Acute Diarrhea in children





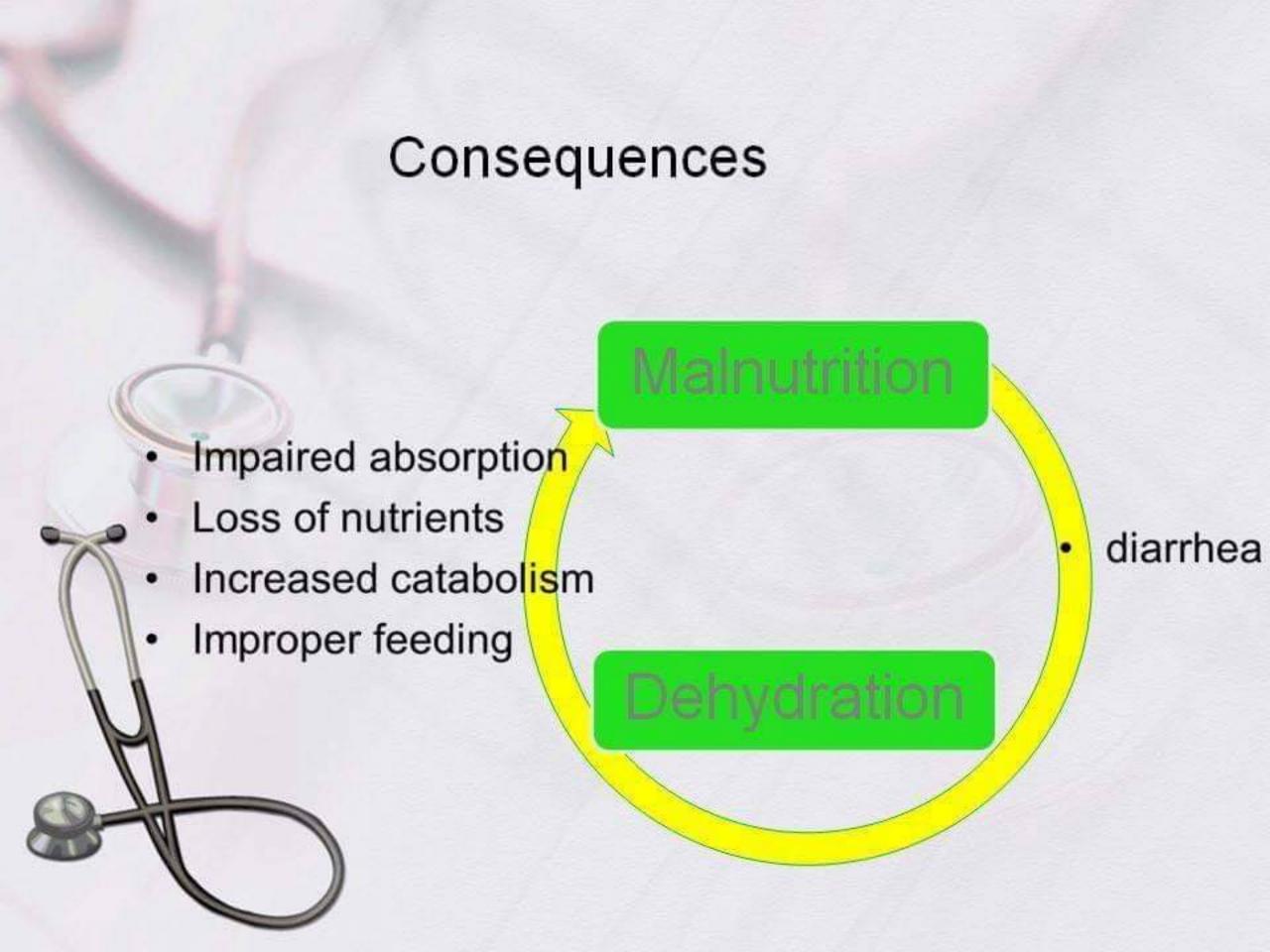
Classification

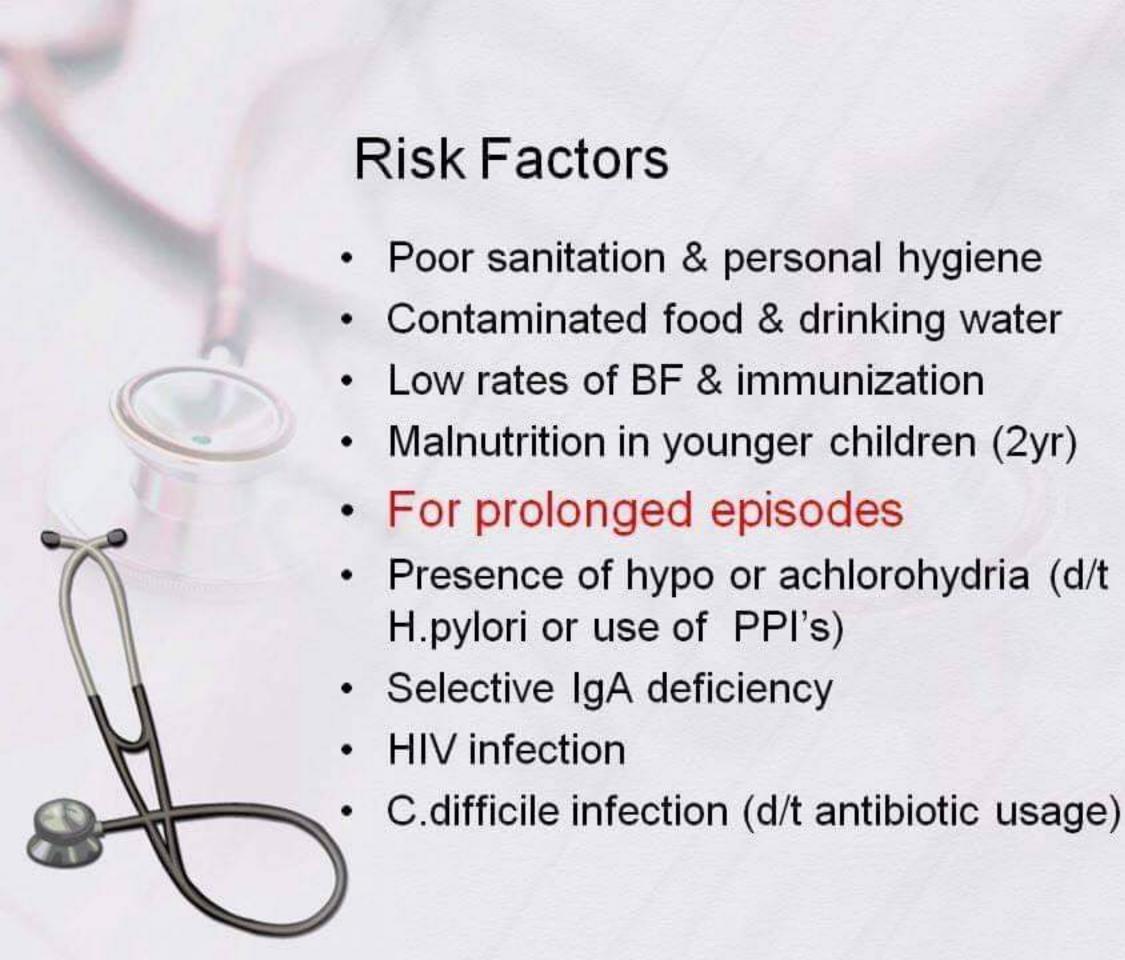
- Diarrhoea is classified as
 - acute if <2 weeks,
 - persistent if 2–4 weeks,
 - chronic if >4 weeks



Magnitude of the problem: World

- Diarrhoeal disease is the 2nd leading cause of death in children under 5 yrs of age.
- Globally, there are about 3-5 Bn cases of diarrhoeal disease every yr.
- Diarrhoeal disease kills 2 Mn children every yr.
- Diarrhea accounts for over 20% of all deaths in under 5 children.
- It is both <u>preventable</u> and <u>treatable</u>.

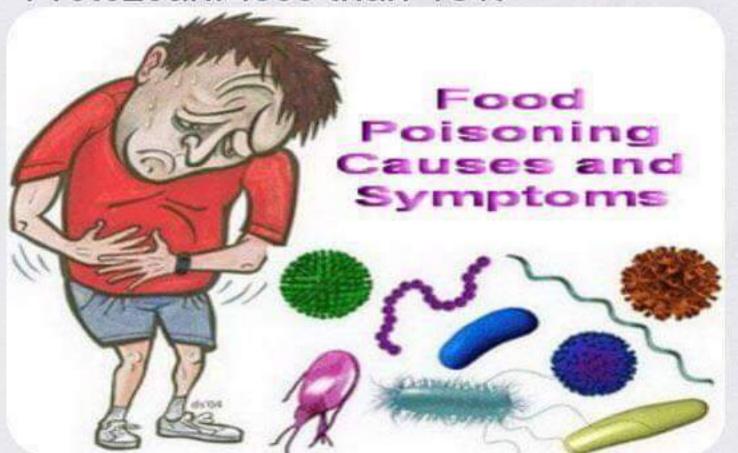






Etiology

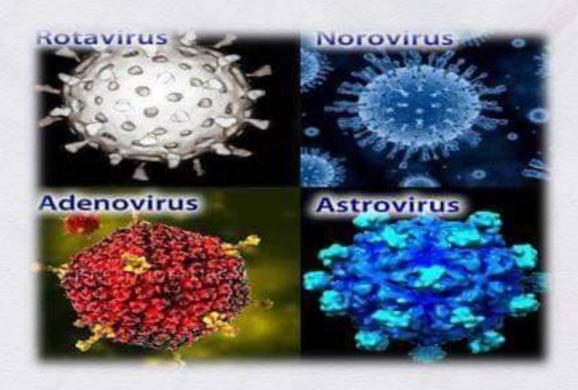
- Viral: 70-80% of infectious diarrhea in developed countries
- Bacterial: 10-20% of infectious diarrhea but responsible for most cases of severe diarrhea
- Protozoan: less than 10%





Viral Diarrhea

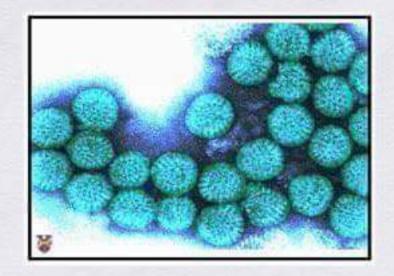
- Rotavirus
- Norovirus (Norwalk-like)
- Enteric Adenovirus (serotypes 40 & 41)
- Astrovirus





Summary of Viral Diarrhea

- Most likely cause of infectious diarrhea
- Rotavirus and Norovirus are most common
- Symptoms usually include low grade fever, nausea and vomiting, abdominal cramps, and watery diarrhea lasting up to 1 week
- Viral shedding can occur for weeks after symptoms resolve
- Feco-oral transmission.





