# 🖊 Acids vs. Bases

• Normal Acid:Base ratio ≈ 1:20 → Meaning for every 1 acid molecule, there are 20 base molecules to maintain balance.

- Acid = a substance that donates protons (H<sup>+</sup> ions).
- Base = a substance that receives protons (H<sup>+</sup> ions).
- Strength of an acid or base depends on how easily it gives or takes hydrogen ions (H<sup>+</sup>) in water.

In water = the biological solvent.

# 🖊 pH Concept

- **pH** tells **how much H**<sup>+</sup> is in a solution.
- pH is an *indirect measure* of [H<sup>+</sup>].

Formula:  $\rightarrow$  pH = -log[H<sup>+</sup>] (as H<sup>+</sup> increases, pH drops)

Important detail:

Hydrogen ions do not float free — they are linked to adjacent water molecules by hydrogen bonds ( $H_3O^+$ ).

- If [H<sup>+</sup>] doubles, pH drops by 0.3.
- Normal plasma pH = 7.36–7.44 (slightly alkaline, not exactly neutral).

pH 7.0 is chemically neutral, but in the body it's **fatal**.

рН	[H⁺]
7.40	40 nM
7.36	44 nM
7.44	36 nM
7.00	100 nM

## Buffers Overview

**Buffers** = substances that **stabilize pH** by accepting or donating H<sup>+</sup> ions.

• Extracellular buffers (in plasma):

## Main: Carbonic acid/Bicarbonate (H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) system.

Intracellular buffers (inside cells):

#### Proteins (like Albumin).

Phosphoric acid / Hydrogen phosphate system (H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>/H<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>/HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>).

- Special buffer:
- Hemoglobin binds or releases H<sup>+</sup> depending on needs.

• Equation to relate them:  $\rightarrow$  Henderson-Hasselbalch equation  $\rightarrow$  pH = 6.1 + log([HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>]/(0.03 × PCO<sub>2</sub>)) (Modified form: [H<sup>+</sup>] = 24 × PCO<sub>2</sub> ÷ [HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>])

- Lungs control CO<sub>2</sub> (fast).
- Kidneys control HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (slow).

# 🖉 Plasma pH Balance Diagram

H<sup>+</sup> input comes from:

- **Diet** (Fatty acids, Amino acids).
- Metabolism (CO<sub>2</sub>, Lactic acid, Ketoacids).
- Buffers work to neutralize:
- HCO₃<sup>−</sup> in plasma.
- Proteins, Hemoglobin, Phosphates inside cells.
- Phosphates and Ammonia in urine.

H<sup>+</sup> output:

- Respiration removes CO<sub>2</sub> (lungs).
- Kidneys excrete H<sup>+</sup> (urine).

## **Organs Involved in Acid-Base Balance**

- 🔴 Blood and Plasma:
- Blood stays balanced with plasma (the liquid part of blood).
- Blood has high buffer capacity (this means it can resist changes in pH).

**W** Haemoglobin (inside red blood cells):

- It's the **main buffer** for **CO<sub>2</sub>** (carbon dioxide).
- It stops pH from changing too much.
- Other buffers: bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and proteins/phosphates.
- 📏 Side note: Bicarbonate is the major extracellular buffer system.

## Lungs (Ventilation):

- Lungs get rid of CO<sub>2</sub> by breathing.
- We normally remove about 12,000 mmol of CO<sub>2</sub> every day.

Normal If you breathe faster → You throw out more CO<sub>2</sub> → You get rid of H<sup>+</sup> ions → Less acidic (prevent acidosis). Normal If you breathe slower → CO<sub>2</sub> builds up → H<sup>+</sup> ions build up → More acidic (causes acidosis).

- lmportant:
- **V** Breathing = Hypoventilation = Acidosis.
- **The Breathing = Hyperventilation** = Alkalosis.

