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GENERAL MEDICINE DENTISTRY

Acid - base balance disturbances

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PHYSIOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

Definitions and priciples

- Acid (HA) is defined as a compound that can release a proton (H+)
- Acidosis (acidaemia) accumulation of acids in the extended ECV. The pH in the arterial blood is < 7.35
- Base (B-) can bind H+
- Alkalosis (alkalaemia) accumulation of bases in the extended ECV. The pH of the arterial blood is > 7.45
- Buffer is a mixture of compounds which have the ability to absorb small amounts of H⁺ or OH⁻with very little change of pH.

$$pH = pK + log c_s / c_A$$

- Normally, the [H+] of arterial blood of humans is maintained by the lungs, kidneys and liver within the range of 40 ± 5 nM, corresponding to a pH of 7.35 - 7.45.
- pH = negative decadic logarithm of [H+] concentration of H+ ions : pH = - log c(H+).

- Physiologically 40 nmol/l of H+ in the arterial blood: pH = -log 40 x 10-9 mol/l = pH = 7,4
- \blacksquare pH = log (40 x 10⁻⁹ mol/L) = 7.4

A pH of 6.8 - 6.9 is not sustainable for long, and the patient is dying in a state of coma.

- Source of acids in the body is mainly metabolism, source of bases is predominantly nutrient.
- Acids and bases undergo either (1) metabolic conversion (e.g. lactate to glucose in gluconeogenesis, lactate to pyruvate and oxidation in cardiomyocytes), or (2) excretion from body.
- Human organism (healthy or not) every is overwhelmed with acids.
- ATP production is coupled with H+ production.
 Human body is evolutionary capable to handle acid load

Definition and principles

Arterial blood:

Direcly measured

- 1) Arterial pHa = 7,4 (range 7,36 7,44) Incompatible: 6,8 > pHa > 7,8, alkalemia is > 7,44; acidemia < 7,36
- 2) pCO2 = 4,8 5,9 kPa (35-45 mmHg), average is 5,3 kPa (40 mmHg)
- pCO2 < 4,8 kPa is hypocapnia
- pCO2 > 5,9 kPa is hypercapnia
- 3) pO2 = 9,9 13,3 kPa (80-100 mmHg)

Calculated values:

- 4) [HCO3-] = 22-26 mmol/l
- 5) $BE = 0 \pm 2.5 \, \text{mmol/l}$

Venous blood:

- Venous pHv ~ 7,35
- Intracellular pHic app 7,0 ([H+] = 100 nmol/l); = varies considerably among cells; 2,5 x more H+ than extracelular
- Gradient moves H+ from inside of the cell into extracelullar space and the blood.

Definitions and principles

BE (base excess)

- Base excess is defined as number of moles of strong acid that is needed to add to one litre of fully oxygenated blood to achieve pH 7,4 when pCO2 is 5,3 kPa and temperature is 37°C. BE is optimal quantity for assessing metabolic component of acid-base balance. Normal values are 0 ± 2,5 mmol/l. Negative value indicates excess of acids (so the value is negative). Excess of acids is metabolic acidosis. Positive value indicates excess of bases (base excess), hence metabolic alkalosis.
- There is however one very similar quantity base deficit (BD). It indicates deficit of bases in mmol/l.
- Anion gap (AG)
- Anion gap is a quantity which is almost equal to the sum of concentrations of "unmeasurable" anions (albumin plasma proteins, phosphates, sulphates, organic anions). Unmeasurable is not accurate term, more precise is commonly non-measured.
- AG is calculated as follows:
- AG = ([Na+] + [K+]) ([Cl-] + [HCO3-])
- Na+ (140) + K+ (5) = Cl- (105) + HCO3- (25) + AG (15)
- Normal AG: 14 ± 2 mmol/l
- Anion gap is used for assessing causes of the metabolic acidosis. One of the causes is the accumulation of the acids. Concentrations of some of them are not commonly measured. When there is accumulation of commonly non-measured acids unexpected rise in difference of measured cations and anions. This increase in difference could be revealed by AG. Therefore when there is increased AG it indicates that commonly non-measured acids accumulated. They become part of AG. Thus greater AG indicates acidosis.

- increased AG is caused by:
- 1) Increase in concentration of ions that physiologically make the AG
- 2) Presence of new anions
- This method is unfortunately dependent on accuracy of the measurements. Little mistake in big numbers lead to greater mistake in the result. There are particular situations when we need to measure commonly non-measured acids (anions) concentrations. Then we measure:
- 1) Lactate in tissue hypoxia
- 2) 3-hydroxybutyrate in diabetic ketoacidosis
- 3) Phosphates and sulphates in renal failure

