



ΜΕΤΑΒΟΛΙΚΗ ΟΞΕΩΣΗ ΚΑΙ ΜΕΙΚΤΕΣ ΔΙΑΤΑΡΑΧΕΣ

Ιωάννης Γριβέας  
Νεφρολόγος  
417 ΝΙΜΤΣ

# Evaluation of acid-base disorders

## 1. History and physical exam

- Gastrointestinal
- Renal
- Respiratory
- Neurologic
- Drugs and toxins
- Volume status and respiratory rate

# Evaluation of acid-base disorders

## 2. Arterial pH

- pH < 7.37    Acidemia
- pH > 7.43    Alkalemia

## Evaluation of acid-base disorders

3. Use  $P_{\text{CO}_2}$  and  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  to identify the underlying primary disorder(s)

$$\text{pH} = 6.10 + \log \frac{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}{0.03 P_{\text{CO}_2}}$$

Arterial pH	$P_{CO_2}$ and $HCO_3^-$	Primary disturbance
Acidemia	$\downarrow HCO_3^-$	Metabolic acidosis
	$\uparrow P_{CO_2}$	Respiratory acidosis
Alkalemia	$\uparrow HCO_3^-$	Metabolic alkalosis
	$\downarrow P_{CO_2}$	Respiratory alkalosis

## Evaluation of acid-base disorders

4. Look for abnormal compensatory response to diagnose mixed metabolic & respiratory disorder

Determine whether the magnitude and direction of the compensatory response is appropriate.

Primary disorder	Expected compensation
<b>Metabolic acidosis</b>	Each 1 mEq/L $\downarrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$ $\rightarrow$ 1.2 mmHg $\downarrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$
<b>Metabolic alkalosis</b>	Each 1 mEq/L $\uparrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$ $\rightarrow$ 0.7 mmHg $\uparrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$
<b>Respiratory acidosis</b>	
<b>Acute</b>	Each 1 mmHg $\uparrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$ $\rightarrow$ 0.1 mEq/L $\uparrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$
<b>Chronic</b>	Each 1 mmHg $\uparrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$ $\rightarrow$ 0.3 mEq/L $\uparrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$
<b>Respiratory alkalosis</b>	
<b>Acute</b>	Each 1 mmHg $\downarrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$ $\rightarrow$ 0.2 mEq/L $\downarrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$
<b>Chronic</b>	Each 1 mmHg $\downarrow$ $\text{P}_{\text{CO}_2}$ $\rightarrow$ 0.4 mEq/L $\downarrow$ $\text{HCO}_3^-$

## Compensatory mechanisms

- Remember the *direction* of compensation
- Remember that compensation is almost never complete
- Remember Winter's formula

In a metabolic acidosis, the predicted pCO<sub>2</sub> is:

$$(1.5 \times \text{HCO}_3^-) + 8 \pm 2$$

### Example 3

- pH 7.40
- $\text{PCO}_2$  22 mm Hg
- $\text{HCO}_3^-$  14 mEq/L

What is the acid-base disturbance?

What do you suspect?

Combined metabolic acidosis and  
respiratory alkalosis: salicylate poisoning?

**Metabolic acidosis**

**Serum anion gap**

$$[\text{Na}^+] - ([\text{Cl}^-] + [\text{HCO}_3^-])$$

= Unmeasured anions - Unmeasured cations

(Normal range: 8 - 12)