#### 🛀 Kidneys:

- Kidneys reabsorb bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) about 4,000–5,000 mmol/day.
- They excrete fixed acids like sulfuric acid and phosphoric acid.
- About 100 mmol/day of fixed acid is removed.

# 🚾 Compare:

- Lungs remove **volatile acid** (CO<sub>2</sub>).
- Kidneys remove **fixed acids** (that can't evaporate).

#### Liver and Bone in Acid-Base Balance

🇳 Liver:

- Makes **CO<sub>2</sub>** by **complete oxidation** of carbs, fats, proteins.
- About 20% of your body's daily CO<sub>2</sub> is made by the liver.
- Liver also handles:
- Metabolism of organic acids (like lactate, ketones, amino acids).
- Metabolism of ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>):
- When liver changes  $NH_4^+$  to urea  $\rightarrow H^+$  is made  $\rightarrow$  adds to acid load.
- **Production of plasma proteins** (mainly albumin).

 $\checkmark$  Albumin helps maintain the anion gap (important for acid-base balance).

# Pones:

- Bones have a mineral called **hydroxyapatite** [Ca<sub>10</sub>(PO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>6</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>].
- It acts like a **buffer**!
- Bone can **absorb** H<sup>+</sup> to help when there is too much acid.
- Bone exchanges H<sup>+</sup> for calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>), and potassium (K<sup>+</sup>).

😢 Chronic acidosis (too much acid for a long time):

• Bone loses minerals → Bone becomes weaker → Fracture risk increases.

# **Metabolism Produces Acids Continuously**

# **Metabolism = Acid production non-stop**.

Sources:

- Volatile acids (like CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>): 12,000–24,000 mmol/day → removed by lungs.
- Fixed acids (lactate, phosphate, sulfate, etc.): 70–100 mmol/day  $\rightarrow$  removed by kidneys.
- **Buffering System**:

- $CO_2 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_2CO_3 \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCO_3^-$
- Hemoglobin helps buffer CO<sub>2</sub> inside red blood cells.
- **Excretion**:
- Lungs remove CO<sub>2</sub> by breathing.
- Kidneys remove H<sup>+</sup> and reabsorb bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup>).
- $\mathbb{N}$  pCO<sub>2</sub> (pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>) is regulated by breathing rate.
- Faster breathing = lower pCO<sub>2</sub>
- Slower breathing = higher pCO<sub>2</sub>
- I Total CO₂ =
- [Bicarbonate] + [Carbonic Acid] + [Carbamino CO<sub>2</sub>] + [Dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>].

# Intracellular pH Is Critical

Inside the cells, pH control is **most important** for survival.

- Plasma pH affects intracellular pH.
- Doctors use **blood (plasma) tests** to understand what's happening **inside the cells** because direct measurement is hard.
- 🖊 Examples:
- Low plasma pH (acidosis) → means intracellular acid is high.
- High plasma pH (alkalosis)  $\rightarrow$  less intracellular acid.

We look at extracellular results to guess about intracellular conditions.

# More Details about Intracellular vs Extracellular pH

- Intracellular pH (inside cells):
- Around 6.8 at 37°C (slightly acidic compared to blood).
- This keeps metabolic processes working properly.
- Extracellular pH (blood and plasma):
- Around **7.4**.
- It's higher by 0.5–0.6 units than intracellular pH.
- Creates a **fourfold gradient**: pushes H<sup>+</sup> out of cells (to protect cells from acid overload).
- Flow body maintains intracellular pH:
- Intracellular buffering (chemical/metabolic).
- Arterial pCO<sub>2</sub> control (through breathing).
- Loss of fixed acids from cells to extracellular fluid.