Bacterial Diarrhea

- Escherichia coli (EHEC,ETEC)
- Shigella
- Vibrio cholera (serogroups O1 &O139)
- Salmonella
- Campylobacter





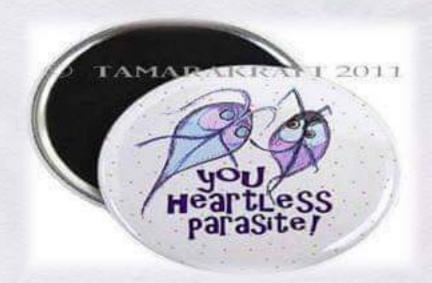
Summary of Bacterial Diarrhea

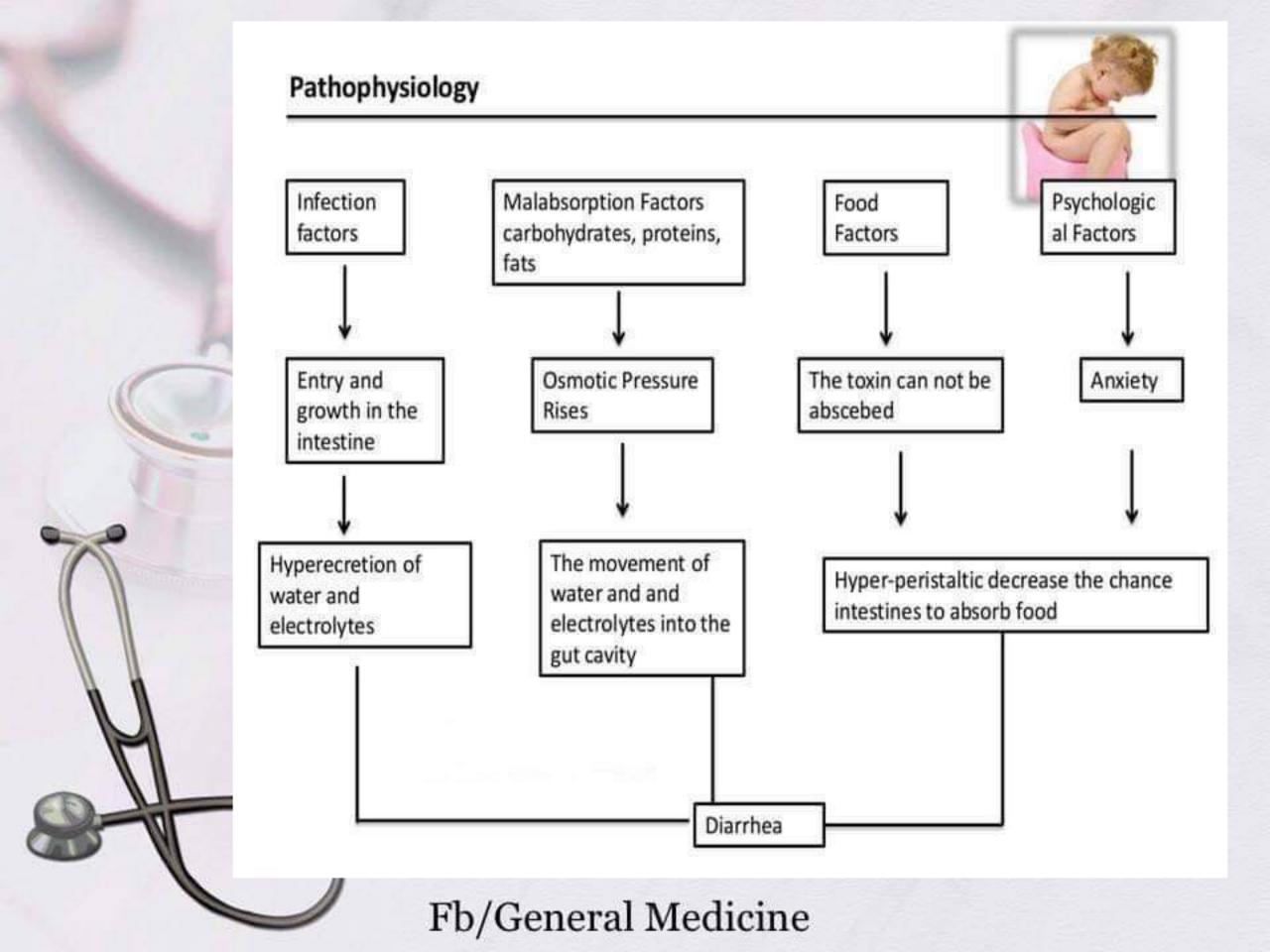
- Can affect all age groups
- Fecal-oral transmission, often through contaminated food & water
- Typical symptoms include bloody diarrhea, severe cramping, and malaise
- Antibiotic treatment not always necessary



Parasitic

- Giardia lamblia
- Cryptosporidium parvum
- Entamoeba histolytica
- Cyclospora cayetanensis
- Isospora belli







Clinical Features

- Mild
- Slightly irritable & thirsty
- Moderate
- More irritable, pinched look, depressed fontanelle, sunken eyes, dry tongue, distended abd. urine output at longer intervals
- Extreme case
- Moribund look, weak and thready pulse, low blood pressure, reduced urine output



Assessment of Child

- Type of diarrhea
- Look for dehydration
- Assess for malnutrition
- Rule out systemic infection
- Assess feeding



History

- Onset, duration and no.of stools per day
- Blood in stools
- No. of episodes of vomiting
- Associated symptoms
- Oral intake
- Drugs or other local remedies taken
- Immunization history



