

Acid-Base Disorders

What you need to know is:

- 1. What are the primary Acid-Base disturbances
- 2. How do you approach Acid-Base disturbances
- 3. What you might expect in a patient with Acid-Base disorders

Objectives:

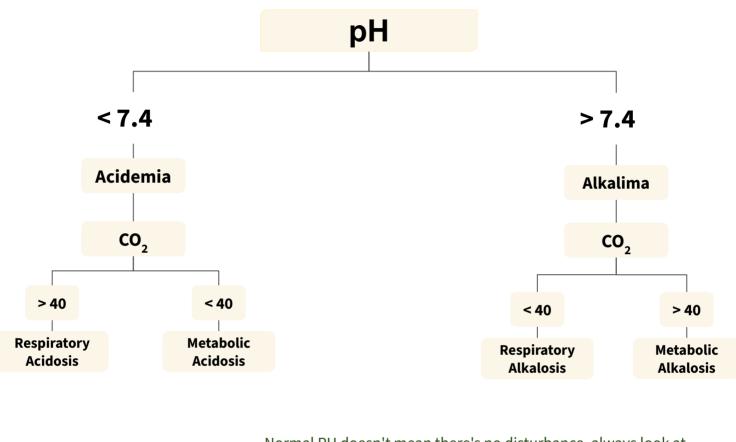
- ★ Develop an approach to acid base problems
- ★ Identify the primary acid base disturbance
- ★ Solve simple acid base cases

Color index

Original text Females slides Males slides Doctor's notes ⁴³⁸ Doctor's notes ⁴⁴² New text in slides ⁴⁴² Text book Important Golden notes Extra

Approach each Acid-Base Questions by determining the primary disturbance

- 1- First we look at the $Ph \rightarrow$ to determine Acidemia OR Alkalemia
- 2- Then we look at $CO_2 \rightarrow$ to determine the cause



Normal PH doesn't mean there's no disturbance, always look at bicarbonate and CO2 \rightarrow mixed disturbance

Respiratory Acidosis

- Most probably caused by Hypoventilation; Causes can be: (Opiate overdose) (Obstructive lung disease) (No muscular strength) (Obstructive sleep apnea)

Respiratory Alkalosis

- Most probably caused by Hyperventilation;

Causes can be: (Pain) (Anxiety) (Hypoxemia) (Basically anything that causes fast respiratory rate)

Metabolic Acidosis

- First look at the anion gap ; (> 12 = Anion Gap Acidosis) / (< 12 = Non Gap Acidosis)

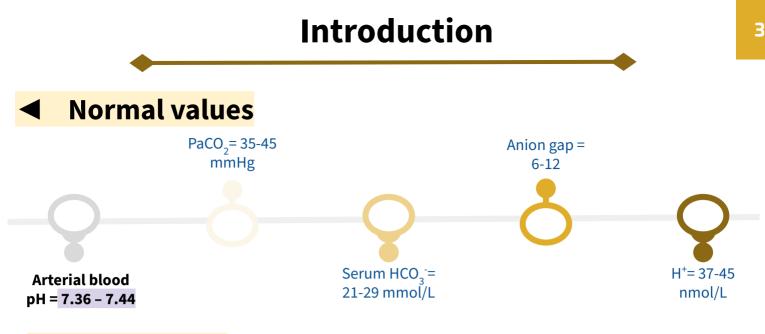
A. Anion gap acidosis causes can be **(MUD PILES)** (M=methanol, U=uremia, D=DKA, P=propylene glycol, I=isopropyl alcohol, L=lactic Acidosis, E=ethylene glycol, S=salicylate) B. Non gap acidosis → **check urine anion gap**, (if pos+ = RENAL TUBULAR ACIDOSIS) (if neg - = Diarrhea)

Metabolic Alkalosis

- First look at the Urine chlorine (to see if volume responsive or not)

Volume responsive \rightarrow Urine chloride will be <10; causes can be (Volume depletion) (Emesis) (Diuretics) NOT volume responsive \rightarrow Check BP; Hypertensive = Hyperaldosterone state / normal BP = Genetic Disease

Credits: Dustyn williams (Online meded)



Basic recall

Definition

Acid-base balance is concerned with maintaining a normal hydrogen ion concentration in the body fluids. This balance is achieved by utilization of buffers in extracellular fluid and intracellular fluid, by respiratory mechanisms that excrete carbon dioxide, and by renal mechanisms that reabsorb bicarbonate and secrete hydrogen ions.

- Blood pH refers to the level of H+ ions and maintained by several buffering systems.
 - A **decrease** in blood pH is called acidaemia and is caused by acidosis.
 - An **increase** in blood pH is called alkalemia and is caused by alkalosis.
- Disturbances of acid-base balance are described as either <u>metabolic</u> or <u>respiratory</u>, depending on whether the primary disturbance is in HCO⁻₂ or CO⁻₂
- pH in the body is tightly regulated for normal physiology and cell function (proteins denature if they are in abnormal pH)
- Assessment of acid base abnormalities: typically done using arterial blood gases (ABG)¹
- Given the ease of obtaining venous blood gases (VBG) and capillary blood gases (CBG) these are often used in **clinical practice**
- The clinical picture is often dominated by the underlying cause rather than the acid–base abnormality itself
- Always check the reference range in your local laboratory.

Primary disturbance:

Primary disorder	Respiratory acidosis	Respiratory alkalosis	Metabolic acidosis	Metabolic alkalosis
Problem	Hypoventilation	Hyperventilation	Gain of H^+ or loss of HCO_3^-	Gain of HCO_3^- or loss of H^{+3}
рН	\downarrow	1	\downarrow	1
HCO ₃ -	1	\downarrow	$\downarrow\downarrow$	↑ ↑
PaCO ₂ ²	↑ ↑	$\downarrow\downarrow$	Ļ	1

1: Mostly in ICU patients. Getting an ABG difficult and painful that's why we do VBG and CBG

3: [H+] can't be calculated in the blood

^{2:} PCO, does not rise above 55 mmHg because hypoxia then intervenes to drive respiration

Introduction

PH equation

- pH= 6.1 + log [HCO3/(0.03xpCO2)]
- HCO3 measured in meq/L
- pCO2 measured in mmHg

H2O equation

• CO2 + H2O ≠ H2CO3 ≠ HCO3 + H

Regulation and Buffer systems¹



Renal



Respiratory²



Bone Buffering³

1: We will focus on Renal and Respiratory mechanisms 2: The fastest mechanism in dealing with acute changes in pH