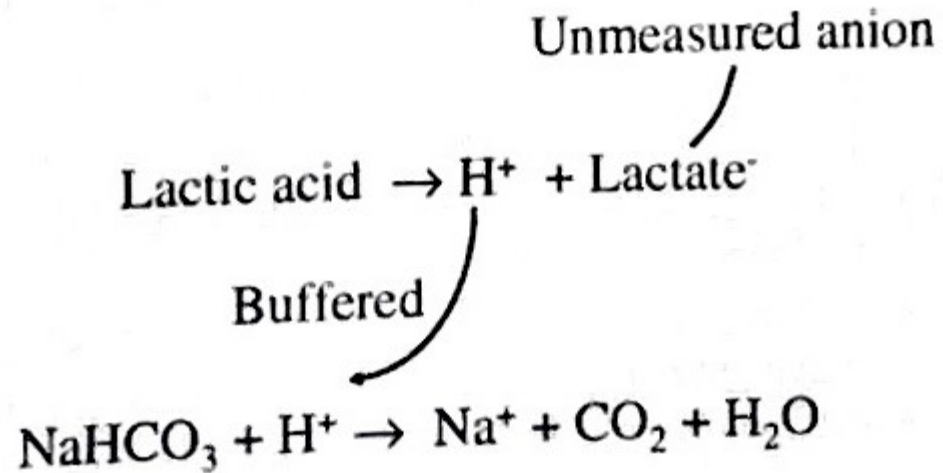
## Serum anion gap

Unmeasured anions	Unmeasured cations
Albumin	K
PO <sub>4</sub>	Ca
SO <sub>4</sub>	Mg
Lactate	Immunoglobulins
Pyruvate	

## Correction of the anion gap

Add 2.5 mEq/L for every 1 g/dL fall in serum albumin.

## Cause of anion-gap acidosis



## High anion gap metabolic acidosis

Methanol

Uremia

Diabetic ketoacidosis

Paraldehyde

Ischemia

Lactic acidosis

Ethylene glycol & ethanol

Salicylates

Rhabdomyolysis

Toluene abuse

Type B lactic acidosis  
(metformin, NNRTI)

D-lactic acidosis

Propylene glycol

5-oxoprolinuria

## What is the unmeasured anion?

Methanol	Formate
Ethylene glycol	Oxalate
Propylene glycol	Lactate
Toluene	Hippurate
Ketoacidosis	Acetoacetate
	$\beta$ -hydroxybutyrate
Uremia	Sulfate
	Phosphate
	Urate

## Type B lactic acidosis 2° to nucleoside reverse transcriptase inhibitors (NRTI)

- Inhibition of mitochondrial DNA polymerase- $\gamma$
- DDI and stavudine most common cause
- 2 mth - 2 yr after start of Rx
- Risk factors: Female gender, low GFR, low CD4
- N/V, abdo pain, fatigue, wt loss
- Can be induced by drug interaction (tenofovir increases AUC of DDI by 50%)
- 30-60% mortality

## D-lactic acidosis

### Pathogenesis

Carbohydrates in gut + bacterial overgrowth  
in colon → generation of D-lactic acid

### Clinical features

Short bowel syndrome with malabsorption  
Episodes of  $\Delta$ MS associated with CHO intake  
AG metabolic acidosis with elevated D-lactate  
Spontaneous resolution if NPO

## Commonly used intravenous drugs containing propylene glycol

<u>Drug</u>	<u>% by volume</u>
Lorazepam, 2 mg/ml.	80
Phenobarbital, 30-130 mg/ml.	70
Diazepam, 5 mg/ml.	40
Penicillin, 50 mg/ml.	20-40
Phenytoin, 50 mg/ml.	40
Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole, 16:80 mg/ml.	40
Etiomidate, 2 mg/ml.	35
Nitroglycerin, 5 mg/ml.	30
Esmolol, 250 mg/ml.	25

## Principle of the delta-delta

- For every 1 mEq/L of acid added to circulation, the serum bicarbonate should decrease by 1 mEq/L, and the anion gap should increase by 1 mEq/L.
- Thus the  $\Delta$  anion gap/ $\Delta$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$  should be 1.

## Calculation of the delta-delta

$$\Delta\text{AG} / \Delta\text{HCO}_3^- = \frac{\text{AG} - 10}{24 - \text{HCO}_3^-}$$

## Interpretation of the delta-delta

$$\Delta\text{AG} / \Delta\text{HCO}_3^-$$

- |     |                                  |
|-----|----------------------------------|
| 1   | Simple AG acidosis               |
| < 1 | Superimposed non-gap acidosis    |
| > 1 | Superimposed metabolic alkalosis |

## Example 4

A 21 yo male intoxicated with ethanol presents with a history of repeated vomiting and is obtunded.

Na 136, K 3.5, Cl 90, HCO<sub>3</sub> 18

pH 7.20, PCO<sub>2</sub> 45 mm Hg

What is nature of this acid-base disturbance?