Physical Examination

- · Vitals, vitals, vitals!
- Abdominal exam
- Presence of occult blood
- Signs of dehydration



Laboratory Evaluation

- Can be managed effectively without lab investigations
- Stool microscopy in selected situations like cholera (darting motion) giardiasis (trophozoites)
- Stool culture to decide on antibiotic therapy in patients with shigella dysentery

Principles of Management

- 4 Major components:
- Rehydration and maintaining hydration
- Ensuring adequate feeding
- Oral supplementation of Zn
- Early recognition of danger signs and treatment of complications



Rehydration and maintaining hydration

- Diarrhea with no dehydration (Plan-A)
- normal diet and supplemental ORS with each diarrheal episode.
- Diarrhea with some dehydration (Plan-B)
- seek medical care, give ORS in the doctor's office, and cont. ORS and normal diet at home.
- Severe dehydration (Plan-C)
- consider intravenous hydration, especially if patient is also vomiting



Early Refeeding

 Luminal contents help promote growth of new enterocytes and facilitate mucosal repair

Can shorten duration of the disease

Lactose restriction is not necessary except

in severe disease





Danger signs



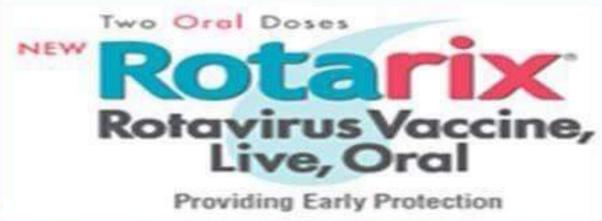


Contd...



- Rotavirus and measles vaccination
- Early and exclusive breastfeeding
- Vitamin A supplementation
- Promotion of hand washing with soap
- Improved drinking water supply and safe storage of household food & water
- Community-wide sanitation promotion





Hematology

Notes

- PT, aPTT, BT are normal → <u>Thalassemia</u>
- BT (mucosal bleeding), aPTT raised → <u>VWD</u>
- Only aPTT is prolonged → <u>Hemophilia</u>
- All elevated except for platelets and fibrinogen → <u>DIC</u>
- PT, platelets are low → <u>ITP</u>
- BT is prolonged → <u>TTP</u>
- Helmet cells → <u>Schistocytes</u>
- Blast cells → <u>ALL</u>, <u>AML</u>, <u>CML</u> (blastic crisis)
- Granulocytes without blast → <u>CML</u> (chronic phase)
- Smudge cells → <u>CLL</u>
- Plasma cells → MM
- Child (could be 15 years) + Blast cells → ALL
- Adult (20-30 years) + Auer rods + Blast cells → AML
- Old>50 years + no splenomegaly + Smudge cells + mature lymphocytes → CLL
- 40-50 years + massive splenomegaly + Philadelphia chromosome + Mature cells (granulocytes basophils, eosinophils, neutrophils) + cells in all stages of maturation i.e. myelocytes and metamyelocytes → CML
- Hypersegmented Neutropenia → B12 & Folate deficiency
- Target cells → <u>IDA</u> or <u>Thalassemia</u>
- Heinz bodies, Bite cells → G6PD deficiency
- Owl eyes or reed Sternberg → Hodgkin's lymphoma
- Target INR for Thromboembolism/most cases → 2-3
- Target INR for patients with metallic valves → 3-4
- Low INR → Lesser bleeding, faster clotting
- High INR → More bleeding, slower clotting
- Bruising on the face or forearm → Non-accidental injuries
- Hip/shoulder joints → <u>Accidental injuries</u>
- HIV/autoimmune → NHL
- EBV → HL
- High LDH indicates → <u>Tissue breakdown</u>
- Severe anemia + <u>low</u> reticulocytes in sickle cell anemia → <u>Aplastic crisis</u> caused by <u>Parvovirus B19</u>
- Severe anemia + <u>high</u> reticulocyte count in sickle cell anemia → <u>Splenic sequestration crisis</u>
- Prolonged aPPT + prolonged bleeding time → <u>Von Willebrand disease</u>
- Prolonged aPPT + prolonged PT → Vitamin K deficiency

Acute otitis media in children

> Acute inflammation of the middle ear and may be caused by bacteria or viruses

Features

- Rapid onset of pain (younger children may pull at the ear)
- Fever
- Irritability
- Coryza (rhinitis)
- Vomiting
- Often after a viral upper respiratory infection
- A red, yellow or cloudy tympanic membrane or bulging of the TM
- An air-fluid level behind the tympanic membrane
- Discharge in the auditory canal secondary to perforation of the tympanic membrane
- Perforation of the eardrum often relieves pain. This is because bulging of the tympanic membrane causes the pain



Source: Medscape

	Otitis media	Otitis externa
Risk factors	Younger age	Swimming High environmental humidity
Features	 May be seen as bulging tympanic membrane without discharge or purulent discharge with a ruptured TM Starts with pain in the ear followed by a popping sensation of the ear with complete resolution of pain. This is followed by discharge Follows an URTI 	 Serous discharge Starts with an itch followed by pain Tenderness in movement of the tragus Furuncles can be found in diabetics or low immunity Also called "boils" They're infected hair follicles MC organism → Staph Red, hard, tender Self-limiting or requires flucloxacillin
Treatment	 Usually conservative as etiology is usually viral If bacterial etiology → oral Amoxicillin Treatment of perforated OM Amoxicillin (5-days course) If penicillin-allergic → Erythromycin or clarithromycin 	 Combination of Topical acetic acid Topical aminoglycoside Topical corticosteroids If you suspect a TM perforation → use Ciprofloxacin drops, aminoglycosides ear drops are NOT the best choice as it's toxic Otitis externa with Pseudomonas (pus in the external canal) → topical gentamicin only or topical gentamicin with hydrocortisone (Gentisate HC)

