Renal Tubular Acidosis ("Type II")

Diminished proximal resorption of HCO3-

Plasma  $[HCO_3^-]$  10-15 mEq/L

Urine pH depends on plasma [HCO<sub>3</sub>-]

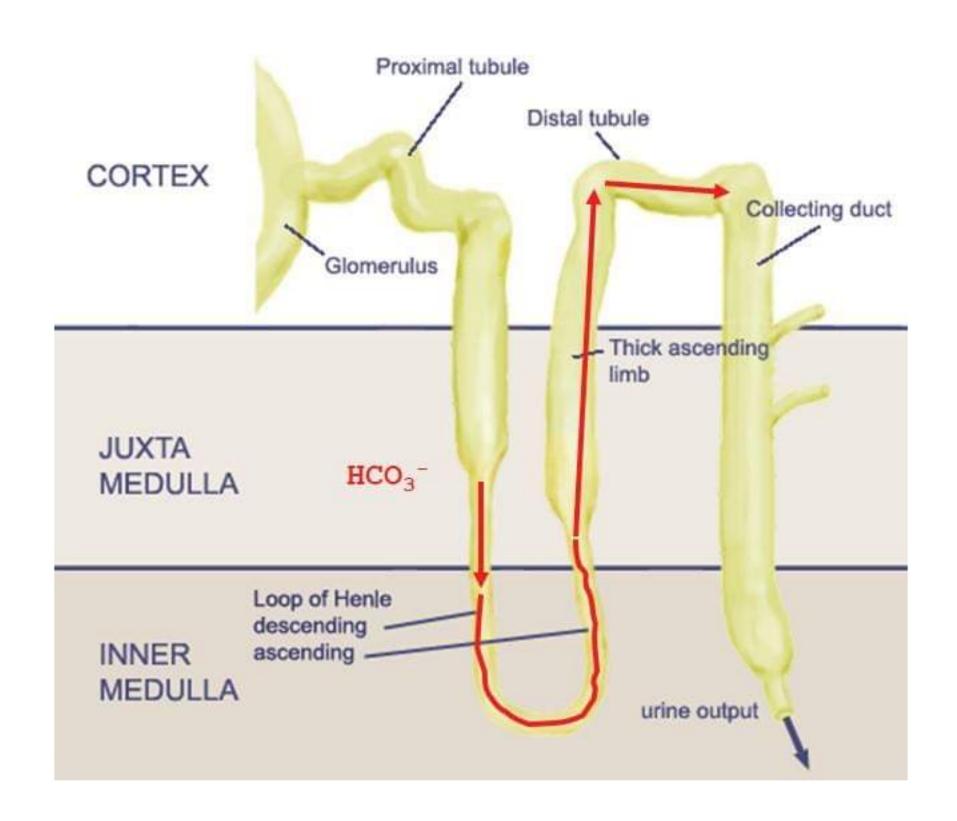
Fractional  $HCO_3^-$  excretion high (15-20%) at normal plasma  $[HCO_3^-]$ 

Plasma [K+] reduced, worsens with HCO3- therapy

Dose of daily HCO<sub>3</sub> required: 10-15 mEq/kg/d

Non-renal: rickets or osteomalacia

Type II Renal Tubular Acidosis ("RTA")



## Type 2 RTA

#### Causes:

- Primary
  - Idiopathic, sporadic
  - Familial: Cystinosis, Tyrosinemia, Hereditary Fructose intolerance, Galactosemia, Glycogen storage disease (type 1), Wilson's disease, Lowe's syndrome

#### Fanconi's Syndrome

- Generalized proximal tubule dysfunction
- Proximal loss of phos, uric acid, glucose, AA

#### Acquired

- Multiple Myeloma
- Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (Acetazolamide)
- Other drugs (Ampho B, 6mercaptopurine)
- Heavy Metal Poisonings (Lead, Copper, Mercury, Calcium)
- Amyloidosis
- Disorders of protein, Carb, AA metabolism
- Hypophosphatemia, hypouricosuria, renal glycosuria with normal serum glucose

