

# ACID-BASE BALANCE BLOOD GASES

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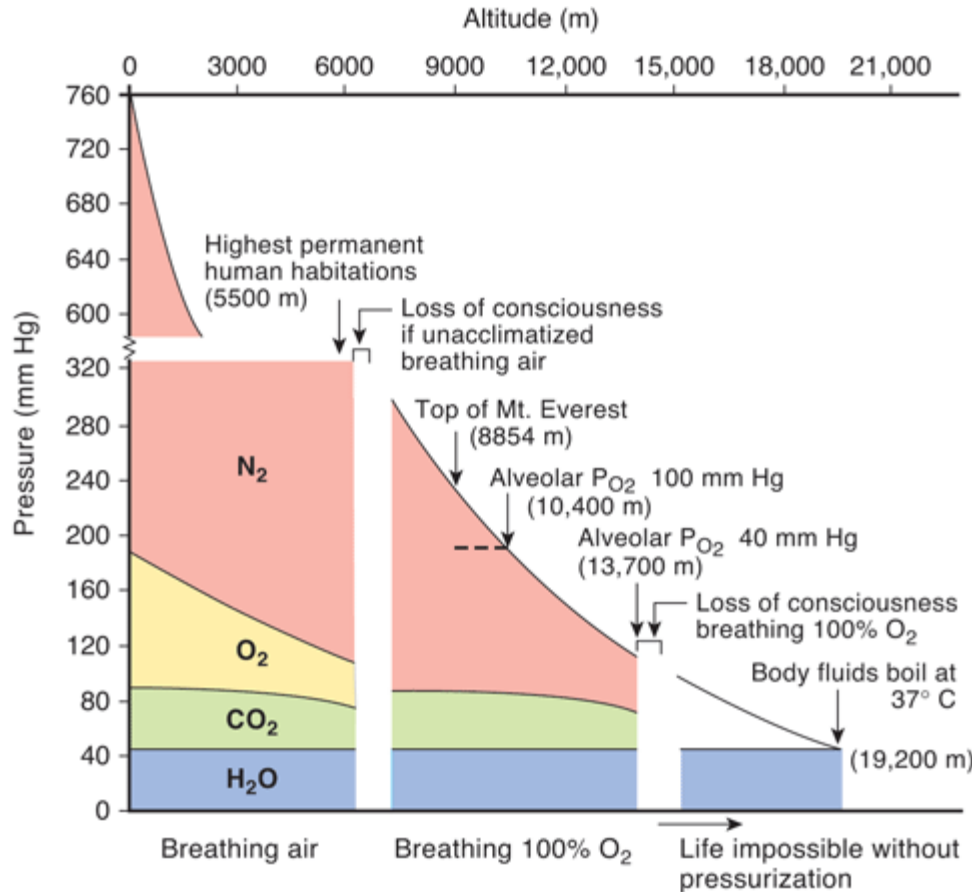
# Blood gases

- pH and  $p\text{CO}_2$  may be determined accurately on venous blood.
- Lithium heparin anticoagulant permits use of plasma for other testing.
- $\text{SaO}_2$  may be determined non-invasively.
- Pulse oximetry is not used to assess the adequacy of ventilation, however.
- $p\text{O}_2$  determination is reserved for evaluation of need for  $\text{O}_2$  therapy (e.g., mechanical ventilation) as determination requires arterial puncture.

# BLOOD GASES

- $pO_2 = FiO_2 \times (760 - 47)$  mmHg at sea level.
- $pO_2$  values directly related to  $O_2$  content of inspired gas.
- For each 1000 feet elevation in altitude,  $pO_2$  falls 3-4 mmHg.
- $SaO_2$  is linearly related with  $pO_2$  and holds to an altitude of 10,000 feet.
- An  $SaO_2$  of 90% implies a  $pO_2$  of  $>60$  mmHg.
- Visible cyanosis in a patient who is not anemic suggests an  $SaO_2$  of  $<85\%$ . (3g/dl desaturated hemoglobin).

# Altitude and Oxygen



The minimal alveolar PO<sub>2</sub> that an unacclimatized subject can tolerate without loss of consciousness is about 35–40 mm Hg.

Note that with increasing altitude, the alveolar pCO<sub>2</sub> drops because of the hyperventilation due to hypoxic stimulation of the carotid and aortic chemoreceptors.