# **Respiratory System and pH Control**

- CO2 and breathing:
- $pCO_2$ ,  $H^+$ , and  $pO_2$  control breathing rate.
- Acidemia (low pH = more H<sup>+</sup>):
- Stimulates brain center  $\rightarrow$  breathing rate increases  $\rightarrow$  get rid of CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Alkalemia (high pH = less H<sup>+</sup>):
- Suppresses brain center  $\rightarrow$  breathing rate decreases  $\rightarrow$  retain CO<sub>2</sub>.
- $^{
  m Normal}$  ventilation keeps pCO₂ around 40 mmHg.
- **Hyperventilation**  $\rightarrow$  CO<sub>2</sub> decreases  $\rightarrow$  causes alkalosis.
- **Hypoventilation**  $\rightarrow$  CO<sub>2</sub> builds up  $\rightarrow$  causes acidosis.

# **Renal System and pH Control**

- 🖼 Kidneys do 2 big jobs:
- Proximal tubules:
- Reabsorb bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) to prevent its loss.
- Produce ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) to help buffer acid.

# Distal tubules:

- Excrete H<sup>+</sup> directly.
- Make titratable acidity (TA) using phosphate and ammonium.
- Add NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> into urine.
- **T** Urine can become very acidic (pH = 4.5):
- This allows kidneys to excrete **1000x more acid** if needed!

# Summary:

- Bicarbonate reabsorption prevents alkalosis.
- Ammonium production removes extra acid.
- Low urine pH = extreme acid removal if necessary.

# Proximal Tubule - NaHCO<sub>3</sub> Reabsorption

# Main Function:

- Reabsorb **bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)** to **help maintain blood pH**.
- How it works (step-by-step):
- 1. Na<sup>+</sup>/H<sup>+</sup> exchanger (NHE3):
- Pushes Na<sup>+</sup> in and pushes H<sup>+</sup> out into the urine (lumen).
- 2. The H<sup>+</sup> in the urine combines with  $HCO_3^- \rightarrow$  forms  $CO_2 + H_2O$  (using the enzyme carbonic anhydrase).
- 3. **CO<sub>2</sub>** then **diffuses** (moves) **back into the cell** easily.
- 4. Inside the cell,  $CO_2 + H_2O$  are turned back into **HCO<sub>3</sub>**<sup>-</sup>.
- 5. **HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is sent into the blood**  $\rightarrow$  keeps blood from becoming too acidic.

# lmportant:

• Without this reabsorption, you would lose too much HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> in urine → blood would get acidic!

# Thick Ascending Limb (TAL) Transport

Main Function:

- Reabsorb Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> ions  $\rightarrow$  helps create the concentration gradient needed to concentrate urine.
- How it works:
- 1. Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup>/2Cl<sup>-</sup> cotransporter (NKCC2) pulls these ions into the cell from urine.
- 2. Some K<sup>+</sup> leaks back out into the urine  $\rightarrow$  makes the urine positively charged.
- 3. This positive charge helps **pull Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup>** (calcium and magnesium) into the blood.
- Big idea: this area is very important for saving salts and water.

# Secretion of $H^+$ in $\alpha$ -Intercalated Cells (Cortical Collecting Duct)

Main Function:

- Secrete acid ( $H^+$ ) into the urine  $\rightarrow$  regulates blood pH.
- How it works:
- 1. H<sup>+</sup>-ATPase pumps H<sup>+</sup> out into urine.
- 2. Inside the cell,  $CO_2 + H_2O$  are made into  $H^+$  and  $HCO_3^-$ .
- 3. **HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> goes to the blood** (via Cl<sup>-</sup>/HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> exchanger).
- **V** This way:
- Acid is thrown into the urine.
- Bicarbonate is kept inside the blood (prevents acidosis).

# Secretion of $HCO_3^-$ in $\beta$ -Intercalated Cells (Cortical Collecting Duct)

Main Function:

- Secrete **bicarbonate (HCO₃<sup>-</sup>)** when you have **alkalosis** (blood is too basic).
- How it works:
- 1. **HCO<sub>3</sub>**<sup>-</sup> is pushed **into the urine** (via Pendrin exchanger).