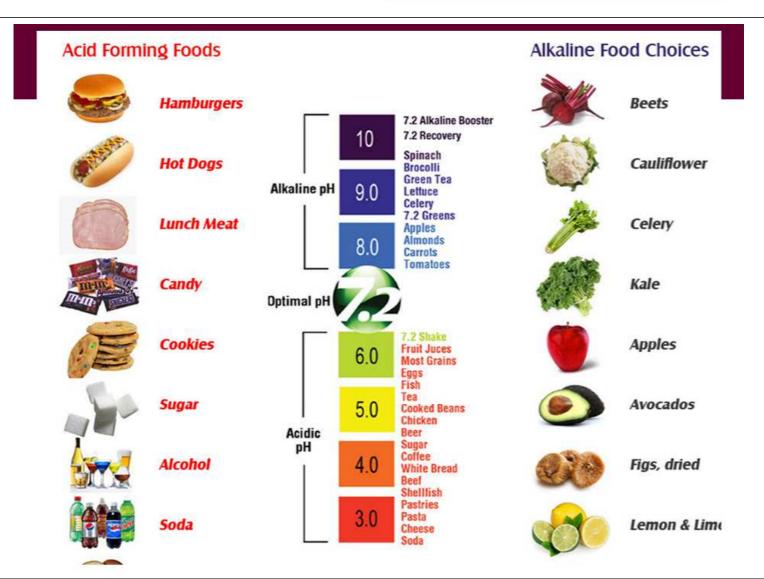
External acids and alkali (in food)

ALKALI RESOURCES

- Most fruits and vegetables, juices = esp. bananas, watermelon, celery, kale, and onions (except peas); mushrooms; herbs / vinegars.
- sugar is neutral, brown sugar and honey are base
- tea, coffee, cocoa, mineral water, red /white wines
- margarine; olive, sunflower seed oils are neutral
- whey, the liquid left over after milk is base.
- Stout and draft beers; hazelnuts, which are base.
- Exception of vegetables and fruits = lemons, oranges, grapefruits, tomatoes and pineapples (acidic when eaten, but, metabolicaly turned into alkaline

ACID RESOURCES

- simple sugars (monosacharides = glucose, fructose) rapidly metabolized to pyruvic acid,
- simple fats (triacidglycerols) and proteins
- grains / grain products = whole-meal, refined bread, asta, white and brown rice, amaranth, millet, oats, buckwheat, spelt, rye; pale beer
- all animal flesh = shellfish, sardines, prawns, trout, salmon ,goose, liver, rabbit, processed meats (canned, corned beef, lunch meat and salami, steak)
- milk (whole and reduced-fat milk), kefir, diary products (butter), ice cream, cheese (cottage cheese, processed cheese camembert, Eidam, parmeggiano, cedar; full-fat cheese is neutral,
- eggs especially yolks; animal fat and oils
- most nuts, seeds; beans and peas,
- Exception of vegetables and fruits = asparagus, cranberries, plums, prunes (all slightly acidic)





Acidifying



ALKALINE FOODS ACIDIC FOODS RawForBeauty.com

Fruit Juice & Soda





All Alcohol

Metabolic reaction producing H+

- Three types of metabol. reactions to impact the acid-base balance.
 - (1) proton-productive, (2) proton-consumptive, (3) proton-neutral.
- 1. Metabolic production of H⁺ (proton-productive)
- a) Anaerobic glycolysis: Glucose → pyruvate, lactate (2 CH3CHOHCOO-) + 2 H+
- b) Fast massive lipolysis ketogenesis: Fatty acids → Ketone bodies + H+
- c) Lipolysis: Triacylglycerol TAG → 3 FA (fatty acids) + glycerol + 3 H+
- d) Ureagenesis: CO2 + 2 NH+4 → urea + H2O + 2 H+
- e) Proteolysis: Proteins → amino acids → sulphate, urea + H+
- 2. Metabolic consumption of H⁺ (proton-consumptive)
- a) Gluconeogenesis: 2 Lactate + 2 H⁺ → Glucose
- b) Neutral and dicarboxylic amino acids oxidation
- 3. Proton-neutral reactions
- a) Complete oxidation /Aerobic glycolysis: Kebs cycle provide H⁺ for oxidative phosphorylation

Carbon cointainig compound \rightarrow CO₂ + H₂O \rightarrow HCO₃- + **H+** H+ + O₂ -> H₂O

b) Lipogenesis from glucose

Acids according to the route of elimination

- (1) Volatile acids (acids that can be exhaled) = carbonic acid (H₂CO₃) is mainly exhaled by respiration or released into urine:
- human body produces 20 000 mmol CO₂ every day and the same amount of H₂CO₃¬ CO₂ + H_{2O}
- (2) Non-volatile acids (acids that can not be exaled); (a) metabolised, or (b) excreted by urine (main), stool, sweat):
- human body produces 30-80 mmol of non- volatile acids (~ 1 mmol/kg of body weight) every day.
- (a) organic: products of metabolism and oxidized completely to CO2 and H2O.
- (1) lactic acid, (2) fatty acids, (3) ketone bodies (acetoacetic acid, β-hydroxybutyric acid) produced by (incomplete oxidation of TAG, carbohydrates, proteins).
- (b) inorganic: predominantly excreted in urine.
- (a) H₂SO₄ (sulphuric acid is produced by oxidation of -SH (sulfhydryl groups) e.g. in amino acids that contain sulphur, i.e. cysteine, methionine),
- (b) H₃PO₄ (phosphoric acid produced by hydrolysis of phosphoproteins, phospholipids, nucleic acids).