GENERAL SURGERY

Abdominal pain

Condition	Characteristic exam feature
Peptic ulcer disease	 Duodenal ulcers → more common than gastric ulcers, epigastric pain <u>relieved by eating</u> Gastric ulcers → epigastric pain <u>worsened by eating</u> Features of upper gastrointestinal hemorrhage may be seen (hematemesis, melena etc.)
Appendicitis	 Pain initial in the central abdomen, then right iliac fossa Anorexia is common Tachycardia, low-grade pyrexia, tenderness in RIF McBurney sign → rebound tenderness at McBurney point Rovsing's sign → more pain in RIF than LIF when palpating LIF
Acute pancreatitis	 Usually due to gallstones or alcohol Severe epigastric pain Vomiting is common Examination may reveal tenderness, ileus and low-grade fever Periumbilical discoloration (Cullen's sign) and flank discoloration (Grey-Turner's sign)
Biliary colic [5F]	 RUQ radiates to the right shoulder or the back and interscapular region May be following a fatty meal. Slight misnomer as the pain may persist for hours Obstructive jaundice may cause pale stools and dark urine Female, forties, fat, fair & fertile Managed as acute cholecystitis
Acute cholecystitis	 History of gallstones symptoms (see above) Continuous RUQ pain Jaundice is NOT usually present with cholecystitis Fever, raised inflammatory markers and raised WBCs Murphy's sign positive (arrest of inspiration on palpation of the RUQ) US → thick-walled, shrunken gallbladder TIT → nil by mouth – analgesics (morphine) – IV fluids – antibiotics Surgery → Laparoscopic cholecystectomy is usually indicated if patient is fit If perforated GB → Open surgery
Diverticulitis	 Colicky pain typically in the LLQ → Lt-sided appendicitis Fever, raised inflammatory markers and white cells
Abdominal aortic aneurysm rupture	 Severe central abdominal pain radiating to the back Presentation may be catastrophic (e.g. Sudden collapse) or sub-acute (persistent severe central abdominal pain with developing shock) Patients may have a history of cardiovascular disease
Intestinal obstruction	 History of malignancy/previous operations Vomiting Not opened bowels recently 'Tinkling' bowel sounds Management → IV fluids, analgesia, obtain x-rays, and refer to the surgical unit

Genetics

Genetic inheritance

Autosomal recessive	Autosomal dominant	X-linked dominant	X-linked recessive
25% chance of inheritance if BOTH parents are carriers	50% chance of inheritance if ONE parent is a carrier	50% chance of inheritance if MOTHER has the disorder	 Male child has a 50% of inheritance if MOTHER is a carrier Female child has 50%
Unaffected → 1:4 Affected → 1:4 Carrier → 1:2	Unaffected → 1:2 Affected → 1:2 25% chance to pass to a grandson	If FATHER has the mutation, a female child has a 100% chance while a male child has 0%	chance to be a carrier if MOTHER is a carrier X-linked recessive conditions don't affect females to a significant
	If the affected parent is Homozygous → 4:4 If Heterozygous → 1:2	In X-linked diseases, sexes of offspring are usually mentioned	degree as the other X- chromosome is likely to be normal and can compensate Infected males don't live long enough to be fathers → Mom is the culprit
 Cystic fibrosis Sickle cell anemia Thalassemia Congenital adrenal hyperplasia Infantile PCKD 	 Huntington Neurofibromatosis PCKD OI 	 Fragile X syndrome Alport's syndrome Rett's syndrome 	 Hemophilia Duchenne muscular atrophy Becker's disease Red-green colorblindness G6PD deficiency

Approach

Firstly, find out what is the disease? Then figure out its type

1. Autosomal recessive

Usually both parents will have the faulty gene → Unaffected 1:4, Affected 1:4, Carrier 1:2

2. Autosomal dominant

There's no need to know the other partner genotype, as it's enough to have one parent with the faulty
gene to have the disease → Unaffected 1:2

In X-linked -> we need to know if the mother and the father are affected or not, also the effect on the offspring

3. X-linked dominant

- a) MOTHER affected, FATHER unaffected \rightarrow Unaffected 1:2, Affected 1:2 regardless of their gender
- b) MOTHER unaffected, FATHER affected → 100% girls Affected, 0% boys Affected

Because the boy will always take his Y gene from his father, leaving the faulty X gene of the father behind and he'll receive his X gene from his mother who's free of the disease

Girls will get one X gene from the father which is faulty, so all girls XX will have one gene X damaged

4. X-linked recessive

- Carrier MOTHER and unaffected father
 - Affected boys 1:2, Unaffected boys 1:2
 - Girls who become carrier 1:2



Genetics

Comparing the trisomies

Syndrome

Features

Patau syndrome (Trisomy 13)

- Microcephalic
- Microphthalmia
- Cleft lip and palate
- Polydactyly
- Scalp defects (cutis aplasia: skin missing from the scalp)



Edward syndrome

Down syndrome

(Trisomy 21)

(Trisomy 18)

- Microcephaly
- Micrognathia
- Prominent occiput
- · Rocker bottom feet
- Clenched hand-index over third; fifth over fourth

[ROME]

- Rocker bottom feet
- Overlapping fingers
- Micrognathia
- Ear (low set)



Flat occiput

- Round/flat face
- Epicanthal folds
- · Single palmar crease
- Pronounced "Sandal gap" between big and 1st toe
- Protruding tongue
- Hirschsprung's disease
- Duodenal atresia