## 2. H<sup>+</sup> is kept inside the blood.

**V** This fixes the problem by getting rid of extra base (bicarbonate)  $\rightarrow$  helping lower blood pH.

## Principal Cell - Sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>) Transport (Cortical Collecting Duct)

Main Function:

- Reabsorb **Na<sup>+</sup>** and **secrete K<sup>+</sup>** controlled by **aldosterone** hormone.
- How it works:
- 1. **ENaC channel** lets Na<sup>+</sup> come inside the cell.
- 2. Na<sup>+</sup>/K<sup>+</sup> ATPase pumps Na<sup>+</sup> into blood and K<sup>+</sup> out into urine.

**V** This controls **salt and water balance**, and **potassium levels**.

#### Summary of Bicarbonate Reabsorption in the Kidney

- 対 Goal:
- Reabsorb almost **all filtered HCO**<sup>3-</sup> back into blood.
- Excrete acid (H<sup>+</sup>) in urine.
- Numbers:
- 85% reabsorbed in **proximal tubule**.
- 10% in **loop of Henle**.
- 5% in distal tubule and collecting duct.

Very little bicarbonate is lost in urine — kidney saves it to protect blood pH.

## Proximal Tubule - H<sup>+</sup> Secretion and HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> Reabsorption

- **Simple steps**:
- 1. **H<sup>+</sup> is secreted** into urine.
- 2. It combines with HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to form H<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> (carbonic acid).
- 3.  $H_2CO_3$  breaks down into  $CO_2 + H_2O$ .
- 4. **CO<sub>2</sub> diffuses back** into the cell.
- 5. Inside the cell:  $CO_2 + H_2O$  make new **HCO<sub>3</sub>**<sup>-</sup>, which is sent to the blood.

This saves bicarbonate and throws out acid.

#### Distal Tubule - Final H<sup>+</sup> Secretion

- 🛀 Main Function:
- Excrete the last bit of acid (H<sup>+</sup>) that wasn't excreted earlier.
- How it works:
- 1. **H<sup>+</sup> is actively pumped** into the urine.
- 2.  $H^+$  combines with  $HCO_3^-$  inside the cell  $\rightarrow H_2CO_3 \rightarrow CO_2 + H_2O$ .
- 3. Very strong acidic urine pH (4.5) can be achieved!

This removes the final acid and protects blood from becoming too acidic.

#### **Phosphate Buffering**

Main Function:

- Helps **trap H**<sup>+</sup> safely in the urine without making the urine extremely acidic.
- How it works:
- 1.  $H^+$  binds to **phosphate (HPO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>)**  $\rightarrow$  forms  $H_2PO_4^-$  (which is excreted).
- 2. This helps remove H<sup>+</sup> without hurting urine too much.

Bicarbonate is made at the same time and returned to blood.

#### Ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) Buffering

Main Function:

- Helps **remove acid** when acid levels are very high.
- How it works:

•

- 1. Cells make **ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>)**.
- 2.  $NH_3$  diffuses into urine and binds to secreted  $H^+ \rightarrow$  forms  $NH_4^+$ .
- 3. NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is trapped in urine and removed.

**V** Each time  $NH_4^+$  is made, **new bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub>-)** is made and sent into the blood.