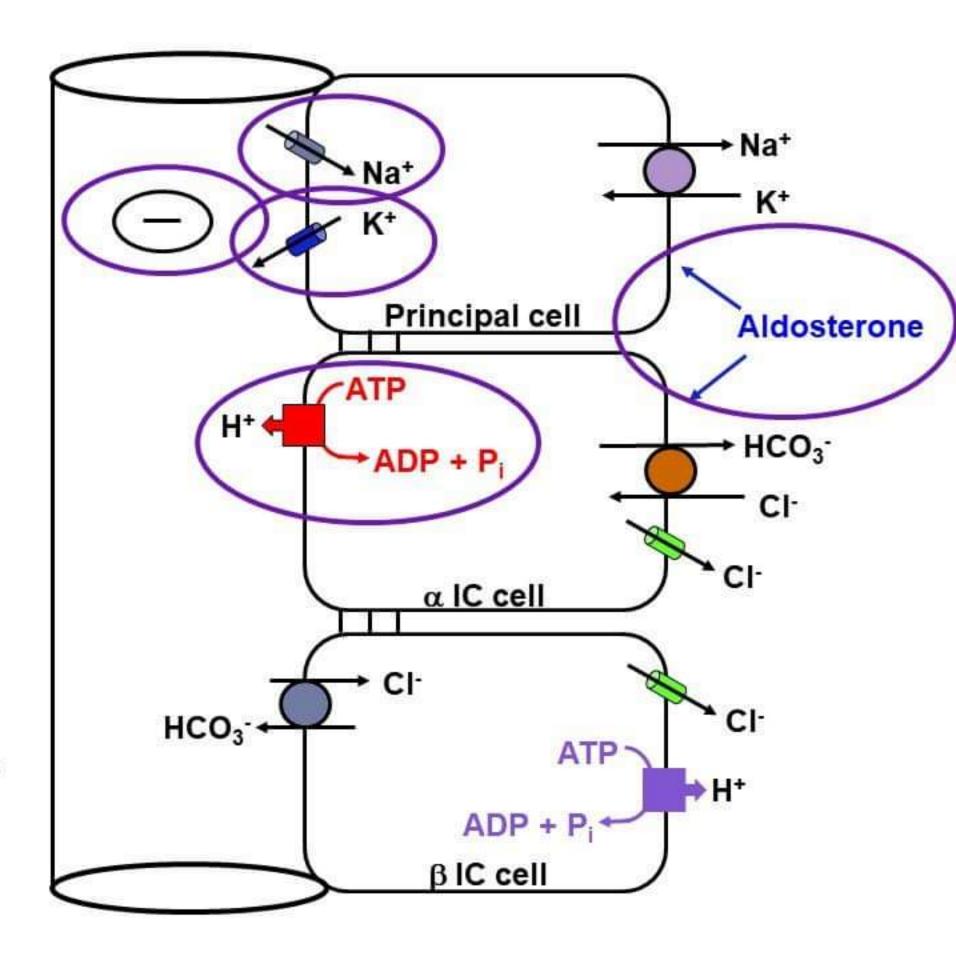
# Features of the Hyperkalemic Distal RTAs

- ▶Aldosterone deficiency or resistance ("voltage")
- ▶Plasma [HCO<sub>3</sub>-] usually above 15 mEq/L
- ➤Urine pH depends:
- generally < 5.5 in hypoaldosteronism</p>
- generally > 5.5 in voltage defect
- ▶Fractional HCO<sub>3</sub> excretion <3% at normal plasma [HCO<sub>3</sub>]
- ▶Plasma [K+] elevated
- ▶Dose of daily HCO<sub>3</sub> required: 1-3 mEq/kg/d
- ►Non-renal: none

Hyporeninhypo aldosteronism

Diabetes is the main cause

Other causes include NSAIDS, ACE inhibitors, adrenal insufficiency etc.



## Type 4 RTA

#### **Acquired Causes**

- ▶ ↓ Renin:
  - Diabetic nephropathy
  - NSAIDS
  - Interstitial Nephritis
- Normal renin, ↓Aldo:
  - ACEs, ARBs
  - Heparin
  - Primary adrenal response

### ↓response to Aldo:

- Medications: K+ sparing drugs (Sprinolactone), TMP-SMX, pentamidine, tacrolimus
- Tubulointerstitial ds: sickle cell, SLE, amyloid, diabetes