Systems for maintenance of the acid-base balance

Chemical buffering systems

- Buffers are substances capable of releasing and binding H+. Each buffer keeps its particular pH. This pH could be calculated by means of the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation: pH = pK + log [conjugated base]/[acid]
- Buffers react immediately acute regulation. Capacity of buffers is not indefinite; act only in the short-term and acute changes in acid-base balance. Chemical buffering systems deal with pH deviations in common metabolism.

Localization	Buffer	Commentary
ISF	Bicarbonate	Buffers metabolic acids
	Phosphate	Low concentration – limited significance
	Proteins	Low concentration – limited significance
Blood	Bicarbonate	Buffers metabolic acids
	Haemoglobin	Buffers CO2 (carbonic acid production)
	Plasma proteins	Minor
	Phosphate	Low concentration – limited significance
ICF	Proteins	Significant buffer
	Phosphate	Significant buffer
Urine	Phosphate	Responsible for majority of the urine acidity
	Ammonium	Significant loss of ammonium nitrogen and protons

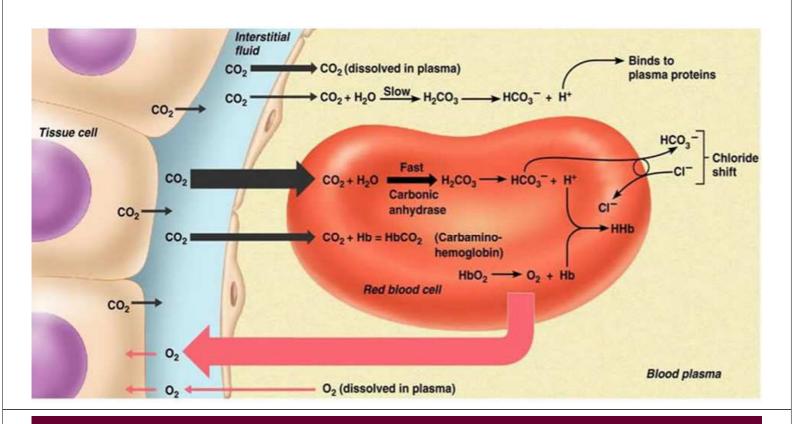
Chemical buffering systems

Buffer	Plasma	Erythrocytes	Together
HCO ₃ -/CO ₂	35 %	18 %	53 %
Hb / Hb-H+	-	35 %	35 %
Plasma proteins	7 %	-	7 %
Inorganic phosphate	1%	1%	2 %
Organic phosphate	-	3 %	3 %
	43 %	57 %	100 %

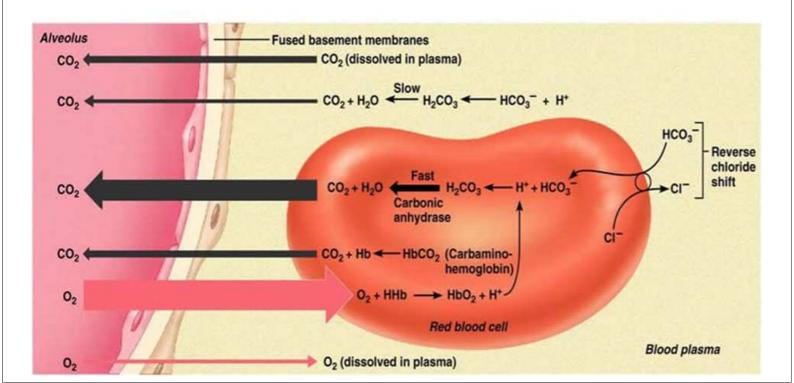
- Bicarbonate buffer (HCO3-/CO2). Bicarbonate buffer is the most important buffer system in blood plasma (generally in the extracellular fluid). This buffer consists of weak acid H2CO3 (pK1 = 6,1) and conjugated base HCO3- (bicarbonate).
- pH = pK + log ([HCO3-] / [H2CO3]); pH = $6.1 + \log ([HCO3-] / pCO2 \times \alpha)$
- $PH = 6.1 + log (24 / 40 \times 0.03), pH = 6.1 + 1.3, pH = 7.4$

- Protein buffers. plasma proteins and intracellular) are the most abundant and the most powerful buffer system in whole organism. Some amino acids have acid or basic side chains (His, Lys, Arg, Glu, Asp).
- Haemoglobin is the most important = 35 % of buffering capacity of blood, remaining proteins provide only 7 %.