Part	Main Function	Key Transport/Action	Goal
Proximal Tubule	Reabsorb HCO₃ <sup>−</sup>	Na <sup>+</sup> /H <sup>+</sup> exchanger	Save bicarbonate,
		(NHE3), Carbonic	remove H⁺
		Anhydrase	
Thick Ascending Limb	Reabsorb Na⁺, K⁺, Cl⁻	NKCC2 cotransporter	Create salt gradient for
(TAL)			urine concentration
α-Intercalated Cells	Secrete H <sup>+</sup> into urine	H <sup>+</sup> ATPase	Remove acid, reabsorb
(Collecting Duct)			HCO₃⁻
β-Intercalated Cells	Secrete HCO₃ <sup>–</sup> into	Pendrin (Cl⁻/HCO₃⁻	Remove extra base
(Collecting Duct)	urine (in alkalosis)	exchanger)	
Principal Cells	Reabsorb Na⁺, secrete	ENaC + Na <sup>+</sup> /K <sup>+</sup> ATPase	Maintain salt, water,
(Collecting Duct)	K+	(Aldosterone control)	potassium balance
Distal Tubule +	Final acid secretion	Active H <sup>+</sup> transport	Create very acidic urine
Collecting Duct			(pH 4.5)
Phosphate Buffering	Trap H <sup>+</sup> safely	$\rm H^+$ binds to $\rm HPO_4^{2-}$ $\rightarrow$	Excrete H <sup>+</sup> without
		H₂PO₄ <sup>−</sup>	making urine too acidic
Ammonia (NH₃)	Remove large amounts	$\rm NH_3$ binds $\rm H^+ \rightarrow \rm NH_4^+$	Excrete H <sup>+</sup> and make
Buffering	of H⁺		new HCO₃ <sup>-</sup>

## 🛝 Respiratory Alkalosis

#### Definition:

• It's a **primary disorder** where **pH goes up** (alkalosis) because of **low PaCO<sub>2</sub>** (carbon dioxide pressure falls below 35 mmHg).

• This is called **hypocapnia** (low CO<sub>2</sub> in the blood).

#### Time Course:

- Acute:
- pH rises immediately because of a sudden drop in CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Chronic:

• Over 3–4 days, the **kidneys compensate** by **excreting bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)** to lower the pH back closer to normal.

#### Causes:

- **CNS Disease** (e.g., brain tumor affects breathing control)
- **Toxins** (e.g., salicylates early phase causes hyperventilation)
- **High Altitude** (low oxygen  $\rightarrow$  hyperventilation)
- Pulmonary Embolism or Pneumonia (breathing faster due to lung problem)
- Sepsis (infection → changes in breathing)

**Liver Cirrhosis** (affects metabolism  $\rightarrow$  breathing changes)

Acute: High pH now

Chronic: Kidneys remove HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>−</sup> to bring pH back

#### 🛝 Respiratory Alkalosis Summary Table

- If pH > 7.45, think respiratory alkalosis.
- The primary problem =  $\downarrow$  PaCO<sub>2</sub>. •
- The compensatory response =  $\downarrow$  HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>.

#### **Compensation:**

- Acute: ٠
- ٠ 1–2 mmol/L decrease in HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> for every 10 mmHg decrease in PaCO<sub>2</sub>.
- Chronic:

4–5 mmol/L decrease in HCO3<sup>-</sup> for every 10 mmHg decrease in PaCO₂ (because kidneys have more time to adjust).

#### Simple Summary:

Туре	What Happens	HCO₃ <sup>-</sup> change
Acute	Fast drop in $CO_2 \rightarrow$ fast pH rise	$\downarrow$ 1–2 mmol/L
Chronic	Slow adaptation $\rightarrow$ kidneys	$\downarrow$ 4–5 mmol/L
	lower HCO₃ <sup>-</sup> more	

#### **Important Overlapping Disorders:**

- Sighing Syndrome (excessive deep breaths without a real need) •
- Panic Disorder (anxiety attacks cause hyperventilation)
- Cardiopulmonary Disease (lung/heart diseases lead to breathing problems)

These overlap around **Hyperventilation Syndrome**, where people breathe too much and lose too much  $CO_2 \rightarrow$ leading to respiratory alkalosis.

#### 🤜 Simple Venn Diagram Idea:

CSS

CopyEdit

```
[Sighing Syndrome]
       ١
```

[Panic Disorder] - [Cardiopulmonary Disease]

```
١
    1
```

[Hyperventilation Syndrome]

# Metabolic Acidosis

Definition:

- Primary disorder where pH decreases because of: •
- Loss of bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) ٠
- OR Fixed addition of H<sup>+</sup> (acid). ٠

#### Anion Gap Concept:

- When there's **extra acid** added  $\rightarrow$  **High Anion Gap** (AG).
- If bicarbonate is lost but no extra acid  $\rightarrow$  Normal Anion Gap.

