

Acid-Base and Electrolytes

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Objectives

- Identify the 4 major acid-base disturbances, giving typical values for PCO_2 , pH, and HCO_3^-
- List the most common causes for each of the major acid-base disturbances
- Describe the significance of the “anion gap”
- Differentiate pseudohyponatremia from genuine hyponatremia

Important Fact #1

- Venous Blood Gas (VBG) samples can be used for Acid-Base analysis
 - Arterial Blood Gas (ABG) samples are required only for PO_2 and for PaO_2
 - VBG samples are acceptable because
 - pH and PCO_2 are comparable to ABG samples
 - exception: patients in severe circulatory failure (shock)
 - VBG samples can also be used to measure carboxyhemoglobin and methemoglobin

Important Fact #2 (from high school chemistry)



$$K = \frac{[\text{H}^+][\text{HCO}_3^-]}{[\text{H}_2\text{O}][\text{CO}_2]} = \frac{[\text{H}^+][\text{HCO}_3^-]}{P\text{CO}_2}$$

$$[\text{H}^+] = K \frac{P\text{CO}_2}{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}$$

$$[H^+] = K \frac{PCO_2}{[HCO_3^-]}$$

Implications

- $[H^+]$ is inversely proportional to HCO_3^-
 - decreases as HCO_3^- increases (obvious)
- $[H^+]$ is directly proportional to PCO_2
 - increases (more acid) as PCO_2 increases
- If PCO_2/HCO_3^- does not change
 $\rightarrow\rightarrow [H^+] \text{ does not change!}$
- pH is $-\log_{10}[H^+]$
 - if H^+ does not change, pH does not change

Important Fact #3

- Know 3 “normal” values

- $\text{PCO}_2 = 40$
- $\text{HCO}_3^- = 24$
- $\text{H}^+ = 40$ (pH=7.40)

$$[\text{H}^+] = K \frac{\text{PCO}_2}{[\text{HCO}_3^-]}$$

- → you can derive $K = 24$

- Also:

- 40 nmol/L $[\text{H}^+] = 7.40$
- 30 nmol/L $[\text{H}^+] = 7.50$ → +10 nmol ~ -0.10 pH
- 50 nmol/L $[\text{H}^+] = 7.30$ → -10 nmol ~ +0.10 pH

A Normal H⁺ (pH) Does Not Exclude an Acid-Base Disturbance

- In each of the following cases, the H⁺ (and pH) are the same:

PCO₂	40	10	80
HCO₃⁻	24	6	48

$$\frac{\text{PCO}_2}{\text{HCO}_3^-} = \frac{40}{24} = \frac{10}{6} = \frac{80}{48}$$

- But only the first case (40/24) is normal; the others (10/6 and 80/48) represent severe disturbances!

pH & Henderson-Hasselbalch

this is an example of a buffer,
a topic covered elsewhere in the course

$$[H^+] = K \frac{PCO_2}{[HCO_3^-]}$$



$$-\log_{10} [H^+] = -\log_{10} K - \log_{10} \frac{PCO_2}{[HCO_3^-]}$$

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK} + \log_{10} \frac{[HCO_3^-]}{PCO_2}$$

Important Fact #4

- The body does not try to maintain H^+ , but it helps to think it does
- In most acid-base disturbances, there is
 - a 1° disturbance, followed by
 - a 2° compensation which may take time to develop which partially, but ***never fully***, corrects the 1° disturbance

This Method for Acid-Base Analysis

- Exploits these four important facts
- Enables you to correctly
 - diagnose ~95% of acid-based disturbances
 - recognize the other ~5% as exceptions

Respiratory Alkalosis

Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Respiratory Alkalosis	↓	↓	↓	↑	Sepsis Anxiety

compensation

PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
20	18	24(20/18)=27	-13	7.53

“normal values” in parentheses

Acute Respiratory Alkalosis (no renal compensation)

Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Respiratory Alkalosis	↓	—	↓	↑	Sepsis Anxiety

PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
20	24	$24(20/24)=20$	-20	7.60

no
compensation

PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
20	18	$24(20/18)=27$	-13	7.53

compensation

Respiratory Acidosis

Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Respiratory Acidosis	↑	↑	↑	↓	Chronic Lung Disease Poor Ventilator Settings



PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
60	30	24(60/30)=48	+8	7.32

Metabolic Alkalosis

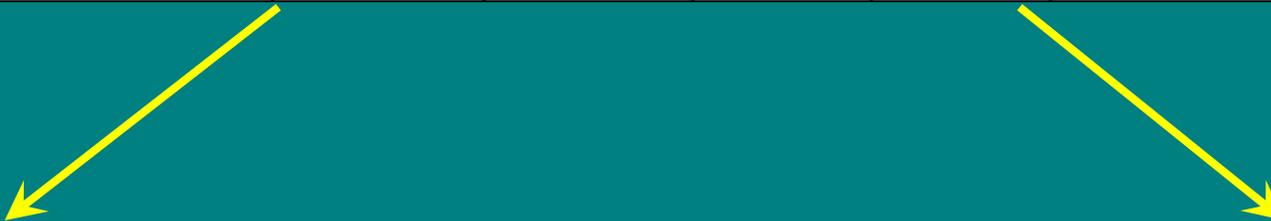
Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Metabolic Alkalosis	↑	↑	↓	↑	Vomiting Diuretic Therapy



PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
45	32	$24(45/32)=34$	-6	7.46

Metabolic Acidosis

Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Metabolic Acidosis	↓	↓	↑	↓	Diarrhea Diabetic Ketoacidosis



PCO ₂ (40)	HCO ₃ ⁻ (24)	H ⁺ (40)	ΔH ⁺ (from 40)	Predicted pH
30	15	24(30/15)=48	+8	7.32

Summary: Acid-Base Disturbances (with compensation)

Disturbance	PCO ₂	HCO ₃ ⁻	H ⁺	pH	Common Causes
Respiratory Alkalosis	↓	↓	↓	↑	Sepsis Anxiety
Respiratory Acidosis	↑	↑	↑	↓	Chronic Lung Disease Poor Ventilator Settings
Metabolic Alkalosis	↑	↑	↓	↑	Vomiting Diuretic Therapy
Metabolic Acidosis	↓	↓	↑	↓	Diarrhea Diabetic Ketoacidosis

PCO₂ and HCO₃ always move in same direction!

- if only one changes → acute disturbance
- if different direction → >1 disturbance!

