Metabolic Acid-Base Abnormalities

Jon Palmer, VMD, DACVIM Director of Neonatal/Perinatal Programs Graham French Neonatal Section, Connelly Intensive Care Unit New Bolton Center, University of Pennsylvania

Metabolic Acid-Base Abnormalities

Pathophysiology Metabolic acidosis SID acidosis Lactic Acidosis SIG acidosis unmeasured anions Unexplained metabolic acidosis Metabolic alkalosis SID alkalosis • Cl Responsive • Cl Resistant

Pathophysiology Disorders of acid-base balance

Acid-Base Balance Renal Regulation

 Renal excretion strong ions Most reabsorbed automatically Only able to excrete small amounts per min Thus it takes hours for a renal response
 Diet – similar ratios of strong cations/anions Sufficient CI available to filter If not reabsorbed – ↑SID
 CI excretion – primary regulating mechanism Na/K handling – other priorities – not acid-base

Renal Regulation Modifying SID

 Excrete CI⁻ without Na⁺ or K⁺ - regulate SID Charges must balance Excrete as NH₄+CI⁻
 Renal-Hepatic Interaction NH₄⁺ co-excretion with CI-NH₄⁺ produced in the kidney and liver

Renal Regulation Ammoniagenesis

 Hepatic glutaminogenesis Stimulated by acidosis
 Nitrogen metabolism in liver

 → Urea, glutamine, (NH₄⁺)
 Glutamine → kidney → ↑NH₄⁺ → ↑Cl⁻ excretion ↑Glutamine → alkalosis by ↓Cl⁻ relative to Na⁺

 Hepatocyte

Cells with urea production capacity

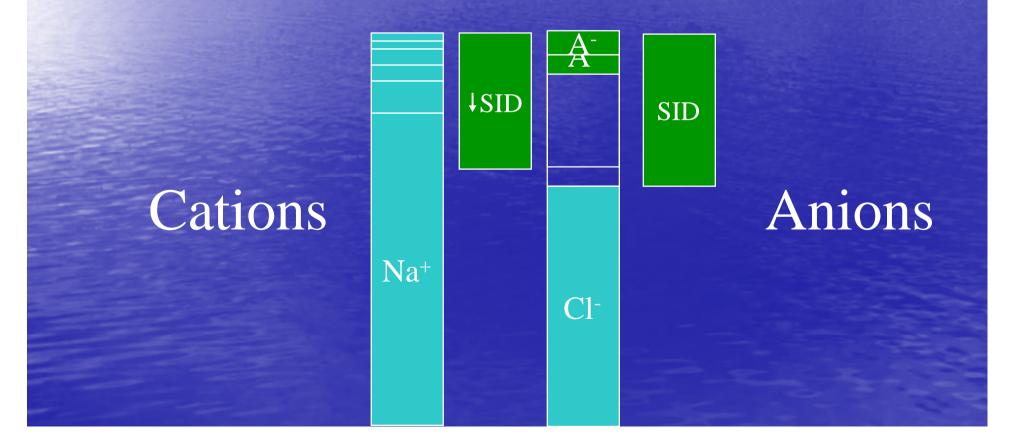
- Closer to portal vein
- GI tract nitrogen \rightarrow urea first
- Acidosis inhibits urea formation
 - N to glutamine producing cells $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Glutamine \rightarrow
 - Kidney \rightarrow NH₄⁺ \rightarrow \uparrow Cl⁻ loss \rightarrow compensatory Alk

Clinical Effects Of Metabolic Acidosis

 Brief exposure to acidosis well tolerated Exercise - pH < 7.15, lactate > 20 mEq/liter • Chronic mild acidosis (pH < 7.35) Metabolic bone disease Protein catabolism Critically ill patients Not tolerate even brief acidosis Metabolic acidosis patients Poorer outcome than respiratory acidosis Cause is more important than degree of acidosis Epiphenomenon

Rdubeatientests

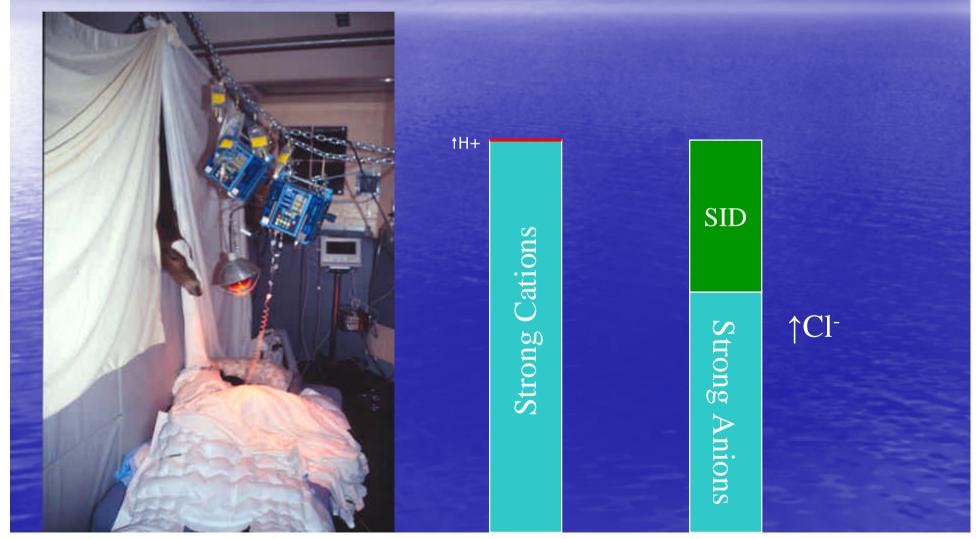
Low albumin $\rightarrow \downarrow$ SID Neonate $\uparrow PO_4 \rightarrow \uparrow$ SID