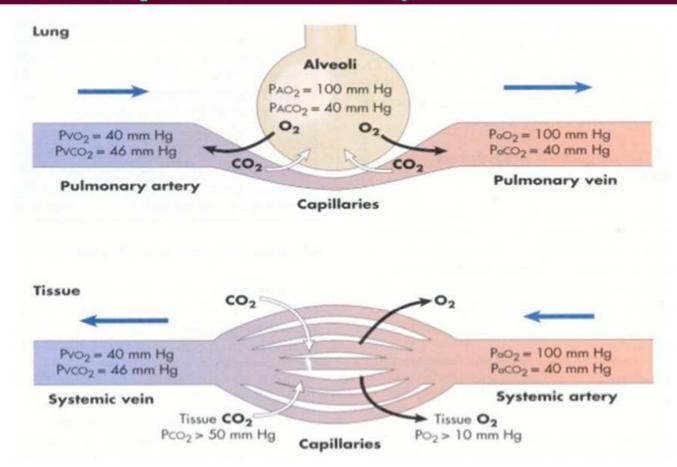
Transportation of CO2 from the tissue



Transportation of CO2 into lungs

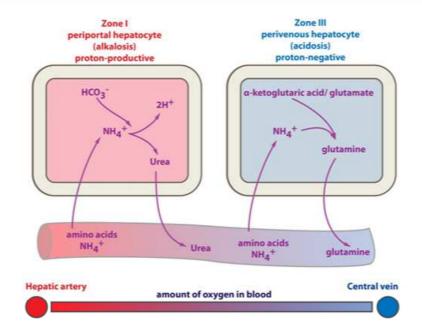


CO2 transportation - summary data



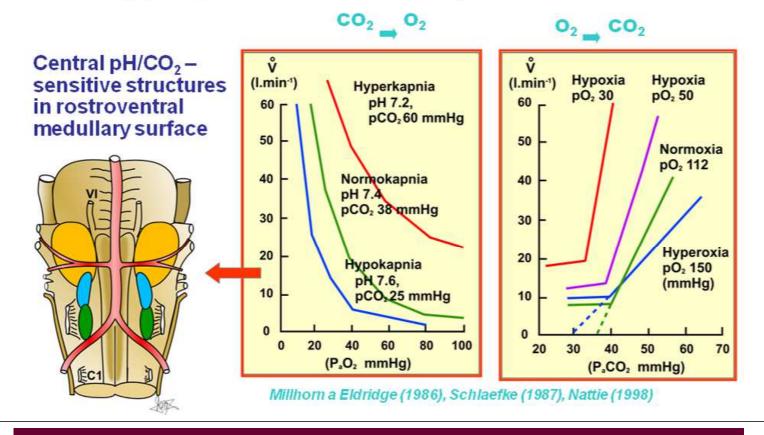
Liver

- the most important tissue where ammonium is detoxified in both (1) urea cycle, and (2) glutamine synthesis. Which one of these fates of ammonium is favoured closely depends on status of the acid-base balance:
- a) NH4+ → urea + 2 H+ → acidification of the body
- CO2 + 2 NH4+ → CO(NH2)2 + 2 H+ + H2O
- H+ + HCO3- → H2O + CO2 (consumption of bicarbonate-)
- b) NH4+ → glutamine synthesis → H+ is not produced, glutamine is taken up by the kidneys. In the kidney is H+ excreted as NH4+



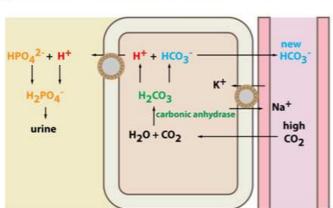
Breathing = central pH/CO₂ stimulation

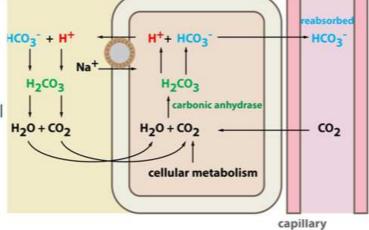
Respiration reacts in **1-3 minutes**. Respiratory system regulates **carbon dioxide**. Respiration is able to change pCO2 by its elimination or retention. Respiratory centre is in **brainstem**.

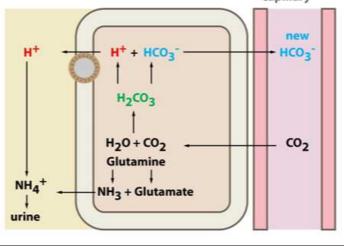


Kidney

- Kidneys react in hours-days. Their role in acidbase balance is very complex.
- 1) Reabsorbing, excretion of HCO3-
- 2) Production of HCO3-
- 3) Excretion or H+
- Bicarbonate reabsorption takes place in proximal tubule cells
- Bicarbonate production takes place in intercalated cells type A of distal tubule and collecting duct.
- Ammonium ion excretion
- This process uses ammonium generated in glutamine metabolism in tubular cells.