Anion Gap

measured (but ignored) cations

unmeasured anions

Mg⁺⁺ = 1
Ca⁺⁺ = 3
K⁺ = 5

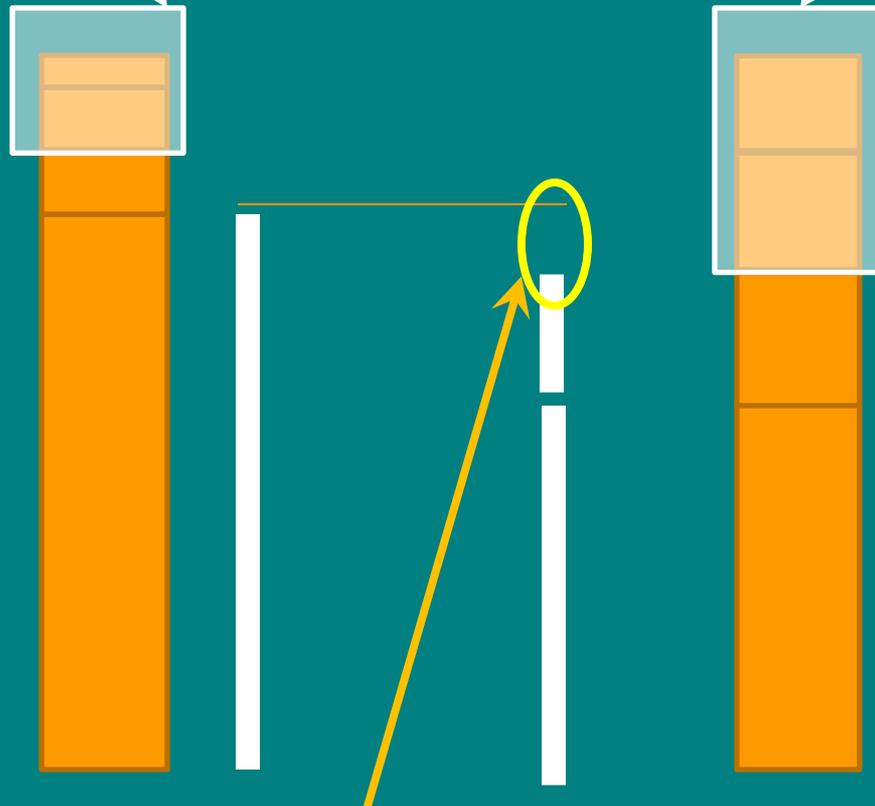
Acids = 9

Proteins = 16

HCO₃⁻ = 24

Na⁺ = 140

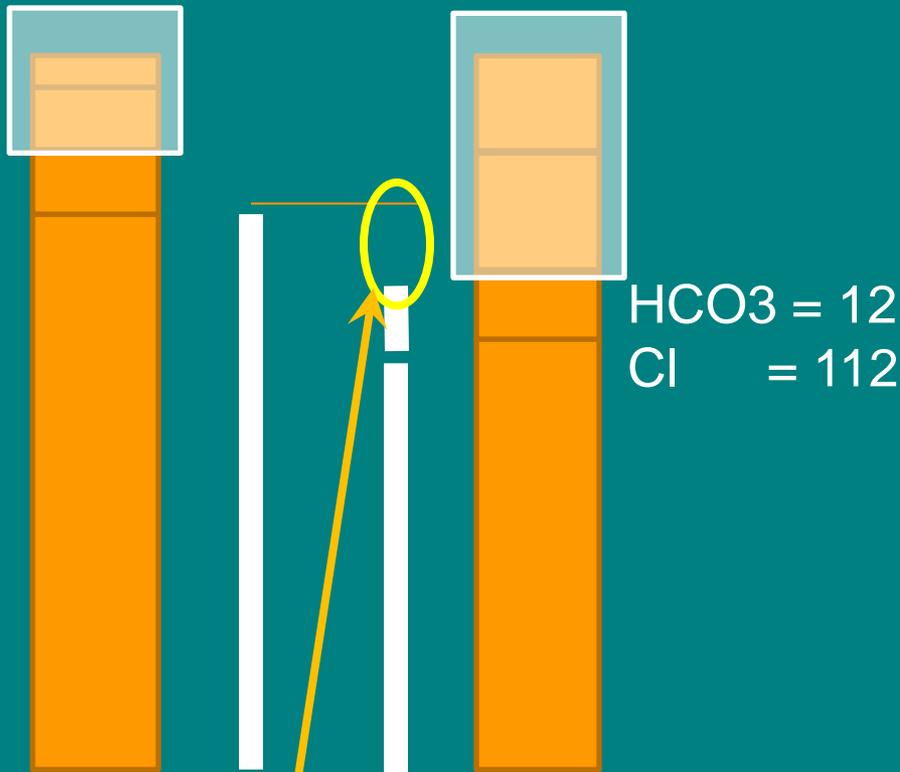
Cl⁻ = 100



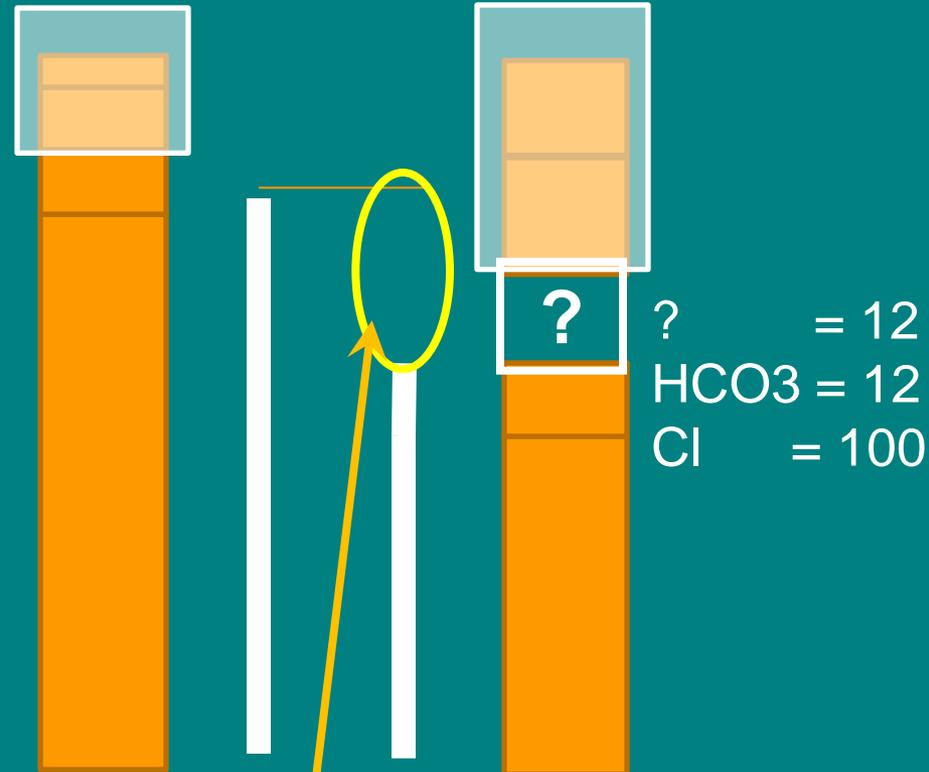
“anion gap”

Metabolic Acidosis

HCO_3^- Decreases from 24 to 12



Normal anion gap
Chloride has increased,
replacing lost HCO_3^-



Increased anion gap
Chloride has not changed
A new anion has replaced
lost HCO_3^-

On to Electrolytes

- HCO_3^- : covered already with acid-base
- Cl^- : covered already with anion gap
- that leaves Na and K
- specifically --
 - pseudohyponatremia
 - pre-analytic issues affecting hyperkalemia

Some General Comments

- measurement of Na, K, Cl:
 - ISE (ion selective electrodes)
- measurement of HCO_3^- :
 - usually, spectrophotometry
 - ABG analyzers: calculated from PCO_2 and pH
- focus in this talk will be measurement issues
- medical disorders will not be covered here
 - Hypo- and hyper-natremia are usually disorders of water (SIADH, lack of free access to water)

Pseudohyponatremia

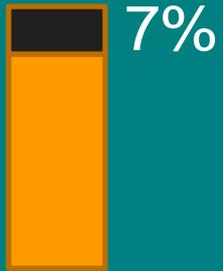
- hyponatremia is a fairly common abnormality
- pseudohyponatremia is relatively rare, but one needs to be rule it out often, so that only the patients with real hyponatremia receive treatment

ISE Measurement

- Distinguish between
 - Activity (in aqueous phase)
 - Concentration (in total volume)
- Serum is normally 93% water and 7% solids
 - the latter is comprised of proteins and triglycerides
- ISE:
 - electrode is permeable to all but ion of interest
 - difference in concentration of ion across electrode yields voltage difference (Nernst equation)
- Samples typically undergo large dilution for ISE:
 - separate phases disappear
 - one needs to correct result back to original sample