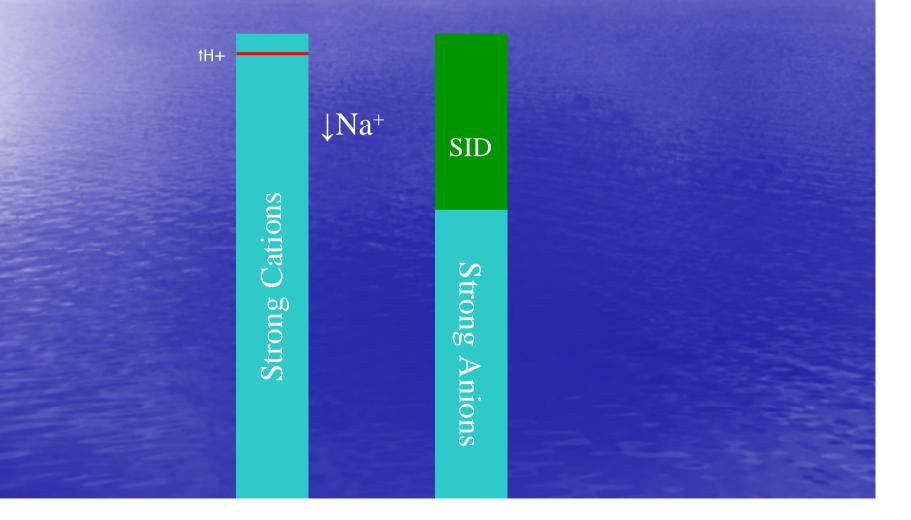
Metabolic Acidosis

-ICU patients SID = 30 Less reserve \uparrow Lac⁻ or \uparrow NaCl treatment \rightarrow more effect Have lower SID without evidence of acidosis 2ndary to $\downarrow alb \rightarrow \downarrow A^-$ No compensatory *JPco2* for other reasons So must JSID to maintain the pH • ↓ SID \rightarrow ↓ pH not linear As SID < $20 \rightarrow \text{greater} \downarrow \text{pH}$ As SID approaches $20 \rightarrow \text{small insult } \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow pH$

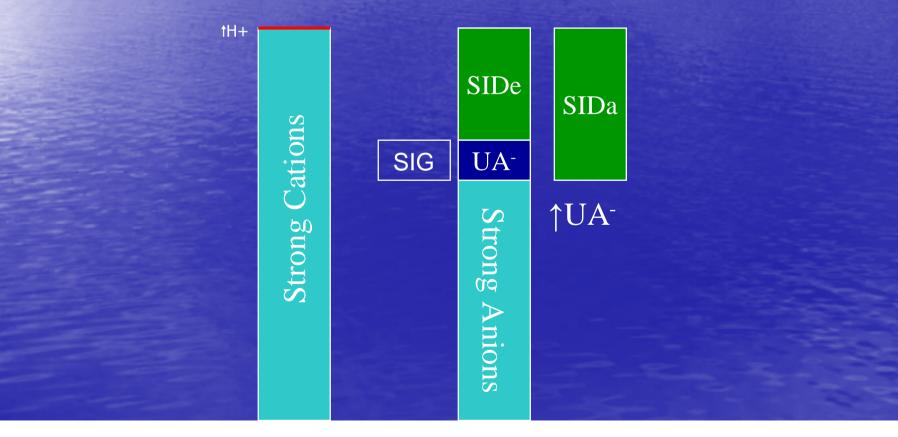
Metabolic Acidosis Strong Ion Acidosis Decrease SID



Metabolic Acidosis Strong Ion Acidosis Decrease SID



Metabolic Acidosis Increase in Unidentified Anions SIG < 0



Metabolic Acidosis

Metabolic acidosis
 \downarrow SID \rightarrow Results in \uparrow free H+ \rightarrow acidosis

 \downarrow SID

↑ Organic acids – ↑Lactate, ↑Ketones
 Loss of cations – diarrhea
 Mishandling of ions -- renal tubular acidosis
 ↑ Exogenous ions -- iatrogenic, poisoning