<u>D</u>ouble bubble sign → <u>D</u>uodenal atresia → <u>D</u>own's syndrome

Risk factor → Maternal age (at maternal age of 40, the risk is 1:100)





Pediatrics

Neonatal jaundice

- > <24h -> Pathological
 - Neonatal jaundice within the first 24h of life should be taken seriously, it would require urgent
 assessment within 2h according to NICE guidelines
 - Investigations → bilirubin level, LFTs, FBC, blood film, blood group, Coomb's test, G6PD levels and review for sepsis
- > >24h -> Physiological
- >2 weeks -> Pathological

Physiological jaundice	 Results from increased erythrocyte breakdown and immature liver function Presents at 2-3 days old, begin to disappear towards the end of the first week Bilirubin level doesn't usually rise above 200 µmol/L and baby remains well 		
Early neonatal jaundice (onset <24h)	 Hemolytic disease (e.g. RH incompatibility, ABO incompatibility, G6PD deficiency and spherocytosis) Congenital infections such as toxoplasmosis, rubella, CMV, herpes simplex, syphilis or postnatal infections that develop into sepsis Crigler-Najjar \$ or Dubin-Johnson \$ Gilbert's \$ 		
Prolonged jaundice (lasting >14 days in term infants, >21 days in preterm)	 Congenital hypothyroidism → usually defined on routine neonatal biochemical screening (Guthrie test) Hypothyroidism impairs bilirubin conjugation, slows gut motility and impairs feeding leading to hyperbilirubinemia Hypopitruitism Glactosemia Jaundice + vomiting + diarrhea + FTT + hepatomegaly + neurological symptoms No signs of obstructive jaundice ↑ unconjugated bilirubin (doesn't pass in urine) → pale urine + yellow stool Breast milk jaundice Usually the baby is well Most common cause of prolonged unconjugated hyperbilirubinemia Jaundice resolves by six weeks, can continue for up to 4 months → Breastfeeding continues Gastrointistinal Biliary atresia → the most important diagnosis not to miss Neonatal hepatitis 		

Split bilirubin blood test

- ↑ Conjugated bilirubin → obstructive jaundice (biliary atresia)
- ↑ Unconjugated bilirubin → galactosemia, breast milk jaundice, congenital hypothyroidism, hemolysis
- Raised both → hepatitis

The most common pathological causes of neonatal jaundice within 24h are:

- RH incompatibility
- ABO incompatibility
- G6PD deficiency
- Sepsis

GENERAL SURGERY

Breast disorders

Disorder	Features
Fibroadenoma	 < 30 years Often described as 'breast mice' as they are firm, discrete, non-tender, highly mobile lumps
FibroadenoCIS (fibrocystic disease) (Benign mammary dysplasia)	 Middle-aged women Lumpy breasts which may be painful Symptoms may worsen prior to menstruation
Breast cancer	 Hard, irregular lump There may be associated nipple inversion or skin tethering
Paget's disease of the breast	 Chronic eczematous changes (itching – erythema – scales – blood stained nipple discharge – inverted nipple) Usually unilateral Diagnosed by punch biopsy
Duct ectasia	 Dilatation of the large breast ducts Most common around the menopause May present with a tender lump around the areola Green or brown nipple discharge Nipple retraction Associated with smoking
Duct papilloma	 Hyperplastic lesions rather than malignant or premalignant Most common cause of <u>blood-stained nipple discharge</u> There could be skin changes
Breast abscess	 More common in lactating women Unilateral, red, hot tender and fluctuant swelling May present with purulent nipple discharge
Fat necrosis	 More common in <u>obese</u> women May follow trivial or unnoticed <u>trauma</u> <u>Firm & solitary localized lump and usually painless</u> Skin around the lump maybe <u>red, bruised or dimpled</u> Rare and may mimic breast cancer so further investigation is always warranted
Ductal fistula	 Suggested by <u>para-areolar discharge</u> May <u>follow abscess drainage</u> or incision, there may be history of a spontaneous rupture of inflammatory mass preceding the fistula Managed by excision under antibiotic cover Recurrence is common

- Lipomas and sebaceous cysts may also develop around the breast tissue
- FibroadenoCIS → CYStic and CYClical



PID

- Infection and inflammation of the female pelvic organs including the uterus, fallopian tubes, ovaries and the surrounding peritoneum
- Most commonly caused by ascending infection from the Endocervix

Causative organisms

- Chlamydia → Most common
- Neisseria gonorrhea

Risk factors

- Age <25
- **Previous STIs**
- New sexual partner or multiple partners
- IUD
- Post-partum endometritis

Features

- Lower abdominal pain
- Fever
- Deep dyspareunia (painful sexual intercourse)
- Dysuria and menstrual irregularities may occur
- Vaginal or cervical discharge often purulent (NOT offensive)
- Cervical excitation (tenderness)
- Abnormal vaginal bleeding (intermenstrual, postcoital)

Complications

- Infertility
- Chronic pelvic pain
- Ectopic pregnancy
- Pelvic or tubo-ovarian abscesses

Pain may refer to right shoulder)

- Fitz-Hugh-Curtis \$ → usually presents with an acute onset of RUQ pain (aggravated by breathing or coughing.
- Management

Outpatient	Inpatient
IM Ceftriaxone + oral Doxycycline + oral Metronidazole for 14 days OR Ofloxacin + Metronidazole	IV Ceftriaxone + IV Doxy + oral Metro for 14 days OR IV Ofloxacin + IV Metronidazole for 14 days