# Anion Gap formula:

AG=[Na+]-([Cl-]+[HCO3- ]) Normal range: around **8–12 mEq/L**.

#### Low Albumin Note:

- Albumin is negatively charged.
- If albumin is low, it **lowers AG** → you must **adjust** AG: Add 2.5 mEq/L to AG for every 1 g/dL ↓ albumin Add 2.5 mEq/L to AG for every 1 g/dL ↓ albumin

#### Metabolic Acidosis = $\downarrow$ pH

If extra acids (e.g., lactate, ketones)  $\rightarrow$  High AG If bicarbonate lost (e.g., diarrhea)  $\rightarrow$  Normal AG

If extra acids (e.g., lactate, ketones)  $\rightarrow$  High AG If bicarbonate lost (e.g., diarrhea)  $\rightarrow$  Normal AG

Causes of Metabolic Acidosis

Types:

- High Anion Gap Metabolic Acidosis (HAGMA):
- Loss of bicarbonate AND addition of acids.
- Normal Anion Gap Metabolic Acidosis (NAGMA):
- Loss of bicarbonate only, chloride increases to compensate.

#### Quick Bar Chart (visualized on your slide):

Туре	Changes	Causes
High AG	HCO₃⁻ ↓, AG 个	Lactate, Ketones, Toxins
Normal AG	HCO₃⁻ ↓, CI⁻ ↑	Diarrhea, Renal issues

#### Causes: High vs Normal Anion Gap

- High AG Acidosis (addition of unmeasured acids):
- Lactate
- **Ketones** (e.g., DKA, starvation)
- **Toxins** (methanol, ethylene glycol, salicylates)
- Normal AG Acidosis (loss of bicarbonate, no acid accumulation):
- Diarrhea
- Renal Tubular Acidosis (RTA)
- Ureteral diversions

#### Simple Table:

High AG	Normal AG
Lactic acidosis	Diarrhea
Ketoacidosis	RTA
Toxins (methanol, aspirin)	Ureteral issues

# **Frable of Mechanisms**

This slide summarizes causes:

- High AG Causes: Lactic acidosis, ketoacidosis, methanol, ethylene glycol, aspirin.
- Normal AG Causes: Diarrhea, RTA (Type 2, Type 4), ureterosigmoidostomy.

#### Tiny Table Summary:

Increased AG	Normal AG
Methanol	Diarrhea
Lactic acidosis	RTA Type 2/4
DKA	Ureteral diversions

# **CAT MUDPILES Mnemonic**

Mnemonic for causes of High Anion Gap Acidosis:

Letter	Cause
С	Carbon monoxide, Cyanide, Congenital heart
	disease
А	Aminoglycosides
Т	Theophylline, Toluene
Μ	Methanol
U	Uremia
D	Diabetic ketoacidosis
Р	Paracetamol, Phenformin, Paraldehyde
1	Iron, Isoniazid, Inborn errors of metabolism
L	Lactic acidosis
E	Ethanol, Ethylene glycol
S	Salicylates

# <sup>4</sup> Non-Anion Gap Metabolic Acidosis

Causes:

GI Loss of HCO₃ <sup>−</sup>	Renal Acidosis
Diarrhea	Hypokalemia (RTA 2/1)
Ureterosigmoidostomy	Hyperkalemia (RTA 4)
GI Fistula, Villous Adenoma	Tubulointerstitial Disease