Metabolic Acidosis Strong ion acidosis

 Lactic acidosis
 Hyperchloremic acidosis



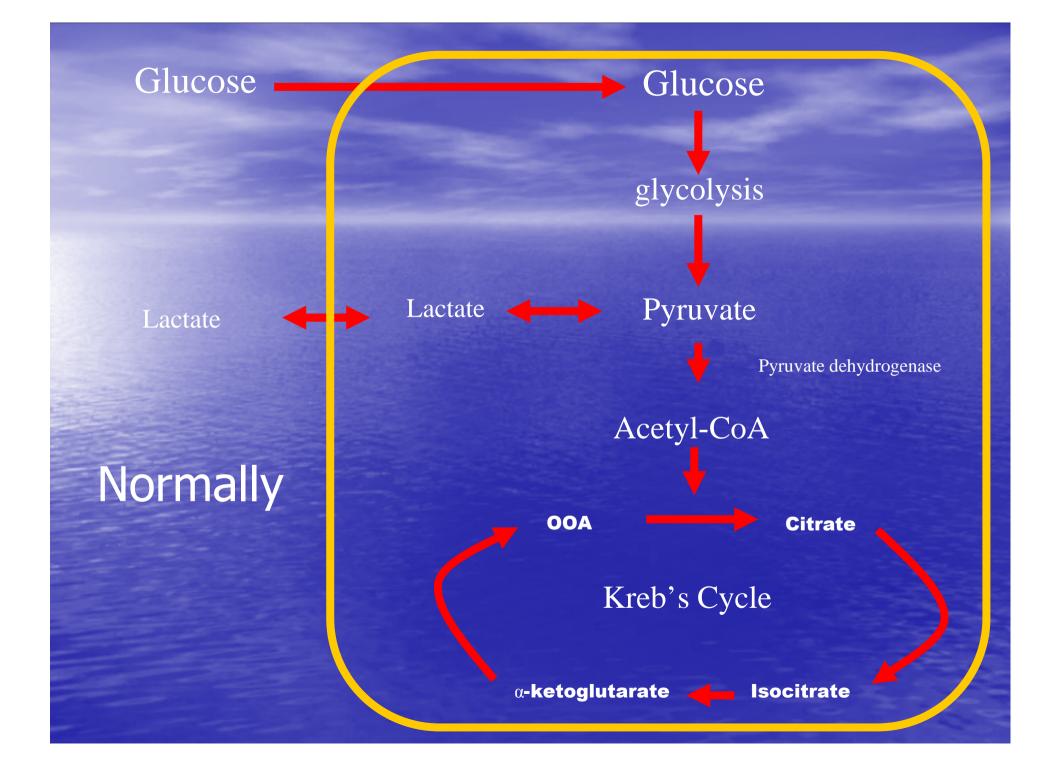
Lactic Acidosis

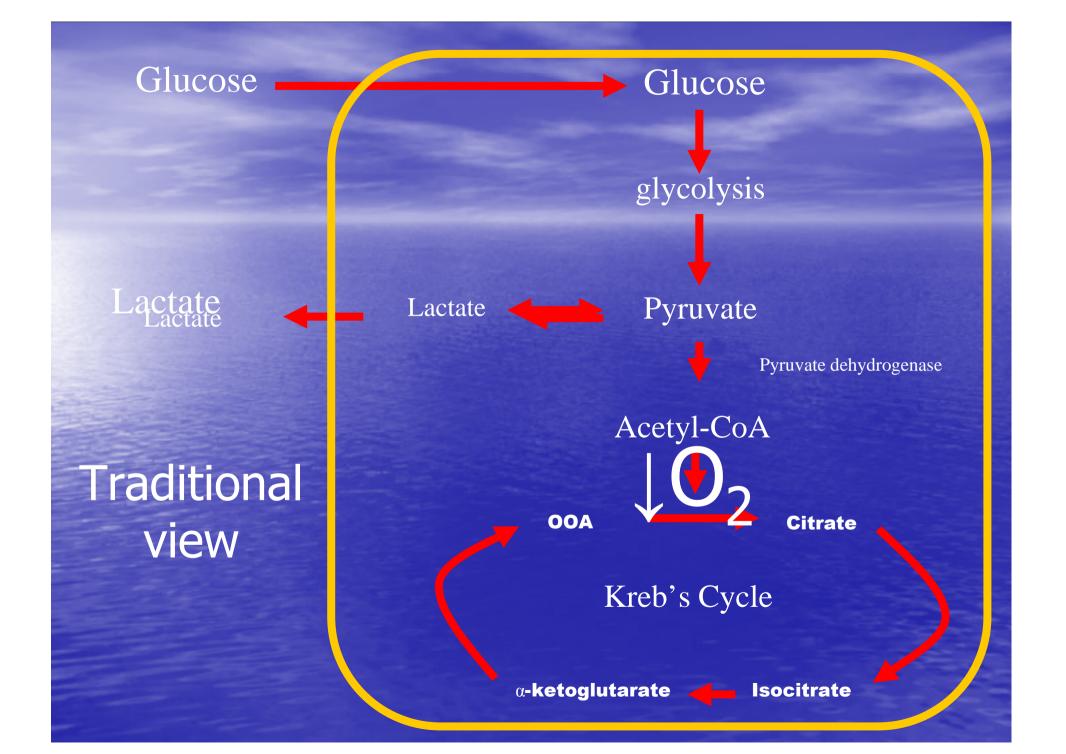
 Cardinal sign of septic shock Synonymous with hypoperfusion Mistakenly used as a gauge of perfusion
 Common in septic patients With good perfusion