3: One of the long term consequence of having low pH is thinning of the bone

Respiratory Acidosis

Definition

Increased PaCO, and decreased pH

Mechanism

- Process that primarily causes **elevation** in PaCO2.
- Reduce effective ventilation e.g. many chronic respiratory diseases (COPD) or drugs depressing the respiratory center.
- Alveolar Hypoventilation → Accumulation of CO₂ → Increases in PaCO₂ → Respiratory acidosis → pH decreases.
- HCO₃⁻ will increase (Compensation) but it needs time (12 -24 h) as the kidney need time to compensate

Clinical features

• Signs of acute CO2 retention: headaches, confusion, and papilledema, flapping tremors

Classification

	Acute Respiratory Acidosis	Chronic Respiratory Acidosis
Causes	 Respiratory: airway obstruction, severe pneumonia, chest trauma/pneumothorax Acute drug intoxication: narcotics, sedatives. Residual neuromuscular blockade. CNS disease (head trauma) 	 Chronic lung disease (COPD) Neuromuscular disease ★ Extreme obesity Chest wall deformity Muscular e.g. Duchenne dystrophy
рН	Low	Almost normal due compensatory mechanism.
Compensation	 Immediate renal compensatory↑of HCO3. HCO3 ↑ by 1 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg ↑ in PaCO2. 	HCO3 ↑ by 3-3.5 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg ↑ in PaCO2 (Due to renal adaptation)

> Treatment:

- Verify patency of airways.
- Give supplemental oxygen: If PaO₂ is low (<60 mmHg), Oxygen is contraindicated in COPD patients (CO2 retention) as it can exacerbate symptoms.
- Treat underlying cause.
- Intubation and mechanical ventilation might be required for:
 - Severe acidosis.
 - $PaCO_2 > 60$ or inability to increase PaO_2 .
 - Mental deterioration.
 - Impending respiratory fatigue.

Respiratory Alkalosis

Definition

Decreased PaCO, and increased pH.

Mechanism

- Process that primarily causes reduction in PaCO2
- Increase ventilation e.g.in response to hypoxia or secondary to metabolic acidosis.
- Alveolar hyperventilation \rightarrow increased wash out CO2 \rightarrow decrease in PaCO2 \rightarrow increased pH.
- Compensation: HCO3- will decrease after (12 -24 h).

Etiology

Hyperventilation of any Cause

Overaggressive mechanical ventilation Pain, Sepsis, Pregnancy,

Hepatic failure (cirrhosis)

Medication (salicylate toxicity e.g. aspirin overdose)

Anxiety Panic attack(most
common), Fever (not severe) 2nd most common.

Hypoxemia, Restrictive lung disease

Pulmonary embolism, asthma, pneumonia.

Clinical Features:

lightheadedness, dizziness, anxiety, paresthesia, and perioral numbness

Tetany, Arrhythmias, Trousseau's sign¹ and Chvostek's sign¹ may be positive

Classification

Acute Respiratory Alkalosis	Chronic Respiratory Alkalosis
HCO ³⁻ \downarrow by 2 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg \downarrow in PaCO ₂	HCO^{3-} ↓ by 4-5 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg ↓ in PaCO ₂ .

1: alkalosis promotes the binding of calcium to albumin, resulting in a reduction in ionised calcium concentrations

Respiratory Alkalosis (cont.)

Treatment Sometimes: does not need to be treated (e.g., in the case of pregnancy). 1 Treat underlying cause. 3 Breathe into paper bag to recycle the exhaled CO2 (especially who have anxiety).

Metabolic Acidosis¹

Definition

Loss of [HCO3] or addition of [H+] and decreased pH.

Mechanism

- Process that primarily reduced bicarbonate
- Excessive H+ formation e.g. lactic acidosis, ketoacidosis.
- Reduce H+ excretion e.g. renal failure.
- Excessive HCO3- loss e.g. diarrhea.
- Compensation: Hyperventilation \rightarrow decrease PCO2 immediately.
- If the kidneys are intact and the primary cause of acidosis is not renal in origin, the kidney can gradually increase acid secretion over days to weeks and restore a new steady state

l The Anion gap²: 🖸

- The difference between primary measured cations (Na+ and K+) and the primary measured anions (Cl- and HCO3-) in serum:
 - $\circ \qquad \text{Anion gap = cations anions} \rightarrow \text{AG= [Na+] ([Cl-] + [HCO3-])}$
 - Normal range is about 5-12 mmol/L
- It is helpful in determining the cause of a **metabolic acidosis**

1- Metabolic problems always shows compensation

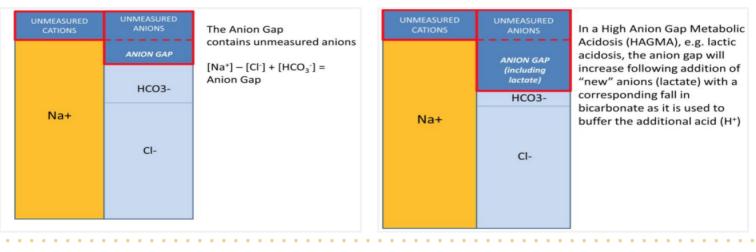
²⁻This gap is normally made up of anions, such as phosphate and sulphate, as well as albumin.

Classification & Etiology:

1-High Anion gap acidosis

• Causes of High Anion Gap Metabolic Acidosis (MUD PILES):

Increased Endogenous production of anions distinct from Cl ⁻ & HCO ₃ ⁻				
Lactic acidosis Plasma lactate > 2 mmol/L	Type I: Tissue hypoxia & peripheral generation of lactate (circulatory failure & shock (septic , cardiogenic, hypovolemic)) Type II: Impaired metabolism of lactate (liver disease, metformin ¹)			
Diabetic Ketoacidosis ²	 ★ DKA: caused by insulin deficiency & exacerbated by catecholamine & stress hormone excess → lipolysis → formation of acidic ketones (acetoacetate, 3-hydroxybutyrate, acetone) Other causes of ketoacidosis: Starvation ketoacidosis: ↓ food intake in situations of high glucose demand e.g. neonates, pregnant & breastfeeding women Alcoholic ketoacidosis: chronic malnutrition & recent alcohol binge 			
Uremia	Renal failure $\rightarrow \downarrow NH_4^+ \& H^+$ excretion, decreased excretion of organic anions, sulfates, and phosphates.			
Impaired hepat		ic clearance of lactate		
Increased Exogenous Intake				
Ethanol/Ethylene glycol	poisoning	Accumulation of glycolate, calcium oxalate crystals		
Methanol poisoning		Manifested as visual complaints		
Propylene glycol (not paraldehyde)		is metabolized to lactic acid (lactate) and has the potential to cause a high anion gap metabolic acidosis		
Aspirin poisonin	lg ³	Accumulation of Salicylates		