Primary anion-gap metabolic acidosis

Primary respiratory acidosis

## Example 4

Na 136, K 3.5, Cl 90,  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  18

pH 7.20,  $\text{PCO}_2$  45 mm Hg

$$\text{Anion gap} = 136 - 90 - 18 = 28$$

$$\Delta\text{Anion gap} = 28 - 10 = 18 \text{ mM}$$

$$\Delta\text{HCO}_3^- = 24 - 18 = 6 \text{ mM}$$

$$\Delta\text{AG}/\Delta\text{HCO}_3^- = 18/6 = 3$$

Alternatively:

Adding the  $\Delta\text{AG}$  of 18 to the  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  of 18 corrects it to 36 mM.

## Pitfalls in interpretation of the $\Delta/\Delta$

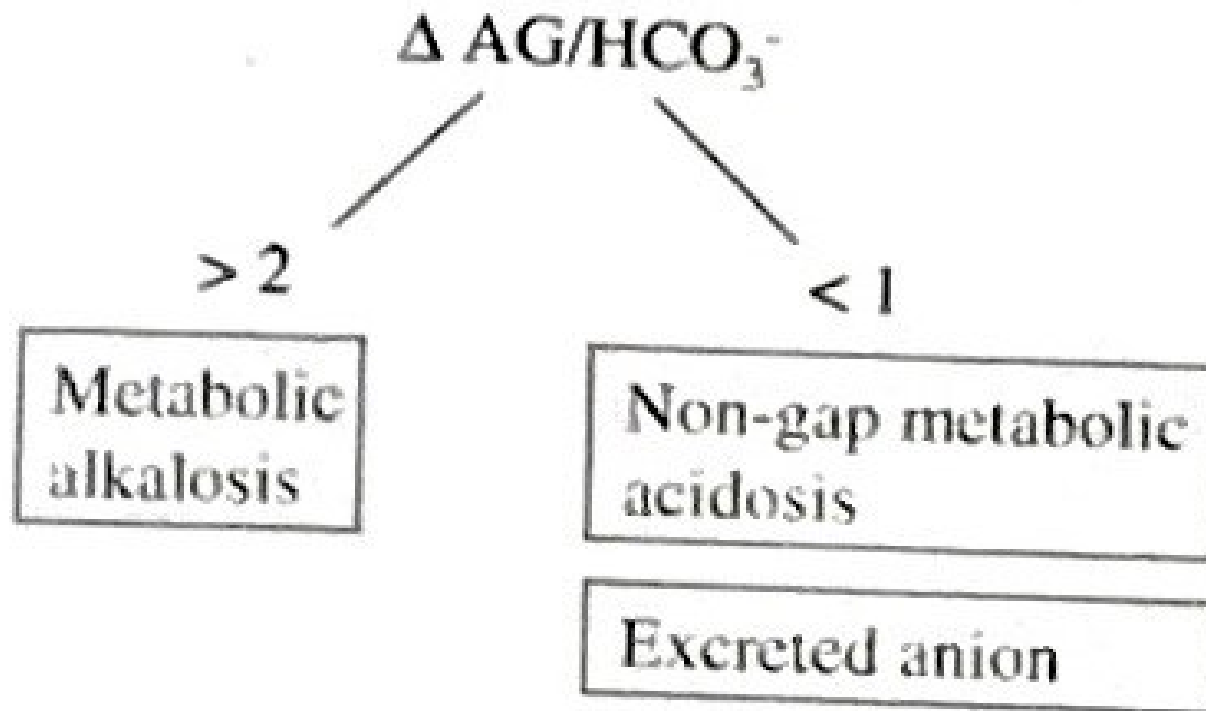
*Average  $\Delta/\Delta$  of lactic acidosis is 1.6*

Up to half of acid load is buffered intracellularly and not by serum  $\text{HCO}_3^-$

*$\Delta/\Delta$  in DKA varies from 2 (early) to 0 (late)*

Many unmeasured acid anions are rapidly renally excreted

## Rational use of the delta-delta



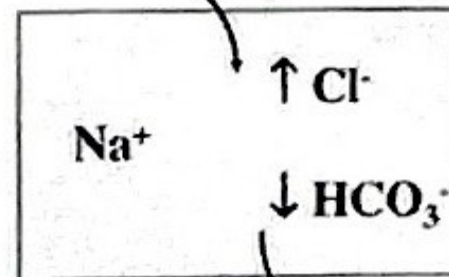
## Non-gap (hyperchloremic) metabolic acidosis