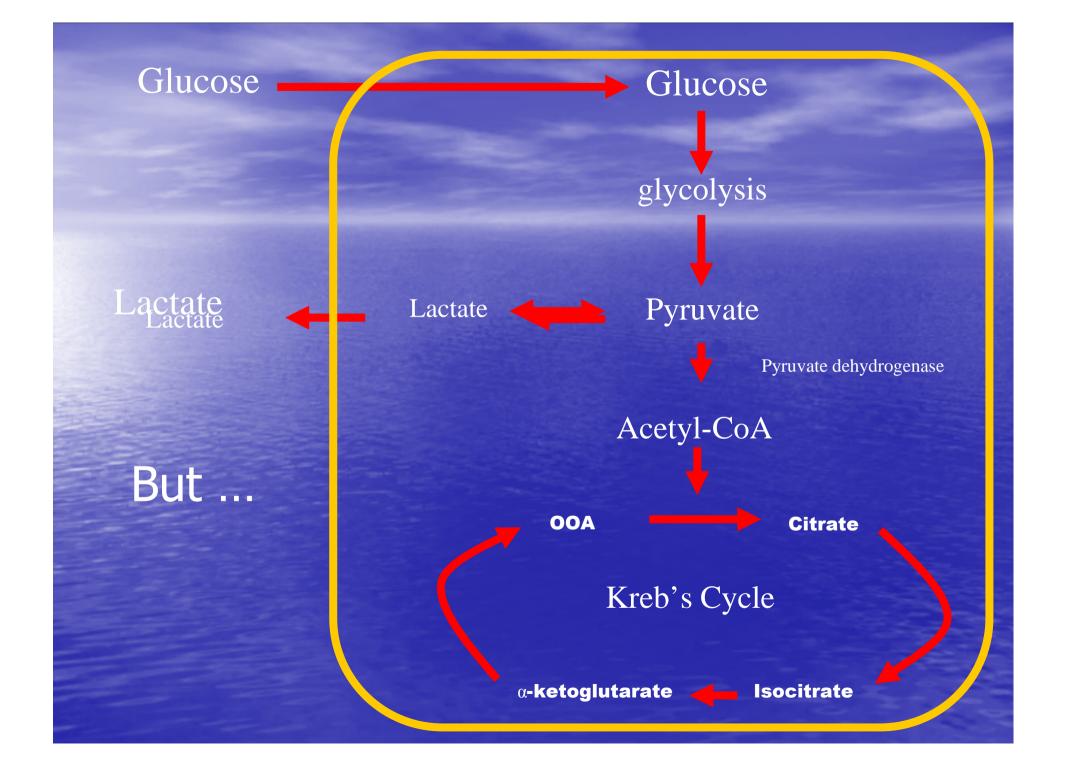
Source of Lactate in Sepsis

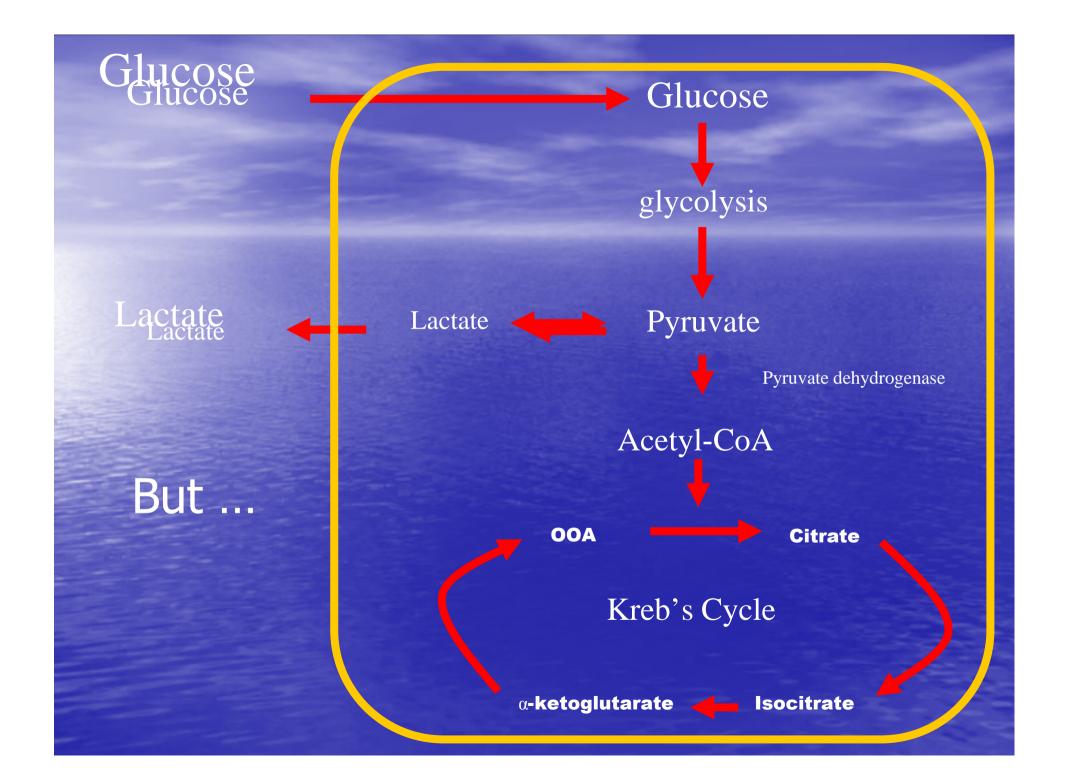
Septic shock
 Increase ATP requirement
 Anaerobic metablism
 Rapid increase lactate levels

 Sepsis without shock
 "Stress" lactic acidosis
 Cytokine mediated
 IL-1beta, IL-6 and TNF alpha









Lactate Sources

 Tissue Hypoxia Hypodynamic shock Organ ischemia Hypermetabolism Increased aerobic glycolysis Increased protein catabolism Increased muscle activity – shivering Decreased Clearance of Lactate Shock – poor liver perfusion Cytokine-mediated Liver failure Inhibition of Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Activation of Inflammatory Cells

Source of Lactate in Sepsis

Pyruvate dehydrogenase block Cytokine down-regulation **Relative thiamine deficiency** Forces glucose \rightarrow lactate production SIRS Hypermetabolism Increase cellular glucose uptake Stress hormone mediated • Epinephrine Cytokine-mediated modulation of glucose transporter • \uparrow synthesis ↑ activity \uparrow glucose entry into cells • Mass action $\rightarrow \uparrow$ glycolytic flux $\rightarrow \uparrow$ lactate production

Source of Lactate in Sepsis

 Phagocytes major cellular source Required energy for respiratory burst Occurs where macrophages are active Damaged organ or site of trauma Liver, spleen, gut, lung, wound Decreased hepatic lactate clearance Sepsis impairs liver clearance

Lactate Accumulation Epinephrine Surge

• After injury, in sepsis, at birth Stimulates Na⁺:K⁺ ATPase $\uparrow\uparrow$ aerobic glycolysis $\rightarrow\uparrow$ lactate production Coupled to Na⁺:K⁺ ATPase activity in muscle At rest , < 10% of its total Na⁺:K⁺ ATPase Maintain Na:K gradients • ↑activity Na+:K+ ATPase ↑lactate production • under well-oxygenated conditions One cause of $\downarrow K$ Epinephrine results in Lactatemia Hypokalemia

Lactate Accumulation Clearance by Tissues

Liver Large capacity for lactate removal Other organs **Kidneys GI** tract **Muscles** Lactate clearance reduced by Sepsis Alkalosis Acidosis (pH < 7.20) Liver failure

Hyperlactatemia without acidemia

- Massive quantities of Na lactate administered Alkalemia occurs as lactate is metabolized
- Chronic lactate accumulation
 Chloride ions move out of the vascular space
 Compensatory increase SID
- Endogenous hyperlactatemia Initially always associated acidosis Normal pH or alkalosis
 - Suggests relative chronicity
 - Hypochloremic increase SID