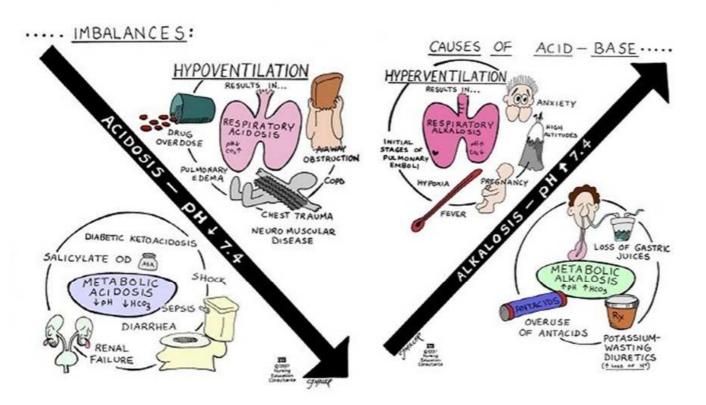






Main forms of acid -base balance disorders

Dysbalances



Main acid-base balance disorders

Form	Compensation pl		P _a CO ₂	HCO ₃ -	Therapy
Respiratory acidosis	Uncompensated	\downarrow	1	N	NA HCO3, KHCO3,
Acute RAC Chronic RAC	Compensated	ΝΨ	1	<u>ተ</u> ተተ	THAM
Respiratory alkalosis	Uncompensated	1	4	N	Rebreathing, bag wet
Acute RAL Chronic RAL	Compensated	N ↑	Ψ	↓ ↓	towel, NH4Cl, Arginin hydrohloride
Metabolic acidosis	Uncompenated	Ψ	N	Ψ	Hyperventilation,
	Compensated	N↓	4	4	NAHCO3, THAM
Metabolic alkalosis	sis Uncompenated		N	1	Hypoventilation
	Compensated	N个	1	1	

- Four basic acid-base balance disturbances are distinguished:
- 1) Respiratory acidosis (RAC): decreased blood pH; its primary cause is increased pCO2
- 2) Respiratory alkalosis (RAL): increased blood pH; its primary cause is decreased pCO2
- 3) Metabolic acidosis (MAC): decreased blood pH; its primary cause is decreased BE ([HCO3-])
- 4) Metabolic alkalosis (MAL): increased blood pH; its primary cause is increased BE ([HCO3-])

Respiratory induced dysbalances

Respiratory acidosis (RAC)

- Respiratory acidosis emerges when the lungs eliminate too few CO2 (it usually occurs in hypoventilation). Low CO2 elimination leads to increased pCO2 in the blood (hypercapnia). Increased pCO2 causes decreased pH.
- Causes leading to RAC can lead to ↓ pO2. Hypoxia results in aneronic production of lactate and lactic acidosis: RAC + MAC.

Respiratory alkalosis (RAL)

- The most coomon reason of RAL is hyperventilation hypocapnia (decreased pCO2).
- RAL is coomonly associated with hypocalcemia, musclular hyperexcitability, tetany and spasms. Serum albumin binds approximately 50 % of plasma calcium. In the same time it is H+ buffer. Under RAL ratio between ionised and Alb-bound calcium chages in favor of Ca2+ binding.
- HCO3- is slightly lowered as well in addition to CO2. This is because pCO2 is lowered and thus – to keep equilibrium – part of bicarbonate is converted to CO2

Main acid-base balance disorders

Form	Compensation	pН	P _a CO ₂	HCO ₃ -	Therapy
Respiratory acidosis	Uncompensated	4	1	N	NA HCO3, KHCO3,
Acute RAC Chronic RAC	Compensated	N↓	1	1	THAM
Respiratory alkalosis	Uncompensated	1	1	N	Rebreathing, bag wet
Acute RAL Chronic RAL	Compensated	N T	1	4	towel, NH4Cl, Arginin hydrohloride
Metabolic acidosis	Uncompenated	4	N	Ψ	Hyperventilation,
	Compensated	N↓	4	1	NAHCO3, THAM
Metabolic alkalosis	Uncompenated	1	N	1	Hypoventilation
	Compensated	N个	1	1	

- Four basic acid-base balance disturbances are distinguished:
- 1) Respiratory acidosis (RAC): decreased blood pH; its primary cause is increased pCO2
- 2) Respiratory alkalosis (RAL): increased blood pH; its primary cause is decreased pCO2
- 3) Metabolic acidosis (MAC): decreased blood pH; its primary cause is decreased BE ([HCO3-])
- 4) Metabolic alkalosis (MAL): increased blood pH; its primary cause is increased BE ([HCO3-])

Respiratory acidosis - etiology

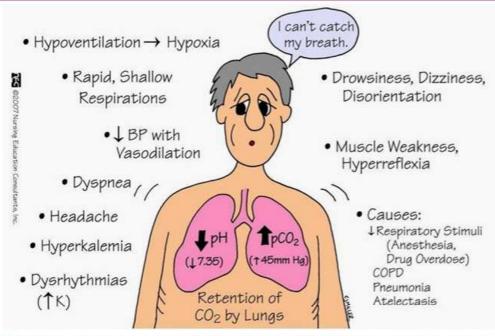
Acute RAC - Acute respiratory failure

- Central respiratory depression (overdose bartiturates, opioids, diazepins, neurotoxins, analgestics, stroke), central sleep apnoea
- 2) Breathing restrictions: Parenchymal: lobar pneumonia,
- Respir. muscle fatigue: kurare, botulotoxin, organophosphates (biol. wapons)
- Throrax defects: pneumothorax, myorelaxants
- 3) Air-away obstrucntions: AIW collapse (OSA, obstructive sleep apnoea, alle
- rgic laryngospasm, asthmatic bronchospasm paroxysm, foreign body inhalation, intrabronchial tumour, intrapulmonary bleeding, alveolar edema etc.