1: Inhibit lactate metabolism

2: Treat with insulin

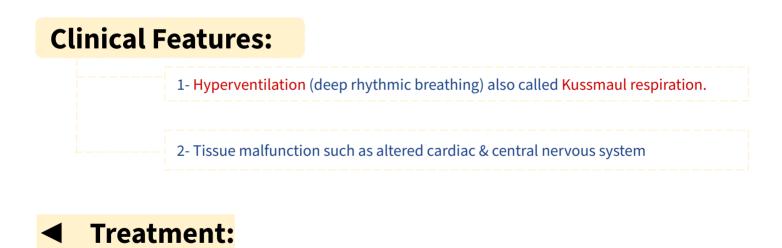
3: salicylate overdose may cause both primary metabolic acidosis and primary respiratory alkalosis. Treat by removal of salicylate by dialysis

Classification & Etiology¹:

2-Normal Anion Gap Acidosis

• HCO₃⁻ decreases and is replaced by Cl⁻ to maintain electroneutrality. Consequently, these disorders are sometimes referred to collectively as **hyperchloremic acidosis**.

↑ GI HCO ₃ ⁻ loss	Diarrhea ² , small bowel fistula, pancreatic fistula, urinary diversion procedure , ileostomy, ureterosigmoidostomy		
↑ Renal HCO ₃ - loss	 Type II (proximal) RTA³ hyperparathyroidism tubular damage e.g. drugs, heavy metals, paraproteins Treatment with carbonic anhydrase inhibitors: Acetazolamide therapy 		
\downarrow Renal H ⁺ excretion	 Type I (classical distal) RTA, Type IV RTA (aldosterone deficiency⁴) CKD 		
\uparrow HCl production	 Ammonium chloride ingestion, ↑ catabolism of lysine, arginine Excessive administration of 0.9% saline 		



Identify & correct the underlying cause

IV bicarbonate⁵ is best reserved for severe acidosis or evidence of tissue dysfunction Mechanical ventilation might be needed if the patient is fatigued (esp. in DKA)

1- Just in case if you read it somewhere **Urinary anion gap** is used to determine what is the source of non anion gap acidosis Is it from the kidney or GI problems (you don't need to know about it)

2- Most common cause of normal AG metabolic acidosis

3- further discussed in **the next page.**

4- hypoaldosterone status could be due to: Addison's disease, spironolactone, amiloride, triamterene.

5- needed especially in normal AG metabolic acidosis

Renal tubular acidosis (RTA):

- Renal tubular acidosis (RTA) is a metabolic acidosis with a normal anion gap.
- RTA should be suspected when there is a hyperchloraemic acidosis with a normal anion gap in the absence of gastrointestinal disturbance.
- Plasma $HCO_3^- < 21 \text{ mmol/L}$, urine pH > 5.3 = RTA
- Confirmed by acid load test

Type I (classical distal) RTA¹

- The distal tubule is responsible for generating new bicarbonate under the influence of aldosterone.
- Drugs such as amphotericin and autoimmune diseases such as SLE or Sjögren syndrome can damage the distal tubule. If new bicarbonate cannot be generated at the distal tubule, then acid cannot be excreted into the tubule, raising the pH of the urine.
- Impaired acid secretion in late distal tubule of cortical collecting duct intercalated cells
- Consists of: acidosis, hypokalemia, Inability to lower the urine pH below 5.3 despite systemic acidosis, Low urinary ammonium production, Low urinary citrate (owing to increased citrate absorption in the proximal tubule where it can be converted to bicarbonate), Hypercalciuria.
- topiramate causes distal RTA.
- **Teats:** The best initial test is a UA looking for an abnormally high pH above 5.5. The most accurate test is to infuse acid into the blood with ammonium chloride. A healthy person will be able to excrete the acid and will decrease the urine pH. Those with distal RTA cannot excrete the acid and the urine pH will remain basic (over 5.5) despite an increasingly acidic serum.
- **Treatment:** sodium bicarbonate, potassium supplements and citrate. Thiazide diuretics are useful by causing volume contraction and increased proximal sodium bicarbonate reabsorption.

Type II (proximal) RTA^{2,3}

- Impaired HCO3 reabsorption in proximal tubule
- The cardinal features are acidosis, hypokalaemia, an inability to lower the urine pH below 5.5 despite systemic acidosis, and the appearance of bicarbonate in the urine despite a subnormal plasma bicarbonate.
- In proximal RTA, tenofovir kills tubule
- Treatment: sodium bicarbonate: massive doses may be required to overcome the renal 'leak'.

Type IV RTA

- Also called 'hyporeninaemic hypoaldosteronism⁴'
- type IV RTA occurs most often in diabetes.
- impaired sodium reabsorption in the late distal tubule or cortical collecting duct, which is associated with reduced secretion of both K⁺ and H⁺ ions
- The cardinal features are hyperkalaemia and acidosis occurring in a patient with mild chronic kidney disease
- **Test:** by finding a persistently high urine sodium despite a sodium-depleted diet. In addition, hyperkalemia is a main clue to answering "What is the most likely diagnosis?"
- **Treatment:** fludrocortisone, sodium bicarbonate, diuretics, or ion exchange resins to remove potassium, or a combination of these.

1- Distal RTA calcifies the kidney parenchyma (nephrocalcinosis)

2- There is Type III: combination of type 2 and 1 but is extremely rare

3-Both proximal and distal RTA are hypokalemic. Potassium is lost in the urine

4- There is a decreased amount or effect of aldosterone at the kidney tubule.

Definition^{1,2}:

Addition of [HCO3] or loss of [H+] and increase pH

Mechanism:

- Process that primarily raises bicarbonate.
- Extracellular fluid volume loss e.g. due to vomiting or diuretics.
- Excessive potassium loss with subsequent hyperaldosteronism.
- Initiating metabolic alkalosis by either:
 - Gaining of HCO3-.
 - Loss of acid (H+) ex: from vomiting.
- Maintaining Metabolic alkalosis due to the kidney inability to excrete the excess HCO3
- Compensation: Hypoventilation → increased PCO2 (respiratory Acidosis) immediately (PaCO2 ↑ by 0.6 mmHg for every 1 mEq/l ↑ in HCO3).