Lactic Acidemia

Nonspecific marker of hypoperfusion

Important marker of tissue distress
 Malmetabolism

Lactate Levels Hypoperfusion

 Traditionally Increased blood lactate = hypoxia/hypoperfusion Tissue hypoxia \rightarrow MODS/death Fundamental goal of therapy Restoration of cellular oxygen delivery Reliable indicators of adequate perfusion Warm legs Strong peripheral pulses Organ function - Urine output, Mental status, Borborygmi Lactate levels elevated With hypoperfusion With normal perfusion Decrease lactate levels A goal of cardiovascular support Not exclusive goal Pressor therapy may cause significant increase lactate

Lactate Levels Hypoperfusion

- Blood lactate Guide to resuscitation
- Epinephrine surge Occurs
 - Normal birth
 - SIRS Sepsis/septic shock
 - Hypoxic ischemic asphyxial insult
 - Greatly accelerate aerobic glycolysis and lactate production
 - Coupled to Na+: K+ ATPase activity in skeletal muscle
- Significant proportion

 blood lactate
 - Unrelated to poor tissue perfusion
 - Not respond to supranormal oxygen delivery
- Increased Na+: K+ ATPase activity
 - $\rightarrow \uparrow$ lactate production under well-oxygenated conditions
 - Erythrocytes, vascular smooth muscle, neurons, skeletal muscle

Lactate Enteric Bacteria

- Lactate produced by enteric bacteria Absorbed, produce lactic acidosis
 D-lactate
 - Endogenous lactate is L-lactate
- D-lactic acidosis
 - Detection
 - Some assays for lactate only report L-lactate
 - Some assays report total lactate
 - Special D-lactate assays
 - Will appear as unidentified anion if not assayed
- Metabolism
 - Will be catabolized through L-lactate pathway Clearance is slower than D-lactate

Strong Ion Acidosis

Strong Ion Acidosis Hyperchloremic acidosis

 Hyperchloremic acidosis ↑Cl⁻ relative to Na⁺ Loss of cation relative to Cl⁻ Renal response Acidosis ↑Cl⁻ excretion in urine Kidney must be source of acidosis since • ↑plasma Cl⁻ rather than ↓plasma Cl⁻ ■Extrarenal ↑Cl⁻ From treatment with Cl⁻ (NaCl) Lower GI tract cation loss without loss of CI-

Strong Ion Acidosis

GI tract

Diarrhea

- Diarrhea fluid Na⁺ > Cl⁻ similar to plasma
- If treat with a NaCl → ↑Cl⁻ →↓SID
 If treat with Plasmalyte this will not happen
- If drink water \downarrow Cl⁻ but $\downarrow \downarrow$ Na⁺ $\rightarrow \downarrow$ SID

If drink strong ion balanced electrolyte water may avoid

- - TPN/PPN
 - Contains balance of weak anions (e.g. acetate) + Cl⁻ If acetate << Cl⁻ then plasma Cl⁻ ↑ →↓SID

Saline - dilutional acidosis

- Critical patient already have lactic acidosis, can't change ventilation to compensate, have \$\overline{A}_{TOT}\$ (\$\overline{a}\$ albumin)
- Treated 5-10X plasma volume \rightarrow significant acidosis
- Unlike normal patient treated with NaCl

ICU Patient – no urine output

	SID	рН	Pa _{CO2}	BE
Baseline*	30	7.40	38	-2.0
Lactic Acidosis**	20	7.29	29	-11.4
10 liters saline	14	7.13	25	-20.1

* Na = 130, Cl = 100

** Lactate = 10 mmol/l

Strong Ion Acidosis Renal Acidosis

Renal failure Uncomplicated renal failure no acidosis Hyperchloremic acidosis JSID • Na wasting > Cl excretion Failure of Cl excretion without Na Chronic ↑sulfates ↓SID Renal tubular acidosis Defect in all types of RTA Inability to excrete Cl⁻ in proportion to Na⁺

SIG acidosis Unmeasured anions

Renal failure Ketoacidosis Starvation Metabolic errors •Toxins Ethylene glycol Salicylates Sepsis/endotoxemia Lactic acidosis Other •Liver disease

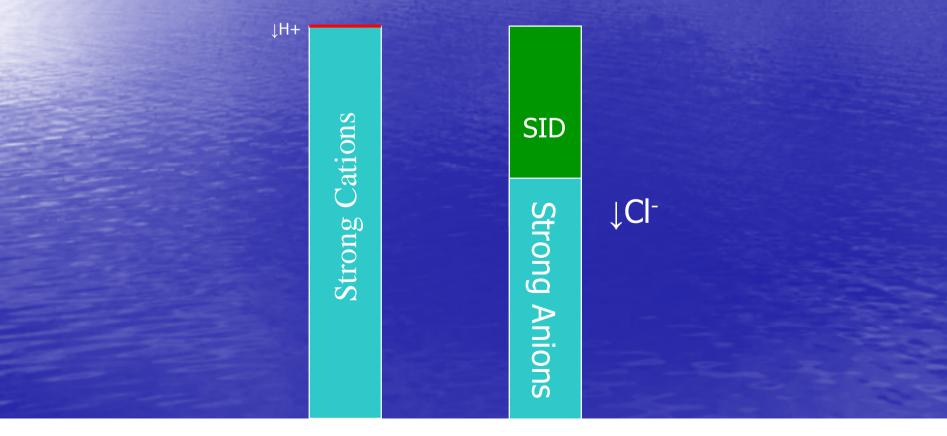
Unexplained metabolic acidosis

 Lactic acidosis More acidotic than explained by lactate level Sepsis Acidosis without \uparrow lactate May be secondary to $\uparrow Cl$ Unmeasured anions released from liver Normally liver clears unmeasured anions Often ¹/₃ of acidosis is unexplained Loss of Donnan equilibrium of plasma Capillary leak – loss of albumin from vascular space Cl moves into vascular space to balance loss Hyperchloremic acidosis with J SID