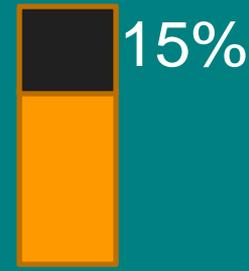
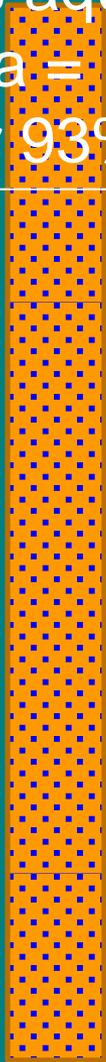
1.0 mL sample, $[\text{Na}] = 135 \text{ mmol/L}$
actually 93% aqueous, contains 126 $\mu\text{mol Na}$
measured $\text{Na} = 126 \text{ mmol/L}$
corrected for 93% aqueous $\rightarrow 135 \text{ mmol/L}$

1 mL sample, $[\text{Na}] = 135 \text{ mmol/L}$
actually 85% aqueous, contains 115 $\mu\text{mol Na}$
measured $\text{Na} = 115 \text{ mmol/L}$
corrected for 93% aqueous $\rightarrow 124 \text{ mmol/L}$



7%

sample 1:100 dilution



15%

sample 1:100 dilution



1.0 mL sample, [Na] = 135 mmol/L

Direct ISE measures 135 mmol/L

1.0 mL sample, [Na] = 135 mmol/L

Direct ISE measures 135 mmol/L

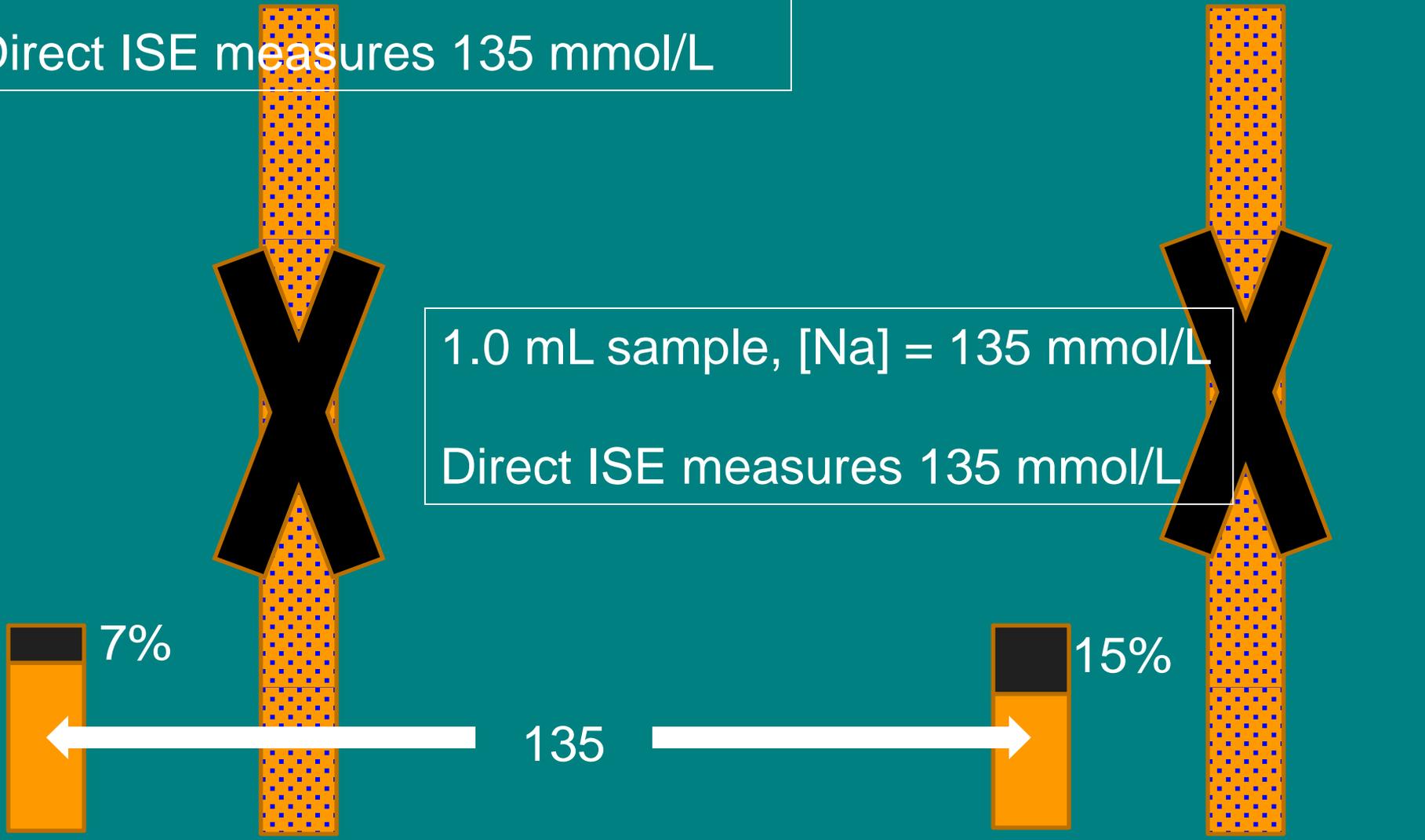
7%

15%

135

sample 1:100 dilution

sample 1:100 dilution



Final Notes on Pseudohyponatremia

- If you suspect it, you can determine the true [Na] by
 - using a non-dilutional ISE (e.g., ABG analyzer)
 - measuring osmolality (more on this later)
- You can also suspect it when you come across samples with
 - very high total protein (e.g., multiple myeloma)
 - very high triglycerides (e.g., lipemic samples)
- You might consider confirming all very low [Na]
- Whenever a clinician inquires about falsely low [Na], you should confirm your results

Hyperkalemia: Is It Real?

Things to Watch Out For (1)

- “Hemolysis”: *in vitro vs in vivo*
 - in vitro (real but not present in patient)
 - poor phlebotomy, prolonged storage without centrifugation