Clinical Features:

Tetany, apathy, confusion, drowsiness, cardiac arrhythmias & neuromuscular irritability are common when alkalosis is severe

Classification & causes³:

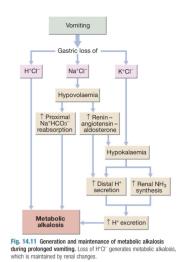
	Hypovolemic (Saline sensitive, urine Cl ⁻ <10 mEq/L)	Normovolemic (Saline resistant, urine Cl ⁻ >20 mEq/L)
Definition	Metabolic alkalosis with ECF contraction (due to \rightarrow fluid loss).	Metabolic alkalosis with ECF volume expansion (no fluid loss)
Causes	 Gastric loss of H+ (sustained vomiting) Diuretic use: loop or thiazide. Volume depletion Post-hypercapnia Villous adenoma of colon, diarrhea with high chloride content 	 Hypertensive: Primary Hyperaldosteronism Cushing Syndrome Glucocorticoid therapy Hypo/normo tensive: Bicarbonate ingestion: massive or with kidney disease Bartter's syndrome & Gitelman's syndrome, Severe hypokalemia
Treatment	intravenous infusions of 0.9% saline with potassium supplements	management of the underlying cause

1- You cannot determine the etiology of metabolic alkalosis from the ABG.

- 2- The ABG in metabolic alkalosis will always have:
 - Increased pH >7.40
 - Increased pCO2 indicating respiratory acidosis as compensation

- Increased bicarbonate

3- Hypokalemia is one of the causes : H+ will move into the cytoplasm of the cells in order to get the K+ to compensate for Hyperkalemia



Steps in Acid-Base Analysis

Step 1

History & physical examination

look for clues that may lead to the abnormalities in pH

- Vomiting: causes loss of acid and gastric contents, which suggests development of alkalosis
- Diarrhea
- Hypoventilation
- Respiratory disease
- Medications (laxatives, diuretics, etc)
- Diabetes

Step 2

Look at the pH

Determine if it is

- Normal 7.35 7.45 (No abnormality **or** presence of mixed acidosis and alkalosis)
- Low <7.35 (acidemic)
- High >7.45 (alkalemic)

Step 3<u>a</u> Determine the primary abnormality that is causing the abnormal pH

- If the **pH** is acidemic (<7.35), then look for Low HCO₃ (Metabolic) or High PCO₂ (Respiratory)
- If the **pH** is alkalemic (>7.45), then look for **High** HCO₂ (**Metabolic**) or **Low** PCO₂ (**Respiratory**)

Note: Compensation will not return the pH to the normal range, it's just a mechanism which the body trying to reduce the impact.

Step 3b

If pH is normal, that doesn't rule out mixed acidosis and alkalosis (Determine what is being mixed¹)

- Look for high or low PCO2= Low PCO2 suggests respiratory alkalosis/High PCO2 suggests respiratory acidosis
- Look for high or low HCO3= Low HCO3 suggests metabolic acidosis/High HCO3 suggests metabolic alkalosis
- How to determine Is the <u>respiratory</u> disturbance acute or chronic?
 - Acute respiratory acidosis: HCO3 increase by 1 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg increase in PaCO2.
 - **Chronic respiratory acidosis**: HCO3 **increase** by 3-3.5 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg **increase** in PaCO2.
 - Acute respiratory alkalosis: HCO3 decrease by 2 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg decrease in PaCO2.
 - **Chronic respiratory alkalosis**: HCO3 **decrease** by 4-5 mEq/l for every 10 mmHg **decrease** in PaCO2.

1: Sometimes you may have mixed diseases (Metabolic Alkalosis AND Respiratory Acidosis)

2: there are 3 Clinical Scenarios that Produce a Mixed Disorder with Near Normal pH (e.g. increased AG metabolic acidosis + respiratory alkalosis) • Cirrhosis • ASA overdose • Sepsis

Steps in Acid-Base Analysis

Step 4

t check for compensation¹

Compensation is the mechanism by which the body adapts to either acidosis or alkalosis, <mark>it will not fully correct the abnormality</mark>

example:

- A patient has diabetic ketoacidosis, pH is 7.29, HCO3 is 15 (hence, it is metabolic acidosis)
- Use the metabolic acidosis formula: Expected PCO2 by using Winter's formula PCO2 = 1.5 x HCO3
 + 8 (±2¹) = 1.5 x 15 + 8 = 30.5
- So: you expect the PCO2 in this patient to be in the range of 28.5–32.5⁴
 - Now, determine whether there is a compensation or an additional disorder:
 - If the PCO2 in this patient is **higher than 32.5** \rightarrow consider additional³ respiratory acidosis
 - If the PCO2 in the patient is **lower than 28.5 \rightarrow consider additional respiratory alkalosis**

Primary disorder		Expected compensation
Metabolic	 PaCO₂ = 1.5 x HCO₃ + 8 ± 2 ↓PaCO₃ = 1.2 x △HCO₃ Skip PaCO₂~ last two digits of pH Skip 	
Metabolic	alkalosis	• ↑PaCO ₂ = 0.7 x ∆HCO ₃
	Acute <48 hours	• $\uparrow HCO_3 = 0.1 \times \triangle PaCO_2$
Respiratory acidosis	Chronic (COPD)	 ↑HCO₂= 0.35 x △PaCO₂ ↓pH = 0.003 x △PaCO₂ Skip
	Acute (panic attack)	• \downarrow HCO ₃ = 0.2 x \triangle PaCO ₂
Respiratory alkalosis	Chronic (living in high mountain)	• \downarrow HCO ₃ = 0.4 x \triangle PaCO ₂

Step 5

Calculate the anion gap

anion gap (AG): AG = Na - (Cl + HCO3)

- Normal anion gap = 6-12⁵
- Albumin is the main unmeasured anion. To overcome the effects of hypoalbuminemia on the AG, the corrected AG can be used which is **AG** + (0.25 X (40-albumin)) expressed in g/L.
- If there is a reduction of albumin the bicarb and Cl⁻ will increase
- An increase in anion gap that means there's additional acids like lactic acid and keto acid.
- Get back to pages to check for high AG metabolic acidosis vs normal AG metabolic acidosis

1: we have Compensatory mechanism to keep the pH from lifting too high changing in the PH will cause enzyme unfold and abnormal changing in the proteins shape 2: gives you a range

3: Please make sure that you differentiate between additional and compensated.