The fall in barometric pressure with increasing altitude is not linear, because air is compressible.

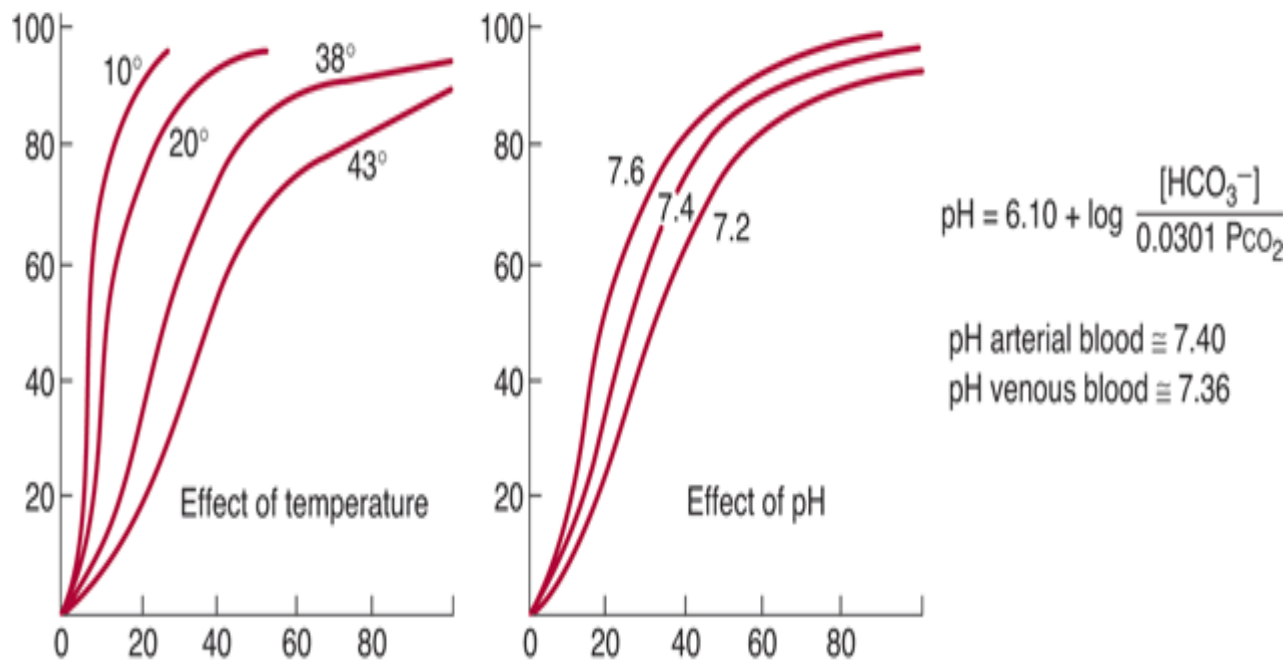
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Fig. 36-12 Accessed 02/01/2010

# Blood gases

- Low  $pO_2$  associated with inadequate ventilation, poor pulmonary gas diffusion, airway obstruction, and diaphragm failure.
- High  $pCO_2$  associated with poor pulmonary gas exchange. May aggravate clinical situation if concomitant consumption of  $>450g$  carbohydrate/day.
- Low  $pCO_2$  associated with hyperventilation.
- $pCO_2 = FICO_2 (0.5\%) \times (760-47) \text{ mmHg}$  at sea level
- End tidal  $pCO_2$  is best measure of alveolar concentration.
- Expected  $Pa_{CO_2}$  is  $1.5 [HCO_3^-] + 8$

# Oxygen dissociation curves

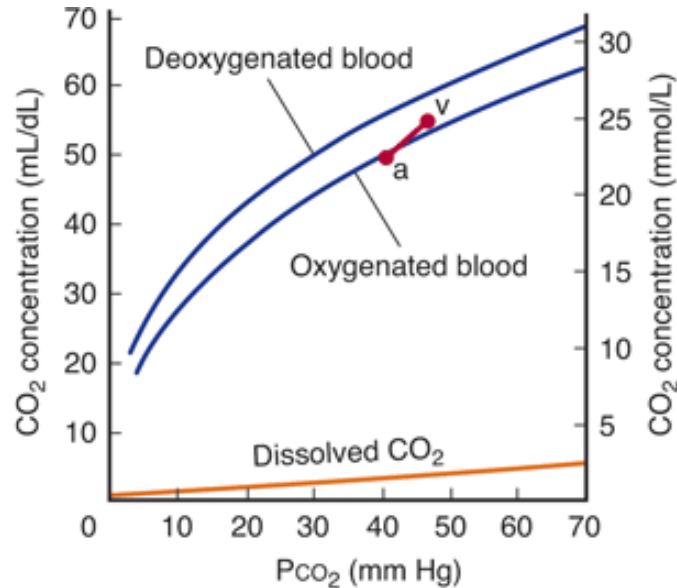


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Fig. 36-3 Accessed 02/01/2010