Chronic RAC

- Insufficient ventilation of nervous regulation: tumors of cerebral angle, intracranial hypertension, polyneurotis, ALS (motor neuron dis.), Duchene muscul. dystrophy, neuromusclular disorders (myasthenia, myotonias, myopathies)
- 2) Obstructive disorders: cystic fibrosis, COPD (emphysema, chronic bronchitis)
- 3) Breathing restriction: pneumonia, spine deformities, tunerculosis, sarcoidosis,
- painful breathing (fractures, pleural strictures), pneumoconioses (occupational finrotic lung disordes, interstitial lung fibrosis, uremic pleuritis,
- 4) Lung perfusion: diffuse microembolisms, embolism collagenoses

Manifestations associated with respiratory acidosis



- Compensation:
- increased HCO3regeneration on account of increased acid realesed in kidney tubular cells of the kidneys (acidic urine is produced)
- increased release of CO2 through kidney and denovo production of HCO3-
- RAC is common conseq. of global acute or chronic respiratory insufficiency; reasons imply central depression, respiratory airways obstruction (obstructive dis.), or disease of lung distentibility, ribcage etc. Dyspnoea, tachypnoe with hypopnoe, hypotension may ensue
- Hyperkalemia often emerges and can lead to cardiac arrhythmias; acidosis favours neruromuscular hypoexcitability

Main acid-base balance disorders

		рН	P _a CO ₂	HCO ₃ -	Therapy
Respiratory acidosis	Uncompensated	\downarrow	1	N	NA HCO3, KHCO3,
Acute RAC Chronic RAC	Compensated	N↓	1	<u>ተ</u> ተተ	THAM
Respiratory alkalosis	Uncompensated	ncompensated \uparrow \downarrow N		N	Rebreathing, bag wet
Acute RAL Chronic RAL	Compensated	N↑	Ψ	↓ ↓	towel, NH4Cl, Arginin hydrohloride
Metabolic acidosis	Uncompenated	\downarrow	N	4	Hyperventilation,
	Compensated	NΨ	1	4	NAHCO3, THAM
Metabolic alkalosis	Uncompenated	1	N	1	Hypoventilation
	Compensated	N个	1	1	

Acute RAL = occurs rapidly; for every 10 mmHg drop of pCO $_2$ in arterial blood there is 2 mmol/L drop of HCO $_3$ - due to acute compensation

Chronic RAL = long lasting; for every 10 mmHg drop of pCO $_2$ in arterial blood there is 5 mmol/L drop of HCO $_3$ -

Respiratory alkalosis - Etiology

1) Central respiratory stimulation - hyperventilation

Non-structural causes

- Psychological reaction panic disorder, emotions, fear, voluntary
- Hypoxia, high humidity or high altitude low oxygen in air (hypoxia) leads to dyspnoea (catching for breaths) and compensatory tachypnoea and tachycardia
- Pain labor, pregnancy, trauma, Fever-hyperpyrexia (> 40 C), Gramm (-) sepsis
- Cirrhosis, hepatic encephalopathy, hypoxia die to high altitude

Structural causes

- CNS trauma phychogenic shock; in precomatose state central neurogenic hyperventilation
- Cerebrovaskular accident (SAH subarachnoid haemorrhage), brain tumors and metastasis

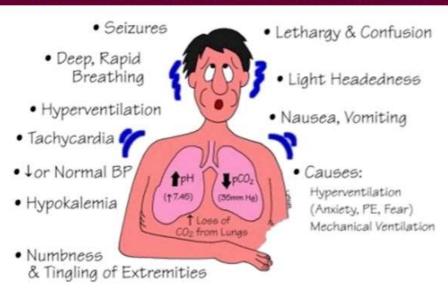
2) Compensatory chronic hyponoeic tachypnoea due to hypoxia

- Pulmonary parenchymal disorders: Pulmonary fibrosis, early pneumonia, asthma, pneumoconioses,
- Pulmonary vascular disorders: pulm. vascul remodelling, pulmonary hypertension, congestive heart failure
- Anemia, iatrogenic overventilation of patient

3) Other reasons

- Exogenous poisoning: Salicylate poisoning (Aspirin), Doxapram, Caffeine, progesterone, Adrenalin
- Endogenous: Hyperammonemia