-If the PCO₂ of this patient was 35, then the patient's acid-base status will be : Metabolic Acidosis AND Respiratory Acidosis.

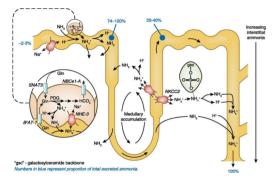
-If the PCO₂ of this patient was 30, then the patient's acid-base status will be : Metabolic Acidosis Compensated by Respiratory Alkalosis. Someone With Metabolic Acidosis what happen? He will breathe fast but this will not bring the PH to normal range but the PCO2 will get down so it's not fully corrected and if the pH is normal that mean there is additional abnormality 5: The normal range is up to 14. It is Especially important in Metabolic Acidosis, crucial for the differential diagnosis.

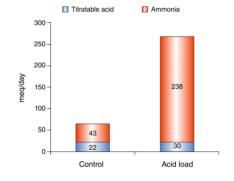
^{4:} Memorize one compensation equation for each acid base abnormality. Example:

Urine Anion Gap

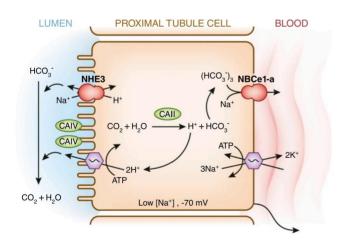
- HCO3 is either resorbed (prox) or regenerated (distal)
- To regenerate HCO3 NH4 is formed distally
- In an acidic urine Na+K+NH4 = Cl
- NH4 can not be measured therefore
 - Cl > Na+K if NH4 is present □ Normal DISTAL FX
 - If Cl < or = Na+K then distal urinary acidification is impaired (UAG abnormal)
- Urine Anion Gap the urine anion gap is useful in distinguishing disorders with normal ammonium excretion from those with abnormal excretion
- Normal UAG Proximal RTA or non renal acidosis (diarrhea etc.) (Cl > Na + K)
- Abnormal UAG CKD (lack of NH4 production), distal RTA Type I and IV or aldosterone deficiency) (Cl ≤ Na + K)

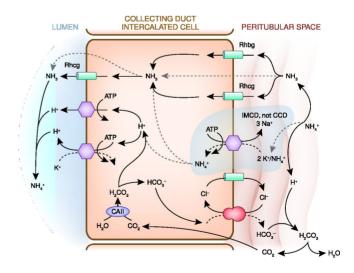
Ammonium Secretion





Kidney regulation





NH4 response to acid load

1-Ammonium secretion occurs within the renal tubules, primarily in the distal tubules and collecting ducts. In response to acidosis.
Ammonium will bind to H+ to form Ammonia (NH3) This reaction help to neutralize excess acidity and raise the pH. The ammonia formed can then be excreted
2-The kidney responds to an <u>acid load</u> by increasing tubular production and urinary excretion of NH4+
High Acid load = High Ammonia

Hyperchloremic Metabolic Acidosis

Not important

Normal Urine NH4 (Cl > Na + K)

- This is due to HCO3 loss with normal distal tubular function
- GI loss of HCO3 due to diarrhea, urinary diversion or pancreatic fistulae
- Renal proximal RTA (type 2) leads to renal HCO3 loss with normal distal regeneration.
- May be associated with other proximal defects (Fanconi's), hypergammaglobulinemia, drugs (toluene, toperimate, zonisamide, tenofovir, azetazolamide) or multiple myeloma

Abnormal Urine NH4

 Classic Distal - a defect in the proton pump leads to a U pH >5.5 and acidosis (Type 1) (ampho B, HyperPTH, Sjogren's, medullary sponge kidney Hyperkalemic Distal - a defect in the aldo sensitive collecting duct leads to acidosis and hyperkalemia with preserved renal acidification (Type 4) (obstruction, aldo resistance) NH3 Defect - CKD leads to abnormal NH3 production with preserved urinary acidification (GFR < 30)

Non Anion Gap Acidosis

Dr: i did not write Q on this the past years but it may come this year who knows??

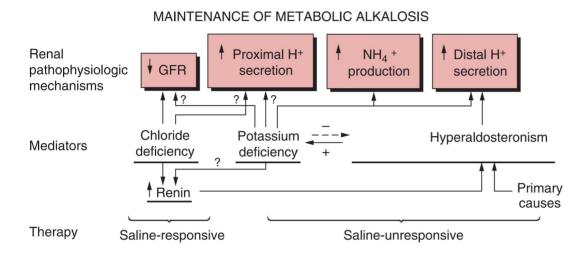
Defect	U pH	UAG	k (serum)	GFR
Proximal RTA (II)	<5	NI	Low	NI
Distal RTA (I)	> 5	Low	Low	NI
Distal RTA (IV)	<5	Low	High	NI to low
CKD	<5	Low	NI to Hgh	<30

Cl responsiveness

Not important

- When NaCl and KCl are given they restore volume and replete K and Cl shutting off aldosterone production
- This plus the correction of the prerenal state allow the kidneys to excrete excess HCO3
- Treatment administration of NaCl and KCl

Maintenance of Metabolic Alk



Cl responsive

Diuretic alkalosis - U Cl < 20 after diuretics are stopped
Chloridarrhea - congenital or villous adenoma
Posthypercapnic - usually with chronic respiratory acidosis
Gastric alkalosis - hypokalemia due to renal K wasting
Milk Alkali – hypercalcemia, AKI, and alkalosis Cystic Fibrosis – skin Cl loss

Cl unresponsive

•	This group of disorders is all have elevated aldosterone or defects in kidney
•	However, this is not volume (NaCl) responsive but rather volume independent
•	Administration of NaCl will not inhibit aldo nor will it correct the prerenal state
•	Treatment - diamox, HCl, spironolactone

Delta ratio

just for your knowledge (Extra)

- Delta ratio = (change in anion gap) / (change in bicarbonate)
- (The normal anion gap is assumed to be 12, and the normal HCO3 is assumed to be 24.)
- Interpretation of the generated ratio:
- 0.4 = normal anion gap metabolic acidosis
- 0.4-0.8 = mixed high and normal anion gap acidosis exists.
- 0.8-1.0 = purely due to a high anion gap metabolic acidosis
- 1.0-2.0 = still purely a high anion gap metabolic acidosis
- Over 2.0 = high anion gap acidosis with pre-existing metabolic alkalosis

Cases (Doctor's Slides)

Case study 1 :

- 40 yo gentleman presenting to ER with coma labs : pH 7.14/ pCO2 15; Na 138/ K 6.4/ Cl 100/ HCO3 5; BS 6/ Urea 7/ S- OSM 340/ ETOH 0/ALB 40
- * Funduscopic showed optic neuritis
- * How do you approach the differential of this acid base disorder?