NAGMA = Loss of bicarbonate

- From GI  $\rightarrow$  Diarrhea, fistulas

- From kidneys  $\rightarrow$  RTA types

# P Non-Anion Gap Metabolic Acidosis

### Definition:

- Normal anion gap (AG).
- Hyperchloremic acidosis.
- Causes:
- GI bicarbonate loss:
- **Diarrhea**  $\rightarrow$  losing HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  $\rightarrow$  chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>) replaces bicarbonate (HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>).
- **External fistula**  $\rightarrow$  leaking fluids rich in bicarbonate.
- Ureterosigmoidostomy / ileal loop conduit → urine redirected to intestine, bicarbonate loss.
- Renal bicarbonate loss (Renal Tubular Acidosis RTA):
- **Type I RTA (Distal, Classical)**  $\rightarrow$  Proton secretion defect  $\rightarrow$  Urine pH >5.5  $\rightarrow$  hypokalemia, kidney stones.
- **Type II RTA (Proximal, Fanconi)**  $\rightarrow$  Bicarbonate reabsorption defect  $\rightarrow$  Urine pH <5.5  $\rightarrow$  hypokalemia.

• **Type IV RTA (Hyperkalemic)**  $\rightarrow$  Hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism  $\rightarrow$  high K<sup>+</sup>.

(Small table shown: summarizing defects + key features for each RTA)

## Diagnosis Flowchart (Hyperchloremic Metabolic Acidosis)

- Step 1: Check Urine Anion or Osmolal Gap:
- **High NH**<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (anion gap negative)  $\rightarrow$  Check bicarbonate excretion:
- If **increased**  $\rightarrow$  proximal RTA (or acetazolamide use).
- If **decreased**  $\rightarrow$  GI bicarbonate loss.
- Low NH₄<sup>+</sup> (anion gap positive) → Look at urine pH and serum K<sup>+</sup>:
- pH <5.5 + high  $K^+ \rightarrow$  Type IV RTA
- pH >5.5 + high  $K^+ \rightarrow$  Voltage-dependent RTA
- pH >5.5 + normal or low  $K^+ \rightarrow$  Classic distal RTA.

# Compensation for Metabolic Acidosis

- General Rule:
- Primary problem =  $\downarrow$  pH < 7.35
- Primary defect =  $\downarrow$  HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>
- Compensation =  $\downarrow$  PCO<sub>2</sub>
- 🔶 Formulas:
- Expected PCO<sub>2</sub> = (1.5 × HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) + 8 (±2) (OR)
- PCO<sub>2</sub> = HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> + 15 (OR)
- PCO<sub>2</sub> = last 2 digits of pH × 100

(These help assess if compensation is appropriate.)

## P Decreased Anion Gap

- Causes:
- Hypoalbuminemia (most common).
- Hypercalcemia (high calcium).
- **Hypermagnesemia** (high magnesium).
- Lithium intoxication (replaces sodium).
- Hypergammaglobulinemia (excess lgG).
- Bromide or iodide intoxication (interferes with lab tests).
- Summary Key:
- Low AG  $\rightarrow$  think hypoalbumin, high cations, or unmeasured anions.

## P Metabolic Acidosis - Metabolic Effects

- Respiratory System:
- **Hyperventilation** to blow off CO<sub>2</sub>.
- Shift of hemoglobin curve to the right initially (release more  $O_2$ ), then shifts back left with prolonged
- acidosis (worsens O<sub>2</sub> delivery).
- **Decreased 2,3 DPG**  $\rightarrow$  poor O<sub>2</sub> delivery.
- Cardiovascular System:
- ↓ Heart contractility.
- Arrhythmias (especially if hyperkalemia).
- Other Effects:
- Increased bone resorption → osteoporosis (only with chronic acidosis).
  - K<sup>+</sup> shifts out of cells  $\rightarrow$  hyperkalemia  $\rightarrow$  dangerous arrhythmias.

(Diagram shows brain, heart, lungs, kidneys — highlighting effects like tachycardia, hyperventilation, vasodilation.)