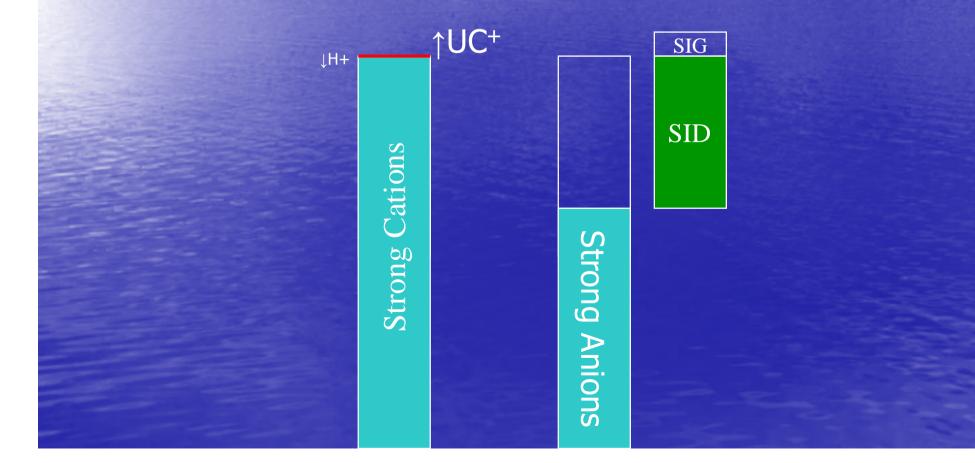
Metabolic Alkalosis



Metabolic Alkalosis Strong Ion Alkalosis Increased SID



Metabolic Alkalosis Unidentified Cation Alkalosis SIG > 0



Metabolic Alkalosis

Metabolic alkalosis
 ↑SID → Results in ↓ free H+ → alkalosis

 ↑SID
 Loss of anions > cations
 Diuretics
 Renal disease

Metabolic alkalosis

↑SID
Loss of Cl⁻ -- ↓anions
• Cl⁻ loss > Na
↑Cations (rare?)
•Cl⁻ Responsive
•Cl⁻ Resistant

Metabolic alkalosis Cl Responsive

C[loss easily treated
 C[loss > Na+
 Temporary loss
 Not ongoing (Ucl low)

Metabolic alkalosis Cl Responsive

- Gastrointestinal
 - Reflux, Cl wasting diarrhea
- Post diuretic
 - Volume contraction $\rightarrow \uparrow$ aldosterone $\rightarrow \uparrow$ Na reabsorption But also \uparrow K and Cl⁻ loss \rightarrow alkalosis
- Post chronic lactic acidosis

 \Cl⁻ as compensation for acidosis
 Lactic acidosis may resolve quickly
 Residual hypochloremic alkalosis
- Post hypercapnia metabolic compensation
 Hypercapnea resolves quickly
 Residual hypochloremic alkalosis

Metabolic alkalosis Cl Responsive

Treatment

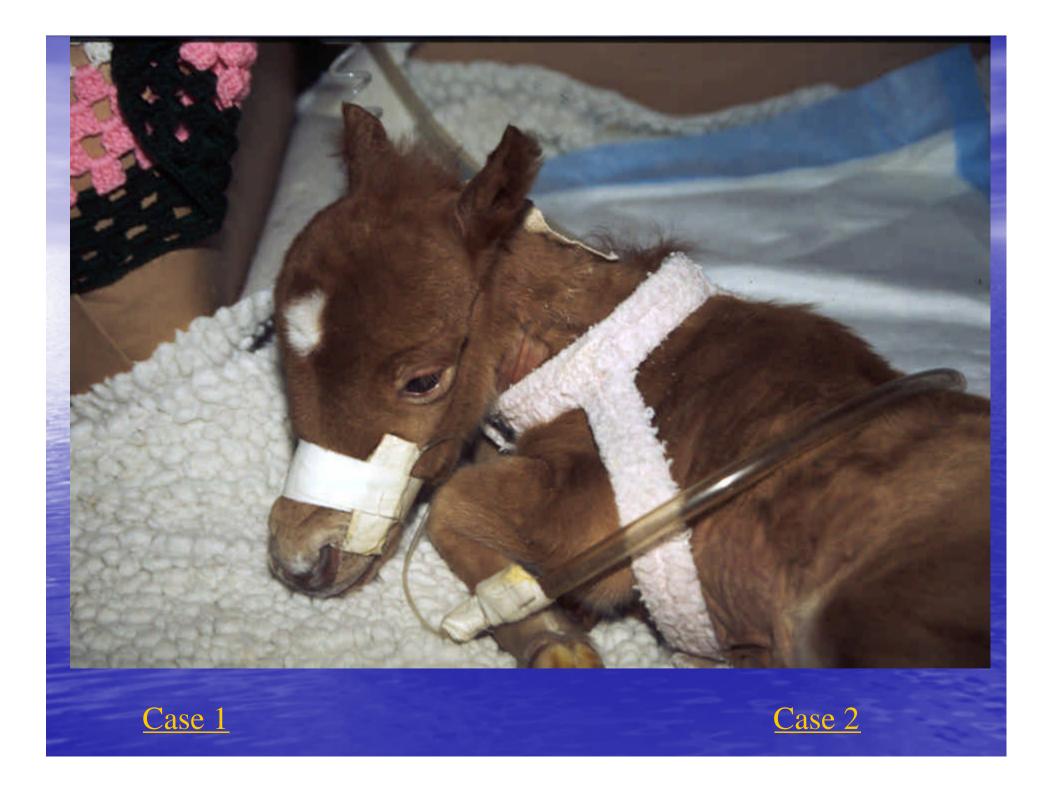
Replace Cl with NaCl, KCl
 Dehydration usually present
 ↑ SID – corrected with saline