Acidosis or alkalosis?
 ACIDOSIS
 Metabolic or respiratory?
 METABOLIC
 Compensation appropriate?
 YES
 Anion gap?
 HIGH (138 - 105 =23)
 Δ gap = Δ HCO3 - YES
 Osmolar gap?
 YES (340 - 289 = 51)

Corrected anion gap = 2.5 X (4-albumin)

Cases (Doctor's Slides)

Case study 2:

- An elderly man present with tachypnea, diarrhea and weakness labs pH 7.24/ pCO2 24; Na 140/ K 6.7/ Cl 120 / HCO3 10; urine pH 5.0/ U Na 40/ U K 20/ U Cl 50
- How do you approach the differential of this acid base disorder?

 Acidosis or alkalosis?
 ACIDOSIS
 Metabolic or respiratory? METABOLIC
 Compensation appropriate? YES
 Anion gap? NORMAL (10)
 Δ gap = Δ HCO3 - YES
 Osmolar gap? NONE

Case study 3:

- A normotensive body builder presents with weakness
- Labs : pH 7.54/ pCO2 45; Na 140/ K 2.8/ Cl 95/ HCO3 38;
- U Cl 50 U Na 70
- Repeat U Cl < 20</p>
- How do you approach the differential of this acid base disorder?

1. Acidosis or a	lkalosis - ALKALOSIS	
2. Metabolic or	respiratory - METABOLIC	
3. Compensati	on appropriate – YES	
4. Anion gap –	NORMAL (7)	
5. Δ gap = Δ H	CO3 – YES	
6. Osmolar gap		

Case study 4:

 A 75-year-old man is admitted with septic shock. Shortly after admission, blood tests reveal the following:

	Case	Normal range
рН	7.18	7.35-7.45
PO ₂	150 mmHg	82-105 mmHg
PaCO ₂	16 mmHg	35-45 mmHg
HCO ₃	7 mmol/L	22-26 mmol/L
Na ⁺	138 mmol/L	136-145 mmol/L
K+	3.9 mmol/L	3.5-5 mmol/L
Cl	95 mmol/L	
Urea	8.2 mmol/L	2.5-7.8 mmol/L
Creatinine	102 µmol/L	40-110 umol/L

Identify the acid-base disturbance.

• Metabolic acidosis

• Check whether the patient has compensation/additional disturbance.

 \circ Choose the formula

 $PaCO_{2} = 1.5 \times HCO_{3} + 8 \pm 2$

\circ Substitute the values

 $PaCO_{2} = 1.5 \times 7 + 8 \pm 2$

 $PaCO_{2} = 18.5 \pm 2$

 $PaCO_{2} = (16.5 - 20.5)$

• Interpret the result

The patient's value is 16 Which almost falls within the range, that means that the metabolic acidosis is being compensated properly with respiratory alkalosis.

• Calculate the anion gap

AG = Na - (Cl +HCO3)

0

AG = 138 - (95+7) = 36 (high)

• Indicate what is causing the acid base disturbance?

Lactic acidosis (associated with shock) shock > shifting to anaerobic metabolism > high lactate > low PH (metabolic acidosis)

Case study 5:

A 68-year-old woman is being treated for congestive heart failure in the coronary care unit.
 After several days of treatment, the following results are returned:

	Case	Normal range
рН	7.49	7.35-7.45
PO ₂	86 mmHg	82-105 mmHg
PaCO ₂	48.5 mmHg	35-45 mmHg
HCO ₃	39 mmol/L	22-26 mmol/L
Na⁺	142 mmol/L	136-145 mmol/L
K+	3 mmol/L	3.5-5 mmol/L
Cl ⁻	85 mmol/L	
Urea	9.3 mmol/L	2.5-7.8 mmol/L
Creatinine	84 µmol/L	40-110 umol/L

Identify the acid-base disturbance. **Metabolic alkalosis** Check whether the patient has compensation/additional disturbance. **Choose the formula** 0 \uparrow PaCO₂= 0.7 x Δ HCO₂ Substitute the values¹ 0 ↑PaCO₂= 0.7 x (39-24) ↑PaCO₂= 10.5 Add to the normal range 0 ↑PaCO₂= <u>40 + 10.5</u> = 50.5 ± 2 ↑PaCO₂= (48.5-52.5) 0 Interpret the result the metabolic alkalosis is compensated properly by respiratory acidosis. Indicate what is causing the acid base disturbance? use of **Diuretics** (diuretics decrease blood volume so as a response to that, the kidneys increase reabsorption of sodium bicarbonate)

Case study 6:

A 70-year-old man with chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) is admitted with increasing confusion. Shortly after admission, blood tests reveal the following:

	Case	Normal range
рН	7.21	7.35-7.45
PO ₂	61.5 mmHg	82-105 mmHg
PaCO ₂	83 mmHg	35-45 mmHg
HCO ₃	34 mmol/L	22-26 mmol/L
Na ⁺	140 mmol/L	136-145 mmol/L
K+	4.7 mmol/L	3.5-5 mmol/L
Cl	94 mmol/L	
Urea	8.2 mmol/L	2.5-7.8 mmol/L
Creatinine	66 µmol/L	40-110 umol/L

		-
•	Identify the acid-base disturbance.	
	Respiratory acidosis (+ metabolic acidosis)	
•	Check whether the patient has compensation/additional disturbance.	
i i	• Choose the formula	
1.00	Ask yourself, is it Acute or chronic? COPD = Chronic	
1	$\uparrow HCO_3 = 0.35 \times \Delta PaCO_2$	
1	 Substitute the values 	
1	↑HCO ₃ = 0.35 x (83-40)	
1.1	↑HCO ₃ =15	
1.00	 <u>Add</u> to the normal range 	
1	↑HCO ₃ = <u>24 + 15</u> = 39 ± 2	
4	↑HCO ₃ = (37-41)	
1	 Interpret the result 	
1.00	there is an <u>additional metabolic acidosis on top of the respiratory acidosis^{1,2}</u>	
•	Calculate the anion gap	
1 - C	$AG = Na - (Cl + HCO_3)$	
1 - C	AG = 140 - (94+34) = 12 (normal)	
•	Indicate what is causing the acid base disturbance?	
	CO2 retention caused by COPD (CO2 accumulation may itself lead to drowsiness That	
	further depresses respiratory drive)	
		-

1: because there is loss of bicarb, is less than what is expected $% \left({{{\mathbf{x}}_{i}}} \right)$

2: When the clinically obtained acid-base parameters do not accord with the predicted compensation shown, a mixed acid-base disturbance should be suspected. For example, a respiratory acidosis due to narcotic overdose with metabolic alkalosis due to vomiting.