- Lower GI bicarbonate loss
- Renal tubular acidosis
- Dilutional acidosis

## Pathogenesis of non-gap acidosis: Diarrhea

Renal retention:

$\text{Na}^+$   $\text{Cl}^-$



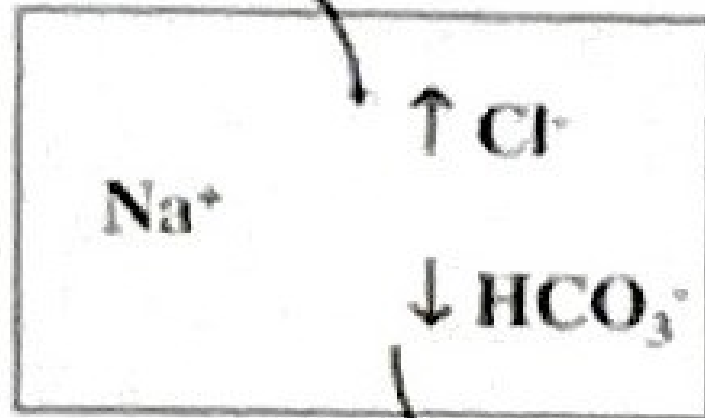
GI loss:

$\text{Na}^+$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$

# Pathogenesis of non-gap acidosis: Proximal RTA

Renal retention:

$\text{Na}^+$   $\text{Cl}^-$



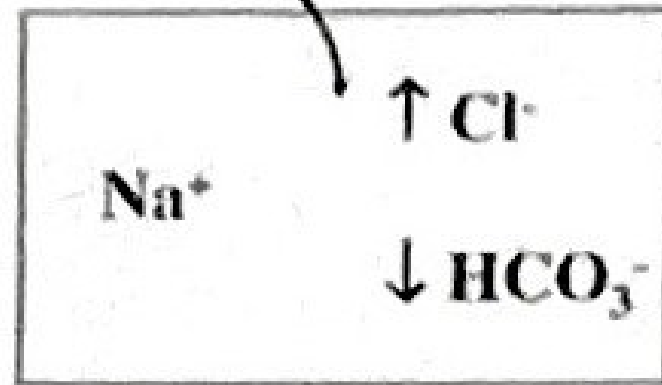
Renal loss:

$\text{Na}^+$   $\text{HCO}_3^-$

## Pathogenesis of non-gap acidosis: Distal RTA

Renal retention:

$H^+$   $Cl^-$



## Diagnosis of RTA

Determination of the urine anion gap

$$\text{Urine anion gap} = [\text{Na}^+] + [\text{K}^+] - [\text{Cl}^-]$$

Normal  $< 0$

## Why does the UAG work?

Total anions = Total cations

Measured anions + unmeasured anions =  
measured cations + unmeasured cations

Measured cations - Measured anions =  
Unmeasured anions - unmeasured cations

## Urine anion gap

$$\begin{aligned} &= \text{Measured cations} - \text{Measured anions} \\ &= (\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+) - (\text{Cl}^- + \text{HCO}_3^-) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \text{Unmeasured anions} - \text{unmeasured cations}$$