Cervicitis

- Purely infection of the <u>cervix</u> not involving other pelvic organs
- > It presents with discharge, tender cervix (chandelier sign) and dyspareunia but NO menstrual irregularities or lower abdominal pain

Management

Organism Chlamydia		Neisseria gonorrhea		
Treatment	 Doxy 100mg twice a day for seven days (1st line) Azithromycin 1g s a single dose, followed by 500mg once daily for 2 days If pregnant → Erythromycin 	 Ceftriaxone 1g IM as a single dose Ciprofloxacin 500mg orally as a single dose if the organism is susceptible to ciprofloxacin 		



US is the diagnostic imaging method of choice

Investigation for PID --> Endocervical swab

To investigate complications of PID → US

for acute pelvic pain in gynecology

Neurology

Rule of 4s

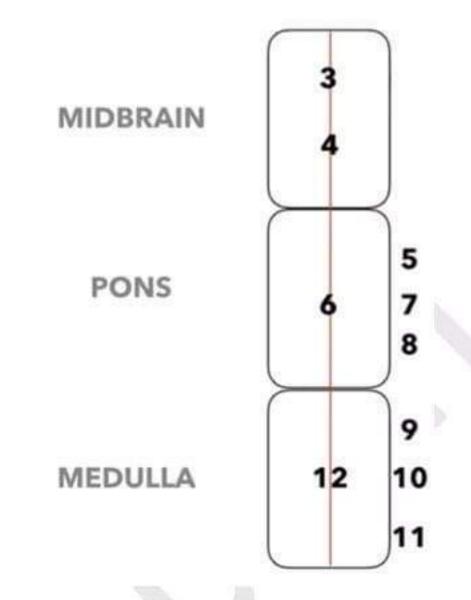
- 4 CNs in:
 - Medulla
 - Pons
 - Above pons
- 4 CNs divide evenly into 12
 - 3,4,6,12
 - Motor nuclei are midline

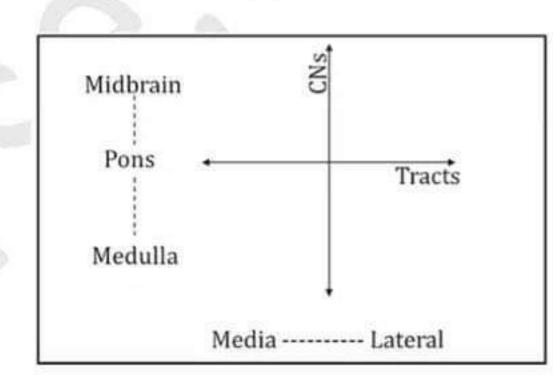
Other CNs don't divide into 12

- 0 5,7,8,9,10,11
- All are lateral
- 4 midline columns
 - Motor pathway (Corticospinal tract)
 - Motor nucleus and nerve
 - Medial longitudinal fasciculus (MLF)
 - Medial lemniscus
- 4 lateral (side) columns
 - Sympathetic pathway/chain
 - Spinothalamic
 - Sensory nucleus of CN5
 - Spinocerebellar pathway

Localizing lesions

- Medial vs. Lateral
 - Which tract is affected?
- Medulla vs. Pons vs. Midbrain
 - Which cranial nerves are affected?





Nerve	Lesion
Olfactory CN1	Not in the midbrain
Optic CN2	Not in the midbrain
Oculomotor CN3	 Eye turned out and down (action of LR6 + SO4) + ptosis + mydriasis
Trochlear CN4	Eye unable to look down when looking towards nose (affected SO)
Trigeminal CN5	Ipsilateral facial sensory loss, afferent of corneal reflex
Abducent CN6	Ipsilateral eye abduction weakness (affected LR)
Facial CN7	Ipsilateral facial weakness/droop, efferent of corneal reflex
Auditory (vestibulocochlear) CN8	Ipsilateral deafness or loss of balance
Glossopharyngeal CN9	Ipsilateral pharyngeal sensory loss + impaired swallowing + loss of gag
Vagus CN10	 Ipsilateral palatal weakness (absent gag reflex) + vocal cord paralysis
Spinal Accessory CN11	Ipsilateral shoulder weakness + affected head movement
Hypoglossal CN12	Ipsilateral weakness of the tongue (towards the same side of the lesion)

Neurology

Bell's palsy

Risk factors

- Pregnancy
- DM

Presentation

- Unilateral facial weakness; facial droop
- Drooling
- Difficulty in eye closure
- Less common <15 years old

Treatment

- Within 72 hours onset → Prednisolone (also in pregnancy)
- If suspecting Ramsay-Hunt syndrome → Acyclovir
- Eye protection with eye patch

Which side of the face is affected by Bells' palsy in the picture?

 The right side (right CN7), he's trying to smile and only his left facial muscles are working

If the patient is able to close his eyes and raise his eyebrow on the affected side > UMNL (Central), not Bell's (see P.32)

Other causes of facial weakness

- Lyme disease
 Travel Hx + Borrelia antibodies and VZ antibodies
- Ramsay-Hunt \$ → Unilateral facial weakness + <u>ear pain</u> + <u>rash</u>
- Brain tumors → MRI



Trigeminal neuralgia

Presentation

- Unilateral, shooting or stabbing electric shock-like facial pain
- Pain exacerbated with -> movement or touch especially in the jaw (2nd and 3rd branch distribution)
- Abrupt in onset and termination

Diagnosis

- Clinical diagnosis
- MRI is routinely done to rule out other pathology (i.e. schwannoma, meningioma)