Case study 7:

A 40-year-old man developed profuse diarrhea following antibiotic treatment of a chest infection. He is thirsty, and light headed. Shortly after admission, blood tests reveal the following:

	Case	Normal range
рН	7.25	7.35-7.45
PO ₂	101 mmHg	82-105 mmHg
PaCO ₂	31.5 mmHg	35-45 mmHg
HCO ₃	17 mmol/L	22-26 mmol/L
Na⁺	134 mmol/L	136-145 mmol/L
K ⁺	3.4 mmol/L	3.5-5 mmol/L
Cl ⁻	104 mmol/L	
Urea	9.3 mmol/L	2.5-7.8 mmol/L
Creatinine	102 µmol/L	40-110 umol/L

j	•	Identify the acid-base disturbance. Metabolic acidosis
		Check whether the patient has compensation/additional disturbance.
		• Choose the formula
		$PaCO_{2} = 1.5 \times HCO_{3} + 8 \pm 2$
		 Substitute the values
		$PaCO_{2} = 1.5 \times 17 + 8 \pm 2$
		$PaCO_{2} = 33.5 \pm 2$
		PaCO ₂ = (31.5-35.5)
		 Interpret the result
		the metabolic acidosis is compensated properly by respiratory alkalosis.
	•	Calculate the anion gap
		AG = Na - (Cl +HCO3)
		AG = 134 - (104+17) = 13 (normal)

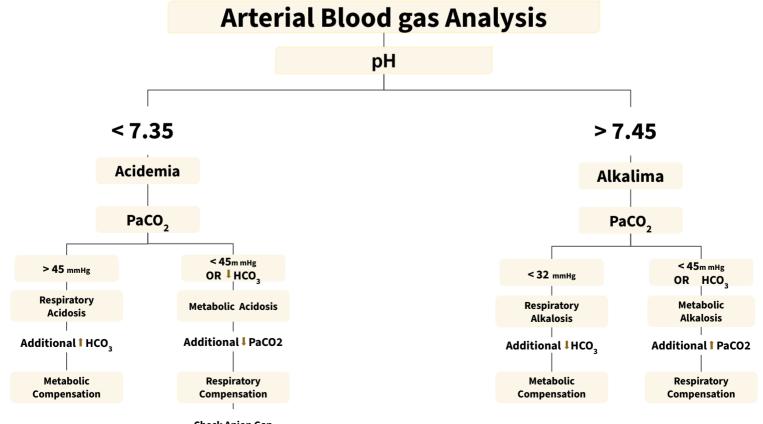
Indicate what is causing the acid base disturbance?

diarrhea

Causes of Respiratory Acidosis and Alkalosis

Respiratory alkalosis	Respiratory acidosis
Decreased pCO ₂	Increased pCO ₂
Increased minute ventilation	Decreased minute ventilation
Metabolic acidosis as compensation	Metabolic alkalosis as compensation
 Anemia Anxiety Pain Fever Interstitial lung disease Pulmonary emboli 	 COPD/emphysema Drowning Opiate overdose Alpha 1-antitrypsin deficiency Kyphoscoliosis Sleep apnea/morbid obesity

Causes of Metabolic Acidosis with an Increased Anion Gap			
	Cause	Test	Treatment
Lactate	Hypotension or hypoperfusion	Blood lactate level	Correct hypoperfusion
Ketoacids	DKA, starvation	Acetone level	Insulin and fluids
Oxalic acid	Ethylene glycol overdose	Crystals on UA	Fomepizole, dialysis
Formic acid	Methanol overdose	Inflamed retina	Fomepizole, dialysis
Uremia	Renal failure	BUN, creatinine	dialysis
Salicylates	Aspirin overdose	Aspirin level	Alkalinize urine



Check Anion Gap Na - (Cl + HCO₃)

Summary

	Arterial: 7.35-7.45 Normal pH	Venous: 7.31-7.41
Metabolic Acidosis	Process that primarily reduces bicarbonate	 Excessive H⁺ formation: e.g. lactic acidosis, ketoacidosis Reduced H⁺ excretion: e.g. renal failure Excessive HCO₃⁻ loss: e.g. diarrhea
Metabolic Alkalosis	Process that primarily raises bicarbonate	 Extracellular fluid volume loss: e.g. vomiting or diuretics Excessive potassium loss with subsequent hyperaldosteronism
Respiratory Acidosis	Process that primarily causes elevation of PaCO₂ (Hypoventilation)	Reduced effective ventilation: e.g. many chronic respiratory diseases or drugs depressing the respiratory system
Respiratory Alkalosis	Process that primarily causes reduction in PaCO₂ (Hyperventilation)	Increased ventilation: e.g. in response to hypoxia or secondary to a metabolic acidosis

Approaching Acid-base Abnormalities		
Step 1 : History and Physical Examination	Vomiting • Diarrhea • Hypoventilation • Respiratory disease • Medications (laxatives, diuretics, etc) • Diabetes	
Step 2 : Look at the pH	- Normal 7.35 – 7.45 (No abnormality or mixed acidosis and alkalosis) - Low <7.35 (acidemic) - High >7.45 (alkalemic)	
Step 3: a. Determine the primary abnormality that is causing the abnormal pH	 If the pH is acidemic, look for: Low HCO₃⁻ (Metabolic) or High PCO₂ (Respiratory) If the pH is alkalemic, look for High HCO₃⁻ Metabolic) or Low PCO₂ (Respiratory) 	
b. if pH is normal	- Rule out mixed acidosis and alkalosis - Look for high or low PCO ₂ and for high or low HCO ₃ ⁻	
Step 4: Check for compensation (imp)	Metabolic Acidosis: $PaCO_{2}=1.5 \times HCO_{3}+8$ (±2) $Or \downarrow PaCO_{2}=1.2 \times \Delta HCO_{3}$ Metabolic Alkalosis: $\uparrow PaCO_{2}=0.7 \times \Delta HCO_{3}$ Acute Respiratory Acidosis: $\uparrow HCO_{3}=0.1 \times \Delta PaCO_{2}$ Chronic Respiratory Acidosis: $\uparrow HCO_{3}=0.35 \times \Delta PaCO_{2}$ Acute Respiratory Alkalosis: $\downarrow HCO_{3}=0.2 \times \Delta PaCO_{2}$ Chronic Respiratory Alkalosis: $\downarrow HCO_{3}=0.4 \times \Delta PaCO_{2}$	
Step 5: Calculate the anion gap (AG)	AG= Na - (Cl + HCO ₃)	