 - rejecting such samples may not be the best solution
 - A normal or low K on a hemolyzed sample may be helpful
 - Hgb indices can be used to calculate degree of hemolysis
 - in vivo (real and present in the patient)
 - in vivo hemolysis can be life-threatening
 - e.g., acute transfusion reaction, babesiosis
 - importance of hemoglobinuria to distinguish from in vitro

Hyperkalemia: Is It Real?

Things to Watch Out For (2)

- High platelet counts
 - serum K is ~0.5 mmol/L higher than plasma K
 - difference is proportional to platelet count
 - during clotting, platelets release K
 - with platelet counts >500K, effect may become clinically significant
 - to prove this is the case, analyze a plasma sample (e.g., heparin)
- Also reported with high WBC counts (and/or fragile WBCs)

Self-Assessment Question 1

Which of the following represents the typical findings in a respiratory alkalosis?

- A) increased PCO_2 , decreased HCO_3
- B) increased PCO_2 , increased HCO_3
- C) decreased PCO_2 , decreased HCO_3
- D) decreases PCO_2 , increased HCO_3

Self-Assessment Question 2

Which of the following is a cause for a normal anion gap metabolic acidosis?

- A) diarrhea
- B) diabetic ketoacidosis
- C) vomiting
- D) lactic acidosis

Self-Assessment Question 3

Pseudohyponatremia can be caused by which of the following:

- A) high glucose concentrations
- B) low platelet counts
- C) high concentrations of serum proteins (e.g., multiple myeloma)
- D) high concentrations of ADH