Sulfate

Phosphate

Bicarbonate

Organic anions

Calcium

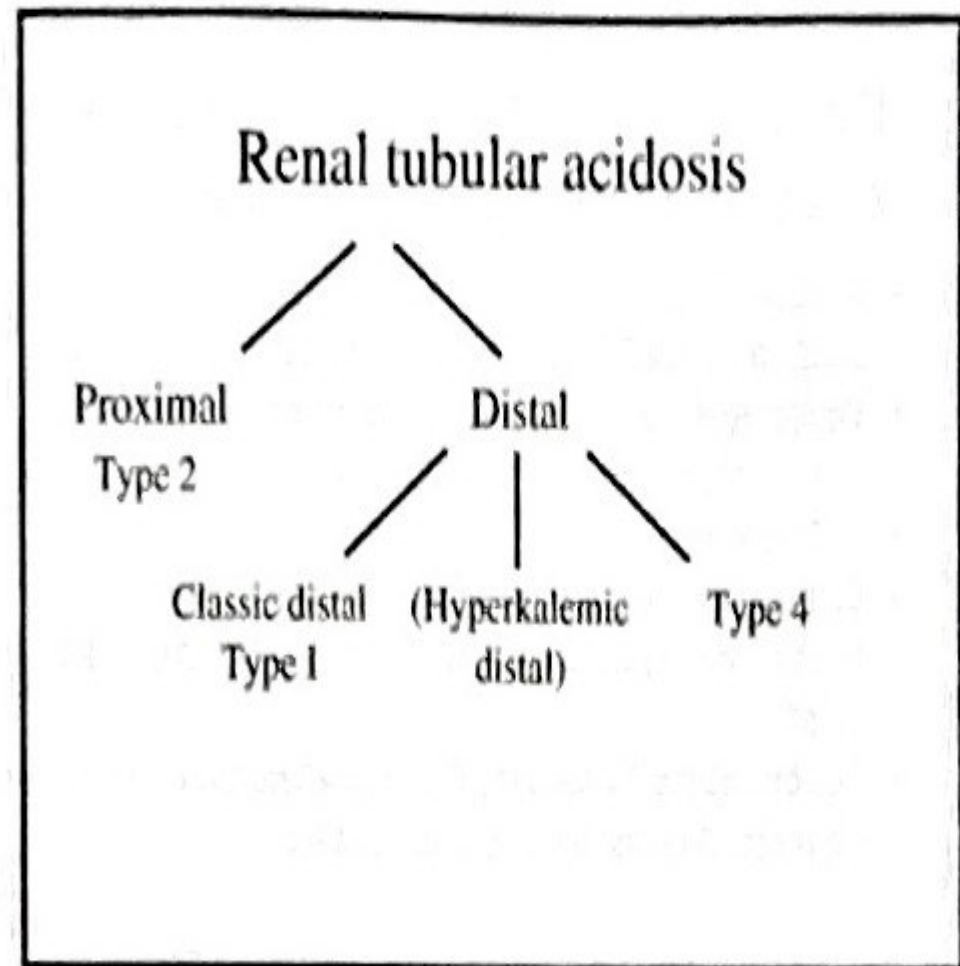
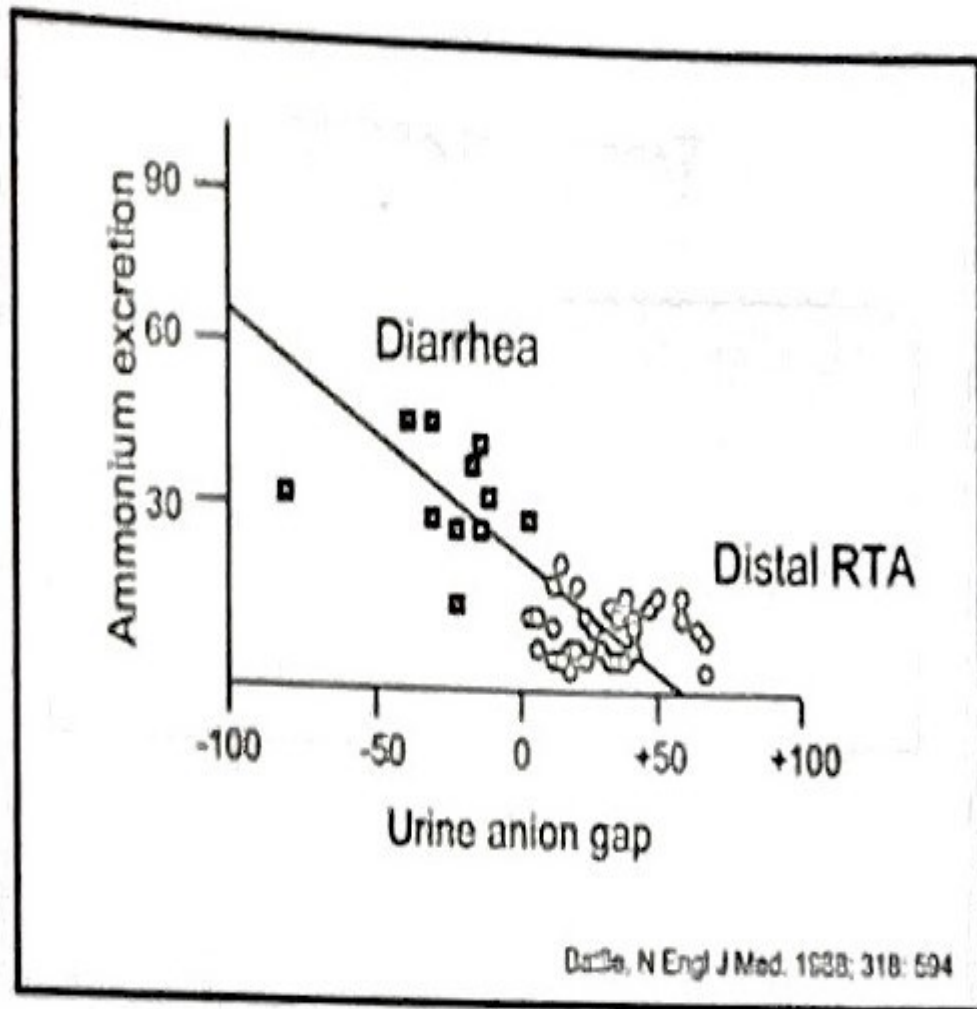
Magnesium