Treatment

- Medications first then surgery
- Carbamazepine (Tegretol) > lamotrigine / phenytoin / gabapentin
- Surgical → Microvascular decompression

Ophthalmic zone Maxillary zone Mandibular zone

Atypical facial pain

- Chronic dull aching pain, poorly localized but located in the maxilla
- Could be unilateral or bilateral

Herpes zoster ophthalmicus

- Reactivation of varicella zoster virus in the area supplied by the ophthalmic branch of the trigeminal nerve
- Features → vesicular rash around the eye, which may or may not involve the eye itself

Testicular torsion

Features

- Severe sudden onset testicular pain
- Usually affects adolescents and young males (<20 years)
- Possible history of <u>trauma</u>
- Could be <u>recurrent</u> → testis twisting and then spontaneously resolving
- On examination testis is tender and pain <u>not eased by</u> <u>elevation</u>
 - In testicular torsion → lifting the testis up over the symphysis increases pain (-ve Prehn's sign)
 - In epididymitis → usually relieves pain

Other investigations

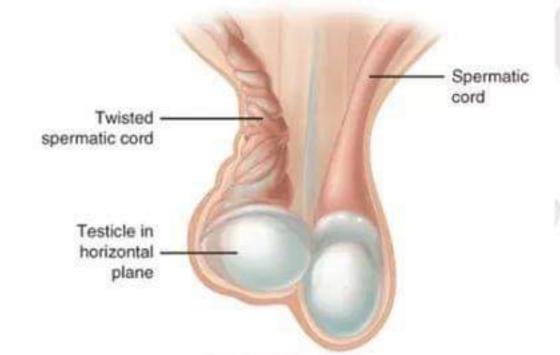
- Color doppler US → reduced arterial blood flow in testicular artery
- Radionuclide scanning → decreased radioisotope uptake
- If the clinical suspension is high, surgical intervention should NOT be delayed for the sake of further investigations

DD

- Mumps orchitis
 - 70% unilateral
 - A week-history of parotitis

Management

> Urgent exploratory surgery (detorsion & orchidopexy) is needed to prevent ischemia of the testicle within 6h



Epididymo-orchitis

- > An infection of the epididymis with or without an infection of the testes resulting in pain and swelling
- Most commonly caused by local spread of infections from the genital tract (e.g. <u>chlamydia</u> & gonorrhea) where there's a retrograde spread from the prostatic urethra and seminal vesicles
- It also could be caused by non-sexually transmitted organism causing UTI (e.g. E. coli)

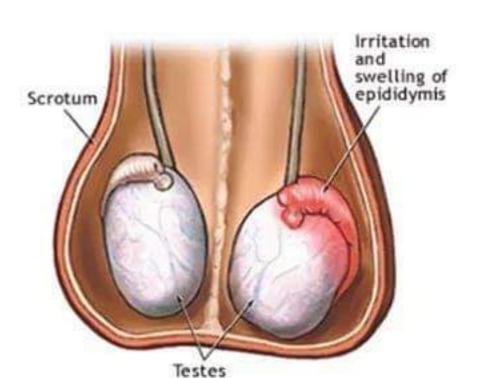
Features

Unilateral scrotal pain and swelling

- Epididymo-orchitis in men VS. Salpingitis in women
- Tenderness is usually <u>localized</u> to epididymis (may help distinguish from testicular torsion)
- Urethral <u>discharge</u> may be present, but urethritis is often asymptomatic
- Leukocytes & nitrates positive (e.g. E. coli)
- Fever and rigors in severe cases
- Tenderness may be relieved by elevating the scrotum → +ve Prehn's sign

Management

Antibiotics





Nephrology

ABGs interpretation

I. Look at pH

We need to ask ourselves, is the pH normal, acidotic or alkalotic?

Acidotic: pH <7.35
 Normal: pH 7.35 – 7.45
 Alkalotic: pH >7.45

II. Look at pCO₂

Looking at the level of CO₂ helps rule in or out the respiratory system as the cause for the imbalance

Is the CO₂ normal or abnormal?

- 2. If abnormal, does this abnormality fit with the current pH (so if the CO₂ is high, it would make sense that the pH was low, suggesting this was more likely a respiratory acidosis)
- 3. If the abnormality in CO_2 doesn't make sense as the cause of the pH (e.g. normal or $\downarrow CO_2$ and $\downarrow pH$), it would suggest that the cause for the abnormality in pH is **metabolic**.
 - Always remember the mnemonic [ROME] (R)espiratory (O)pposite, (M)etabolic (E)qual

	pH	CO ₂	HCO ₃
Respiratory acidosis	1	1	Normal
Respiratory alkalosis	↑	4	Normal
Respiratory acidosis with metabolic compensation	↓/↔	1	1
Respiratory alkalosis with metabolic compensation	^/↔	1	4

III. Look at HCO3

- We now know the pH and whether the problem is metabolic or respiratory in nature from the CO₂ level.
 Piecing this information together with the HCO₃ we can complete the picture.
 - Is the HCO₃- normal or abnormal?
 - If abnormal, does this abnormality fit with the current pH (↓HCO₃ and acidosis)
 - 3. If the abnormality doesn't make sense as the cause for the deranged pH, it suggests the cause is more likely respiratory (which you should have already seen from the CO₂)
 - Don't forget the mnemonic [ROME] (R)espiratory (O)pposite, (M)etabolic (E)qual

	pН	HCO ₃ -	CO ₂
Metabolic acidosis	4	4	Normal
Metabolic alkalosis	1	1	Normal
Metabolic acidosis with respiratory compensation	4	\	4
Metabolic alkalosis with respiratory compensation	1	1	1