Manifestations associated with respiratory alkalosis



- Rebreathing (breathing to bag) may be helpful
- Compensation is decreased HCO3 provided by larger excretion of HCO3- by the kidneys.
- Alkalosis increases nerve excitability, conductibility, decreases firing threshold of exitable tissue; cramps, spasms, hypertonia, tetanic bursts develop in muscles, seisure in the brain, overexcitation, somatosensitive overexcitation – numbness, paraesthesias,
- Hyperventilation alkalosis leads to cerebral vasoconstriction leads light headness, fainting, nausea,, seizures; dconfusion, loss of conscoiousness normalizes ventilation
- Chronic RAL has comorbid hypechloremia; Bohr effect: left shift in Hb –O2 dissociation curve
- Intracelular shifts of Na+, K+, and PO4-, reduced free Ca2+

Metabolic acid base ballance disturbances

Metabolic acidosis

- the most common acid-base balance disorder
- Accumulation of metabolic acids (every acid in the body apart from carbonic acid)
- Loss of bicarbonates (bicarbonate are lost most commonly from the GIT; also from kidney)
- Normally bicarbonates is produced in pacreatic juice bicarbonate is reabsorbed in are resorbed in small intestine.
- Loss of cations, predominantly Na+ (compensated by decrease of HCO3)
- Decreased pH (increased H+) pCO₂ is normal, negative BE ([HCO3-]);
- Excessive production of acids leads to high AG (useful in dif. dg.of MAC). Elevated loss of bicarbonates has normal AG

Metabolic acidosis

• loss of H+ from the body or a gain in HCO₃-. In its pure form, it manifests as alkalemia (pH >7.40).

Main acid-base balance disorders

		рН	P _a CO ₂	HCO ₃ -	Therapy
Respiratory acidosis	Uncompensated	Ψ	1	N	NA HCO3, KHCO3,
Acute RAC Chronic RAC	Compensated	N↓	1	<u>ተ</u> ተተ	THAM
Respiratory alkalosis	Uncompensated	↑ ↓ N		N	Rebreathing, bag wet
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	Compensated	NΨ	Ψ	Ψ	NAHCO3, THAM
Metabolic alkalosis	Uncompenated	1	N	1	Hypoventilation
	Compensated	N个	1	1	

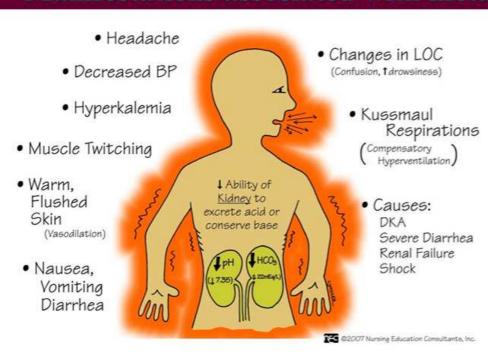
Metabolic acidosis

- 1) Lactic acidosis anaerobic carbohydrate metab.
- hypoxia hypoxic or anemic; tissues process glucose in anaerobic glycolysis, pyruvate is metabolized into lactate.
- shock or overdose of biguanides (metformin),
- 2) Ketoacidosis overproduction of ketone bodies (acetoacetic acid and β-hydroxybutyric acid) excessive fatty acid catabolism in lack of glycolyis
- insulin deficiency in diabetes mellitus l.type (ketosis prone); starvation (afer 3-4 day)
- 3) Exogenous or drug induced
- Alcohol intoxication (e.g. ethanol, methanol, ethyleneglycol) are metabolised to strong organic acids (formic acid, oxalic acid).
- Overdose of salicylates (Aspirin poisoning), sotbitol, paralaldehyde intox.

4) Renal acidosis

- Acute renal failure = oliguria cummulation of acids (sulphates, phosphates, other anions)
- Chronic renal failure + tubulopathies = (no kidney recycle HCO₃- + no de-novo production of HCO₃-
- Renal tubular acidosis loss of HCO₃- in the kidneys; carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (acetazolamide)
- 5) Loss of HCO3- in GIT (pancreatic juice rich in HCO3 neutralizes acidic chyme from stomach)
- Heavy diarrhoea
- Intestinal malabsorption (short intestine syndrome; surgery)

Manifestations associated with metabolic acidosis



- Compensation:
- 1) buffers,
- hyperventilation (pCO2, pH)
 Kussmaul acidotic breathing (deep slow breathing bycentral stimulation by high H+ concentration).
- 3) kidney
- a) increased excretion of H+
- b) new bicarbonate production (intercalated cells type A). This results in acidic urine.
- Signs and symptoms of MAC metabolic alkalosis result from the body's attempt to correct the acidbase imbalance, primarily through hypoventilation.
- Irritability, Picking at bedclothes (carphology), Twitching, Confusion, Nausea, Vomiting, Diarrhea
- Cardiovascular abnormalities (i.e. atrial tachycardia).