$\text{NH}_4^+$

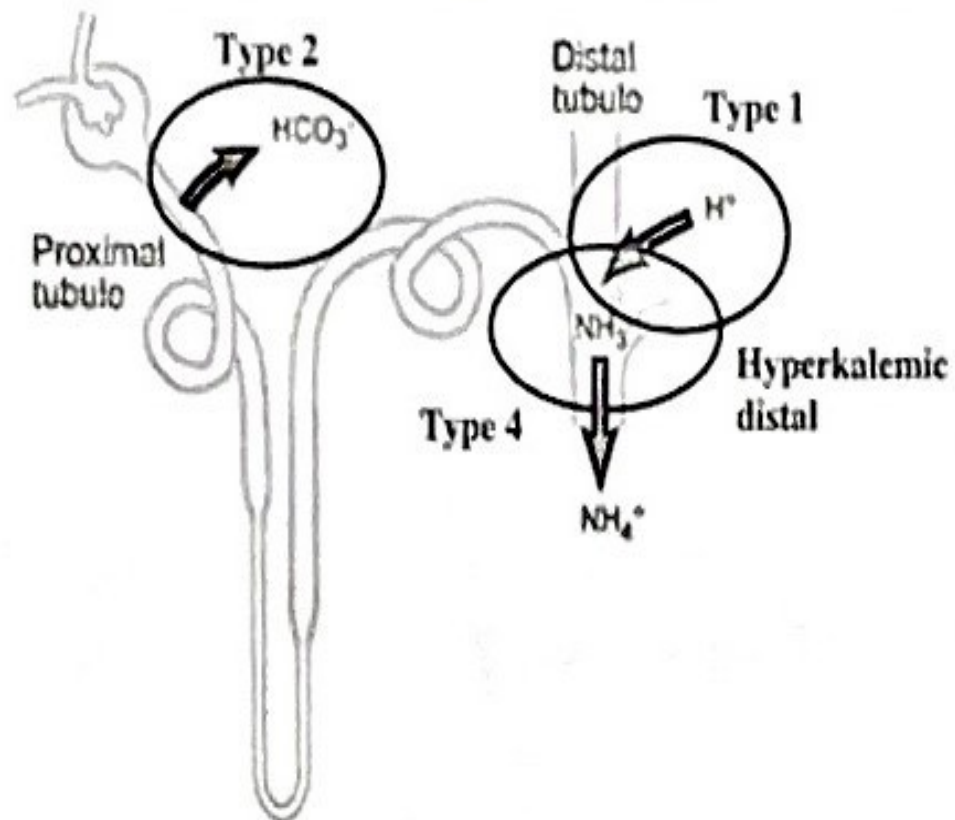
## Urine anion gap

In the setting of acidemia, urine  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  should be negligible, and urine  $\text{NH}_4^+$  should be HIGH