Hyperchloremic Metabolic Acidosis ↓ Measure Urine Anion Gap or Osmolal Gap ↓ Anion Gap Negative (↑ NH₄<sup>+</sup>) | - GI Losses (Diarrhea) | - Proximal RTA |

 $\checkmark$ 

Anion Gap Positive (↓ NH₄<sup>+</sup>) | - Type IV RTA | - Distal RTA (Voltage/Classic) |

## Vardiovascular Effects: Acidosis vs. Alkalosis

Acidosis	Alkalosis
- Impaired cardiac contractility (heart can't pump	- Arteriolar constriction (narrowing of small
strongly)	arteries)
- Arteriolar dilation (small arteries widen)	- Reduced coronary blood flow (less blood to the
- Venoconstriction (veins tighten)	<ul> <li>Reduced anginal threshold (easier to get chest pain)</li> </ul>
- Centralization of blood volume (blood moves to important organs)	<ul> <li>Decreased threshold for cardiac arrhythmias (irregular beats happen easier)</li> </ul>
<ul> <li>Increased pulmonary vascular resistance (lungs' vessels tighten)</li> </ul>	
<ul> <li>Decreased cardiac output (heart pumps less blood)</li> </ul>	
- Decreased systemic BP (lowers overall blood pressure)	
<ul> <li>Decreased hepatorenal blood flow (liver and kidneys get less blood)</li> </ul>	

- Decreased threshold for cardiac arrhythmias (easy	
for irregular beats)	
- Less responsiveness to catecholamines (body	
hormones like adrenaline don't work well)	

### Metabolic, Neurologic, and Respiratory Effects: Acidosis vs. Alkalosis

Acidosis	Alkalosis
Metabolic	Metabolic
- Insulin resistance (harder to control blood sugar)	- Stimulation of anaerobic glycolysis (makes more lactic acid)
- Inhibition of anaerobic glycolysis	- Formation of organic acids
- Reduction in ATP synthesis (less energy made)	<ul> <li>Decreased oxyhemoglobin dissociation (oxygen sticks to hemoglobin too much)</li> </ul>
- Hyperkalemia (个 potassium)	- $\downarrow$ Ionized calcium
- Protein degradation (muscles break down)	- Hypokalemia ( $\downarrow$ potassium)
- Bone demineralization (weak bones if chronic)	- Hypomagnesemia ( $\downarrow$ magnesium)
	- Hypophosphatemia ( $\downarrow$ phosphate)
Neurologic	Neurologic
- Inhibition of metabolism and cell-volume control	- Tetany (muscle spasms)
- Obtundation and coma	- Seizures
	- Lethargy
	- Delirium
	- Stupor
Respiratory	Respiratory
- Compensatory hyperventilation (breathing faster)	- Compensatory hypoventilation (breathing slows)
but risk of muscle fatigue	$ ightarrow$ hypercapnia ( $\uparrow$ CO <sub>2</sub> ) and hypoxemia ( $\downarrow$ oxygen)

### Mixed Acid-Base Disorders

- Metabolic and Respiratory Acidosis serious! (both cause acidosis → very bad)
- Metabolic and Respiratory Alkalosis serious! (both cause alkalosis → risky)
- Metabolic Acidosis & Respiratory Alkalosis mixed but can sometimes compensate
- Metabolic Alkalosis & Respiratory Acidosis mixed disorder
- Metabolic Acidosis & Alkalosis + Respiratory Disorder very mixed picture

Note: When **both are in same direction** (both acidic or both alkaline), it's worse because body can't compensate.

#### Δ Delta Gap (Mixed Disorders Detection)

- **Delta gap** = patient's anion gap normal anion gap.
- It's like an  $HCO_3^-$  equivalent:  $\rightarrow$  Every 1 unit increase in **anion gap** should match 1 unit decrease in  $HCO_3^-$ .
- If delta gap is higher than expected:  $\rightarrow$  *Extra* metabolic alkalosis also present.
- If delta gap is lower than expected:  $\rightarrow$  *Extra metabolic acidosis* also present.

Delta gap helps you spot hidden disorders!