Main acid-base balance disorders

		pH P _a CO ₂		HCO ₃ -	Therapy
Respiratory acidosis	Uncompensated	↓ ↑		N	NA HCO3, KHCO3,
Acute RAC Chronic RAC	Compensated	N↓ ↑		<u>ተ</u> ተተ	THAM
Respiratory alkalosis	Uncompensated	↑ ↓		N	Rebreathing, bag wet
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	Compensated	NΨ	4	1	NAHCO3, THAM
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	Compensated	N个	1	个	

Metabolic alkalosis

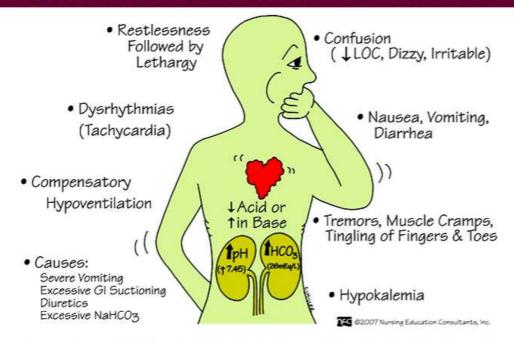
- 1) Loss of hydrogen ions acids or anions (chlorides or proteins). Loss of anions is often over compensated by replenishing of other anions, predominantly bicarbonates HCO3⁻.
- Shift of hydrogen ions into the intracellular space
- Vomiting loss of HCl in gastric juice (thus loss of H+) leads metabolic state denoted as hypochloremic alkalosis
- Diuretics (e.g. furosemide) some may lead to loss of K+ H+ and Cl-
- Hyperaldosteronism. High aldosterone increases retention of Na⁺ C^{I-} and H₂O and urine loss of K⁺ and H⁺ metabolic reaction known as hyperchloremic alkalosis

2) Bicarbonate overproduction

- Exogenous alkali intake (e.g. iatrogenic alkalising medication, bicarbonate infusion);
- Endogenous alkali load (massive osteolysis)
- Hypoproteinemia proteins are anions thus decreased protein concentration is compensated by increased bicarbonate concentration (i.e. bicarbonates replenish missing anions). Hypoproteinemia is caused by liver failure, nephrotic syndrome or malnutrition.

3) Congenital alkalosis

Manifestations associated with metabolic alkalosis



- Signs and symptoms of MAC metabolic alkalosis result from the body's attempt to correct the acidbase imbalance, primarily through hypoventilation.
- Irritability, Picking at bedclothes (carphology), Twitching, Confusion, Nausea, Vomiting, Diarrhea
- Cardiovascular abnormalities, paliptations (i.e. atrial tachycardia).

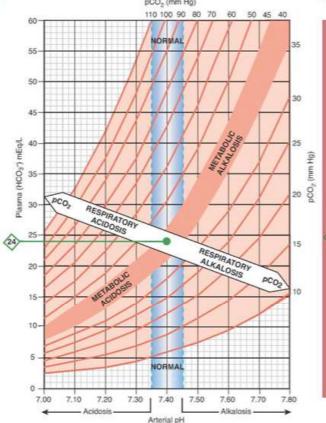
Mixed disturbances of acid-base balance

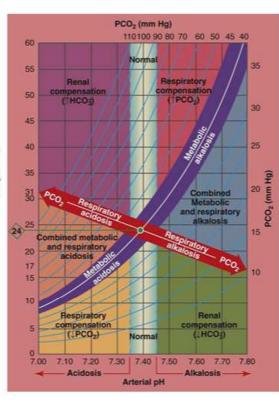
- Mixed disturbances of acid-base balance are quite common.
 - (1) combination of two or more basic disturbances of acid-base balance,
 - (2) **combination of more causes** that cause the same acid-base balance disturbance,
 - (3) or both
- hypoventilation that leads not only to the respiratory acidosis because less CO2 is exhaled but also to the metabolic acidosis because less O2 is delivered to the tissues.
- If all three values (pH, PaCO2, and HCO3-) are out of range it is classified as "combined acidosis/alkalosis"
- Examples: pH = 7.49 , PaCO2 = 32 mmHg , HCO3- = 30 mmHg
 Combined alkalosis (pH = alkalotic range, PaCO2 = alkalotic range, HCO3- = alkalotic range)
- pH = 7.26, PaCO2 = 52 mmHg, HCO3- = 16 mmHg
 Metabolic acidosis (pH = acidotic range, PaCO2 = acidotic range, HCO3- = acidotic range)

Compensatory responses in acid-base disturbances

Disturbance		Response	Expected Change
RESPIRATORY ACIDOSIS			
	Acute	↑ [HCO ₃ -]	1 mmol/L/10mmHg increase in PaCO ₂
	Chronic	↑ [HCO ₃ -]	4 mmol/L/10mmHg increase in PaCO ₂
RESPIRATORY ALKALOSIS			
A CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF TH	Acute	↓[HCO ₃ -]	2 mmol/L/10mmHg decrease in PaCO ₂
	Chronic	↓ [HCO ₃ -]	4 mmol/L/10mmHg decrease in PaCO ₂
METABOLIC ACIDOSIS		↓ PaCO ₂	1.2 x the decrease in [HCO ₃ -]
METABOLIC ALKALOSIS		↑ PaCO₂	0.7 x the increase in [HCO ₃]

Nomogram – 9 variants of Van Slyke





Nomogram