=> Urine AG should be LOW



## Acid excretion mechanisms in renal tubule



## Clinical features of RTA

	Diarrhea	Proximal RTA	Distal RTA		
			Type 1	Type 4	Hyperkalemic distal
<b>Serum <math>\text{K}^+</math></b>		↓			↑
<b>Urine AG</b>	Negative	Variable		Positive	
<b>Urine pH</b>		Variable	>5.5	<5.5	>5.5
<b>Other</b>		Fanconi syndrome		Nephrocalcinosis	

## Fanconi syndrome

- Hypokalemia, non-gap metabolic acidosis  
*plus*
- Glycosuria despite normoglycemia
- Generalized amino-aciduria
- Hypophosphatemia and urinary phosphate wasting ( $F_E PO_4 > 5\%$ )
- Hypouricemia

## Causes of RTA

Proximal RTA	Distal RTA		
	Type I	Type 4	Hypokalemic distal
<b>Cystinosis</b>	<b>Hereditary</b>		
	<b>Medullary sponge kidney</b>		
<b>Myeloma</b>	<b>Sjogren's</b>	<b>Hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism</b>	
<b>LCDD</b>	<b>SLE</b>	<b>(CRF + DbN)</b>	
<b>Ifosfamide</b>	<b>Cirrhosis</b>	<b>Sickle cell</b>	<b>Sickle cell</b>
<b>NNRTI</b>	<b>Amphotericin</b>	<b>SLE</b>	<b>SLE</b>
		<b>Obstruction</b>	<b>Obstruction</b>
		<b>HIV</b>	<b>HIV</b>

## Treatment of RTA

Proximal RTA	Distal RTA		
	Type 1	Type 4	Hyperkalemia: distal
<b>Na &amp; K bicarbonate 2-4 mEq/kg/d</b>	<b>K bicarbonate or citrate 1-3 mEq/kg/d</b>	<b>Control of hyperkalemia (diuretics, polystyrene sulfonate)</b>	

## EVALUATION OF PATIENT WITH ACID-BASE DISTURBANCE

The initial step in evaluation of any patient is the history, focusing on the gastrointestinal, renal, respiratory and neurologic systems, and medication list, and the physical exam, focusing on respiratory rate and volume status. Next the arterial pH is measured to determine whether there is acidemia or alkalemia. The direction of changes in serum bicarbonate and  $PCO_2$  are used to discern the presence of underlying metabolic or respiratory disorders, respectively. The direction and degree of any compensatory responses are next assessed. Inadequate or excessive compensation generally points to a mixed acid-base disorder.

### **Metabolic acidosis**

The serum anion gap is the most useful test for distinguishing disorders with a high anion gap (the commonest are lactic acidosis, ketoacidosis, intoxication with ethylene glycol, methanol, salicylates, and renal failure) from those with a normal gap (diarrhea, renal tubular acidosis and dilutional acidosis). In anion gap acidoses, comparison of the magnitude of the increased gap to the severity of the acidosis (the "delta-delta") may suggest the presence of a mixed disorder due to superimposed metabolic alkalosis ( $\text{delta-delta} > 1$ ) or non-gap acidosis ( $\text{delta-delta} < 1$ ). In the presence of potential intoxication, measurement of the serum osmolality and calculation of the osmolar gap may indicate the presence of additional osmotically active solutes such as ethanol, methanol, ethylene glycol, or isopropanol. Newer causes of gap acidosis that the clinician should be aware of include D-lactic acidosis, 5-oxoprolinuria, and propylene glycol intoxication. In the non-gap acidoses, the urine anion gap should be measured. An elevated urine anion gap suggests either inadequate urine ammonium, or (rarely) the presence of urine bicarbonate, and point to renal tubular acidosis, while a negative gap is consistent with diarrhea. The various forms of renal tubular acidoses can usually be distinguished by the serum K, urine pH, and the presence of any associated abnormalities such as nephrocalcinosis or Fanconi syndrome. Proximal renal tubular acidoses generally require considerably more alkali to correct than distal renal tubular acidoses. Type IV renal tubular acidoses are usually treated by lowering the serum potassium with diuretics or ion exchange resins.