Lecture Quiz

Q1: A 70 year old woman is brought to the emergency department by her daughter because of a 2 day history of non-bloody diarrhea. The patient has had 8-10 bowel movement daily and has not vomited. She has a history of Hypertension, coronary artery disease, hyperlipidemia, and type 2 DM. Current medication include furosemide, hydrochlorothiazide, linsopril, atrovistatin, metoprolol, metformin, and dapagliflozin. She appears ill and sleepy. She is 157 cm tall and weight 109 kg ; BMI is 44 kg/m2. Her temperature is 37.9oC, pulse is 115/min, respiration are 26/min, and blood pressure is 110/60 mmHg. Pulse oximetry shows an oxygen saturation of 97% on room air. Physical examination shoes dry mucous membranes. A fingerstick glucose test shows no abnormalities. Arterial blood gas analysis on room air shows: pH (7.24) / pO2 (85 mmHg) / pCO2 (39 mmHg) / HCO3 (16 mEq/L). Which of the following is the most likely acid-base abnormality in this patient?

- A. Respiratory acidosis with metabolic compensation
- **B.** Metabolic acidosis with respiratory alkalosis
- C. Respiratory acidosis with metabolic alkalosis
- D. Metabolic acidosis with respiratory compensation
- E. Metabolic acidosis with respiratory acidosis

Q2: A 32-year-old builder presents in accident and emergency in a distressed state. He reports suffering from chest pain for the last 2 weeks, the pain is sharp and only occurs when he moves heavy objects. He has a family history of cardiovascular disease and is worried about a heart attack. His blood gas findings are as follows: pH = 7.47; PCO2 = 3.3; PO2 = 15.3; bicarbonate = 17.53. The most likely diagnosis is:

- A. Respiratory acidosis with metabolic compensation
- **B.** Acute metabolic acidosis
- C. Respiratory alkalosis with metabolic compensation
- D. Metabolic acidosis with respiratory compensation
- E. Acute respiratory alkalosis

Q3: A 22-year-old woman is found unconscious in her room and brought into accident and emergency. A urine dipstick is positive for glucose and ketones and blood analysis shows the following results:

pH 6.9 PCO2 3.0 kPa PO2 13 kPa Sodium 144 mmol/L Potassium 5.0 mmol/L Urea 11 Glucose 20 Chloride 100 Bicarbonate 2.9 The most likely anion gap is:

- A. 180
- **B. 118**
- C. 139.2
- D. 46.1
- E. 28

Q4: You are informed that one of your ward patients has been breathless over the last hour and has been quite anxious since her relatives left after visiting. The patient is a 67-year-old woman who was admitted 6 days ago for a left basal pneumonia which has responded well with intravenous antibiotics. Her past medical history includes dementia and hypertension. You are asked by your registrar to interpret the patient's arterial blood gas (ABG) measurements taken during her tachypnoea: pH 7.49 kPa, PO2 14.1, PCO2 3.1 kPa, HCO3 24. From the list of answers below, choose the most appropriate ABG interpretation:

- A. Metabolic alkalosis
- **B.** Respiratory alkalosis
- C. Type 1 respiratory failure
- **D.** Respiratory acidosis
- E. None of the above

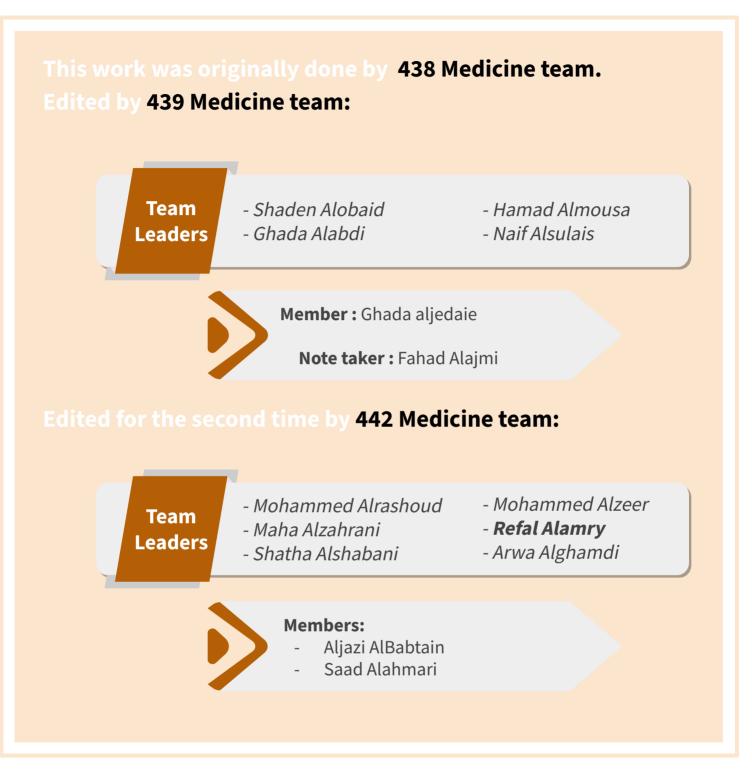
Q5: Which of the following assessments is preferred for obtaining blood gases in children (less painful):

- A. Arterial blood gases (ABG)
- B. Venous blood gases (VBG)
- C. Capillary blood gases (CBG)
- D. None of the above

Q6: young woman is found comatose, having taken an unknown number of sleeping pills an unknown time before. An arterial blood sample yields the following values: pH – 6.90, HCO3- 13 meq/liter, PCO2 68 mmHg. This patient's acid-base status is most accurately described as (From 437 team work):

- A. Uncompensated metabolic acidosis.
- **B. Uncompensated respiratory acidosis**
- C. Simultaneous respiratory and metabolic acidosis.
- D. Respiratory acidosis with partial renal compensation

Our Team





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