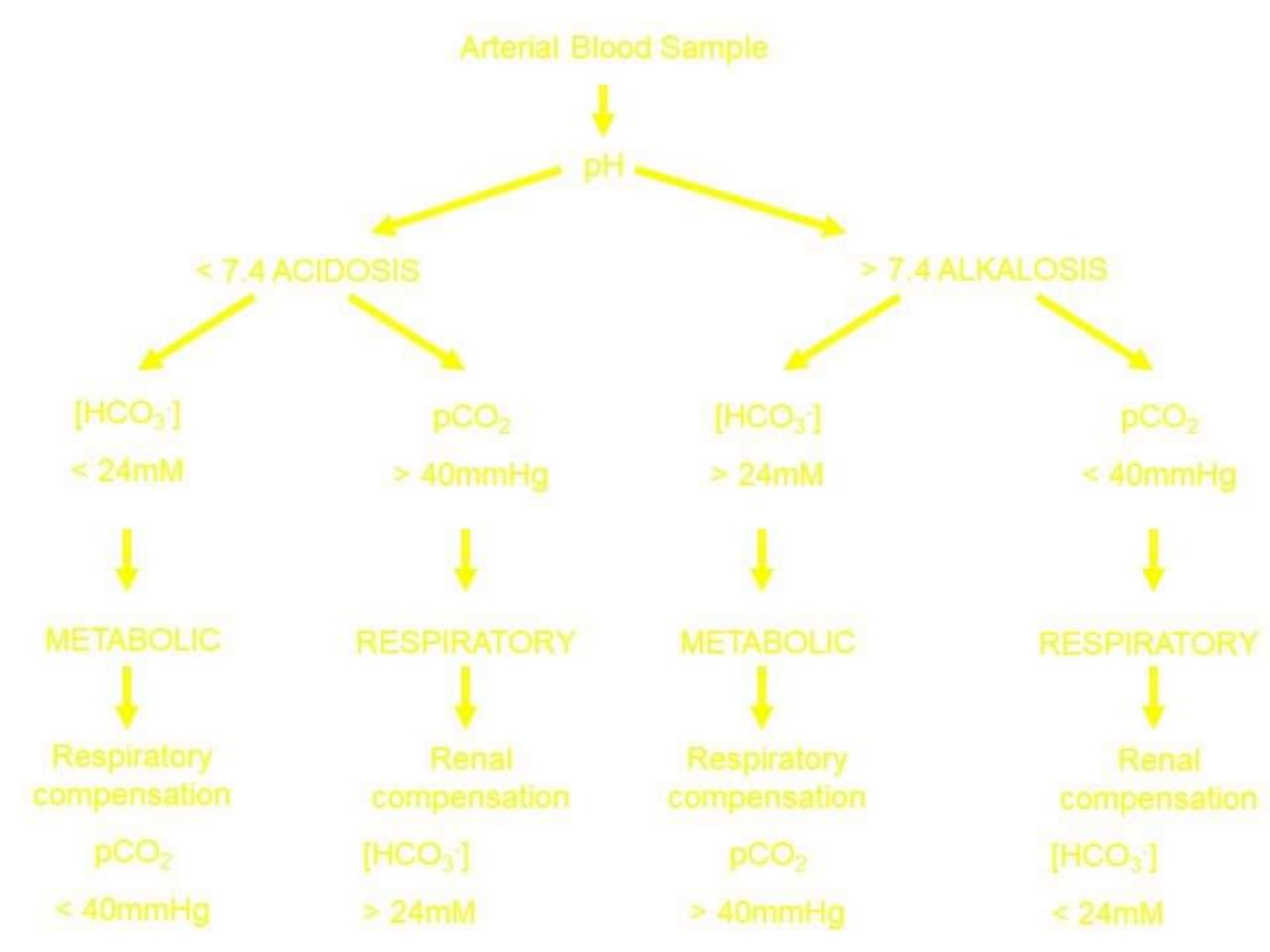
## Characteristics of types 1,2,4 RTA

	Type 1	Type 2	Type 4
Primary defect	Impaired distal acidification of urine	Decreased proximal HCO3 reabsorption	Aldosterone def. or resistance
Urine PH	>5.3	Variable >5.3 if HCO3 > reaborbed threshold and < 5.3 if below	<u>&lt;</u> 5.3
Plasma HCO3	May be <10meq/L	Above 12meq/L	Above 17meq/L
Plasma K	Usually reduced rarely elevated	Normal or reduced worsen by alkali	elevated

	Type 1 Distal	Type 2 Proximal	Type 4
Fractional excretion of bicarbonate When plasma HCO3->20meq/L	<3%	>15-20%	<3%
Diagnosis	Response to NaHCO3 or ammonium chloride	Response to NaHCO3	Measurement of plasma aldosterone
Therapeutic amount of NaHCO3 required	1-3 meq/kg/d	10-15 meq/kg/d	1-3 meq/kg/d
Non-electrolyte complications	Nephrocalcinosis and renal stones; Osteomalacia uncommon	Rickets in children and Osteomalacia in adults; calculi is rare.	None

#### TREATMENT

- Several conditions may require specific therapeutic interventions:
  - metabolic acidosis in the setting of chronic renal failure (administration of oral bicarbonate), severe uncorrectable metabolic acidosis in the setting of acute renal failure (temporary hemodialysis).
- Metabolic alkalosis from volume and chloride loss (fluid replacement with saline solution).



## Diagnosis

- Clues to diagnosis of A/B disorder:
- 1. Serum HCO3:

```
↑ → M.alkalosis
R.acidosis
↓ → M.acidosis
```

R.alkalosis

2. Serum K:

```
↑ K<sup>+</sup> → hypekalemic distal renal tubular acidosis
(hyporenemic hypoaldosteronism)
```

↓ K<sup>+</sup> → M.alkalosis

Renal tubular acidosis

#### **KEY POINTS**

- Metabolic acid exists as either carbonic acid or nonvolatile acids (which are buffered by the blood bicarbonate system).
- The lungs serve to eliminate carbonic acid as CO<sub>2</sub>, and the kidneys are responsible for maintenance of the bicarbonate buffer system.
- Acidemia is a decrease in normal blood pH; alkalemia is an abnormal increase in blood pH.
- Disturbance in the acid-base balance can be classified as acidosis (addition of acid or loss of base) or alkalosis (loss of acid or addition of base). If the primary abnormality is related to bicarbonate balance, the disturbance is said to be metabolic. If the primary abnormality is related to CO<sub>2</sub> handing, the disturbance is said to be respiratory.
- For each primary acid-base disturbance, there is an appropriate compensatory response that attempts to counteract the primary change.
- To treat alkalemia or acidemia successfully, the underlying abnormality or abnormalities need to be identified and corrected. This permits the kidneys and lungs to restore acid-base balance.