Metabolic Alkalosis Cl Resistant

Cl⁻ loss is ongoing (Ucl high) Hormonal mechanisms Mineralocorticoid excess Primary/secondary hyperaldosteronism Cushing syndrome Liddle's syndrome Bartter's syndrome Excessive corticoids Excessive licorice intake (mimics aldosterone) Ongoing diuretic use

Metabolic Alkalosis Cl Resistant

 Only temporarily correct with CF therapy Urine CF > 20 mmol/l Saline therapy may temporarily correct SID
 Ongoing renal loss results in return ^ SID
 Mineralocorticoid activity



Hyperchloremic acidosis 61119

Diarrhea noted day 3
 Referred day 4

 WBC 10.9
 77% Segs
 3% bands
 20% Lymphs
 Fibr 824mg/dl
 IgG > 800 mg/dl

Hugsie 60237



 History Term foal 10 minute stage II Placenta 25 lbs (foal 122 lb) Accompanied sick mare 3 hrs old Problems Neonatal encephalopathy Somnolence, hypertonus, seizures **SIRS** Neonatal gastroenteropathy

• 3 yr old TB race horse Day of presentation Raced "Collapsed"? Colic Rx Banamine 2X Admission PE Quiet/depressed General muscle fasciculations Slightly dehydrated Reflux – 10 l Very thirsty (despite fluid therapy)

1/9 8 pm - venous
pH - 7.570, 7.542
Pco2 - 59.9, 64.9
BE - +29.4
HCO3 - 55.3

•Na − 154.2 K − 2.96 -CI - 88(85)•Ca++ - 3.70 •Mg ++ - 0.81 •Glu – 366 •Lac 5.3 -Cr - 2.3

SIDa = Na + K + Ca + Mg - Cl - Lac
SIDa = 69 BE = +29
SIDe = 70 (assuming PO4 = 4.0)
Osm = 335 mOsm
Low Ca++, Mg++, K

Rx
 IV Norm R
 MgSO4 – 25 gm
 Ca
 K

• 0 hrs - 12 hrs – 36 hrs pH - 7.570 => 7.492 => 7.432 Pco2 - 59.9 => 56.9 => 40.2 BE - +28 => 18 => 3.1 Na - 154 => 158 => 137 K - 2.96 => 3.08 => 4.43 Cl - 85 => 106 => 99 Ca - 3.70 => 4.08 => 5.14 Mg - 0.81 => 0.79 => 1.00SID - 69 => 56 => 45 mOsm – 334 => 328 => 267

Metabolic Acid/Base Abnormalities

Jon Palmer, VMD, DACVIM Director of Neonatal/Perinatal Programs Graham French Neonatal Section, Connelly Intensive Care Unit New Bolton Center, University of Pennsylvania

Abnormal acid-base balance predicts the outcome of the case but often is not a direct cause the fatality, but rather it is an epiphenomenon. Acid base homeostasis is defended as much as O_2 transport and perfusion pressure. The concentration of H⁺ in tissues is very small (only 1/1,000,000 of HCO3⁻) but very important because of its effect on H⁺ bonds, protein configuration and binding and receptor activity.

Disorders of acid-base balance result from disorders of primary regulating organs (kidney or GI tract), exogenous drugs or fluids that alter the body's ability to maintain normal acid-base balance or abnormal metabolism that overwhelms the ability of the normal defense mechanisms to work.

The kidney excretes only small amounts of strong ions in the urine per minute (because most is reabsorbed) so the renal compensation for acid-base abnormalities takes hours. In the diet there are similar ratios of strong cations and anions. There's sufficient Cl available to filter. If it is not reabsorbed then there is an increase in SID. Cl excretion is the primary regulating mechanism of acid base balance by the kidney. Renal Na and K handling is influenced by priorities other than acid-base balance. The reason for kidney ammoniagenesis is to excrete Cl⁻ without Na⁺ or K⁺ as Cl⁻ NH₄⁺. NH₄⁺ is important not because the H⁺ (< 0.01 mEq/liter) but because of its role in allowing Cl⁻ excretion.

The gastrointestinal tract is an important site for development of acid-base imbalance and may play a role in acid base regulation. Chloride transported from the gastric mucosa to the lumen results in a decrease in SID in the gastric juices making them acidic and simultaneously an increase in SID in the plasma resulting in the "alkaline tide" at the beginning of the meal. Reabsorption of chloride and the duodenum returns the SID in the plasma to its normal level. If gastric fluid is refluxed there's a loss of Cl⁻ resulting in alkalosis (increased SID). Pancreatic secretions have a increased SID because the low concentration of Cl⁻ resulting in a decrease in plasma SID during its formation which helps counter act alkaline tide. If pancreatic fluid is lost through reflux, the plasma remains acidotic (\downarrow SID secondary to \uparrow Cl⁻). The small intestine is very efficient in absorbing Cl⁻. This results in the colonic fluid having an increased SID because of the Na+/K+ left in lumen. Usually, Na+ is absorbed primarily through the transport with VFAs with water following but if diarrhea occurs there will be loss of Na+/K+ relative to Cl- resulting in a decreased plasma SID (acidosis). During SIRS, the GI tract may compensate for systemic acidosis by removal of anions resulting in an increased SID.

Critical neonates appear to have a tendency to develop acidosis in situations that would not result in acidosis in normal patients. This can be explained by the observation that they often have a low SID (30 rather than the usual 40 but without acidosis). This results in less reserved so that a smaller increase in acid or a smaller treatment with NaCl will have more effect and more easily result in a significant acidosis by further decreasing SID. This low resting SID is primarily secondary to a low resting albumin resulting in a decrease in A⁻ and the tendency not to decrease Pco₂ because of lack

of central receptor responsiveness to Pco_2 . The small effect of this decrease on pH has to do with the fact that decreases in SID does not result in linear decreases in plasma pH. As the SID < 20 there is a greater decrease in pH so that as SID approaches 20, a small insult may result in a dramatic decrease in pH.

Brief exposure to acidosis is tolerated well as with exercise, but chronic mild acidosis (pH < 7.33) can result in metabolic bone disease and protein catabolism. Critically ill patients do not tolerate acidosis well. The underlying cause of the acidosis is much more important than the degree of acidosis in determining the overall negative effect on the condition of the patient. In general, metabolic acidosis can cause decreased inotropy, conduction defects, arterial vasodilation, venous vasoconstriction, decreased oxyhemoglobin binding, decreased 2,3-DPG levels, respiratory depression, decreased sensorium, protein wasting, bone demineralization, insulin resistance, catecholamine stimulation, PTH stimulation, aldosterone stimulation, increased K, increased Ca and hyperuricemia. In general, metabolic alkalosis may cause increased inotropy (Ca++ entry), altered coronary blood flow, increased oxyhemoglobin affinity, increased 2,3-DPG, neuromuscular excitability, encephalopathy, seizures, decreased K, decreased Ca, decreased PO4⁻ and impaired enzyme function.

Lactic acidosis: In many critical patients, production of the strong ion lactate is an important to cause of acidosis. The origin of lactic acid has been often misinterpreted in the past. The availability of the ability to easily and repeatedly measure lactic acid levels has helped us understand its significance. Traditionally the amount of lactate produced has been linked to total 0_2 debt, magnitude of hypoperfusion and severity of shock. However, it is now clear that there are a number of other underlying causes of increased lactate production and when these are ignored and attempts are made to treat increased lactate has hypoperfusion, to the exclusion of the other possible causes, poor outcomes can result.

Besides tissue hypoxia, hypodynamic shock and organ ischemia, high lactate levels will result from hypermetabolism as with increased aerobic glycolysis (from epinephrine), increased protein catabolism and increased muscle activity, decreased lactate clearance as with liver failure or shock, inhibition of pyruvate dehydrogenase as can occur in thiamine deficiency or SIRS and activation of inflammatory cells as with ARDS. So when lactic acidosis develops, the underlying cause must be identified, so that the underlying pathology can be addressed, since the cause of the lactate elevation is more important than the resulting acidosis. In most cases it appears that elevated in aerobic metabolism is more important than metabolic defects (pyruvate dehydrogenase inhibition) or anaerobic metabolism in increasing lactate. Epinephrine, whether given exogenously or if stimulation results in endogenous increases, stimulates an increase in lactate levels by stimulating cellular metabolism (e.g. ↑hepatic glycolysis). This effect does not occur with dobutamine or norepinephrine and is not related to tissue perfusion.

Lactate is a strong ion because at physiologic pH it is completely disassociated. Since the body can produce and dispose of lactate rapidly, pH will quickly and sometimes drastically change as lactate levels increase and decrease changing SID. Hyperlactatemia can exist without acidosis. This will occur when lactate is administered as Na lactate. It will also occur when as lactate increases, another strong anion decreases. The corresponding strong ion is usually chloride. With sustained lactate production Cl⁻ moves out of plasma space maintaining a normalize pH.

The increase in lactate in sepsis is probably not a sign of tissue dysoxia, but rather a combination of factors. Metabolic dysfunction from mitochondrial/enzymatic dysfunction in sepsis will result in an increase in lactate levels (decreased pyruvate dehydrogenase activity). This results of an increased lactate production in sepsis secondary to increased aerobic metabolism (hypermetabolism). Epinephrine induced increase lactate production may so occur in sepsis and finally release of lactate during the development of ARDS may be an important source.

Hyperchloremic acidosis: Hyperchloremic acidosis occurs when there is an increased chloride relative to Na or a loss of cation relative to chloride. In response to acidosis from any cause, the kidneys will excrete chloride ion in the urine and take compensatory measure to increase the SID. When hyperchloremic acidosis occurs, even when the kidneys are not the source, the implication is that the kidneys are not responding appropriately and thus are somehow compromised. Hyperchloremic acidosis may arise from renal disease (renal tubular acidosis), treatment with chloride containing fluids (saline) or excessive GI loss of cations.

Unexplained (hyperchloremic) acidosis: Often as much as one-third of the acidosis is unexplained by lactic acidosis or hyperchloremia. This may occur because of partial loss of Donnan equilibrium of plasma. With severe capillary leak (or in the neonates with normal high capillary permeability and development of high capillary pressure) there will be a loss of albumin from the vascular space. To maintain charge balance Cl⁻ moves into the vascular space from the interstitium resulting in a hyperchloremic acidosis. Alternately, other cations may be present secondary to sepsis.

Metabolic alkalosis: Metabolic alkalosis occurs when there is an increase in SID from a loss of Cl⁻, a decrease in unidentified anions or from an increase in cations (rare). Hypochloremic alkalosis is a common finding at birth in neonatal foals. The hyperchloremia is likely a compensatory change mediated through the placenta in the face of a more chronic intrauterine lactic acidosis. The lactic acidosis is probably cleared just before birth leaving the hypochloremic metabolic alkalosis. The hypochloremia may persist since renal regulation will not occur until the kidney has completed its transition from fetal physiology to neonatal physiology. After the birth transition, when alkalosis is from chloride loss in excess of Na, it may be chloride responsive or chloride resistant. Chloride responsive alkalosis frequently is from transient GI loss, post diuretic loss or post hypercapnia. In these cases treatment with chloride in the form of sodium chloride or potassium chloride and/or rehydration usually results in rapid correction of the alkalosis. Chloride resistant hypochloremic alkalosis is usually a result of ongoing loss from hormonal mechanisms and will only temporarily be corrected with chloride therapy.