# Carbon dioxide dissociation curve



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Fig. 36-7 Accessed 02/01/2010

The arterial point (a) and the venous point (v) indicate the total CO<sub>2</sub> content found in arterial blood and venous blood of normal resting humans. Note the low amount of CO<sub>2</sub> that is dissolved (orange trace) compared to that which can be carried by other means.

# pH

- Acid-base balance maintained by
- (1) pulmonary excretion of  $\text{CO}_2$
- (2) renal excretion of  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  and non volatile acids
- Strong Nonvolatile acids are principally sulfuric acid resulting from metabolism of sulfur containing amino acids
- This is an open system.
- $\text{H}^+$  is combined with ammonia or phosphates in the kidney for excretion.
- Ammonia is the principal adaptive response.
- Ammonia production from glutamine metabolism can be increased in the presence of an acid load.



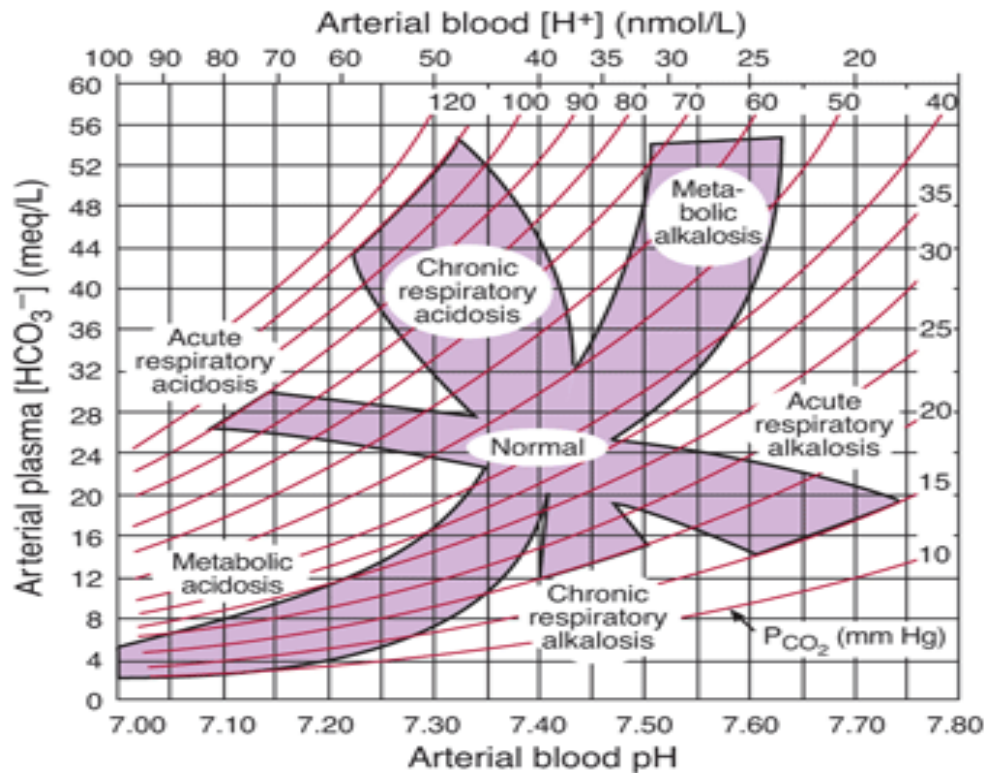
# pH

- $H^+$  (and  $K^+$  under aldosterone control) is excreted into the urine in the distal tubule in exchange for  $Na^+$ .
- $HCO_3^-$  formed in the tubule cell combines with  $Na^+$  and enters the circulation.
- Whatever increases intracellular  $H^+$  or  $K^+$  also increases their secretion into the distal tubular lumen and increases  $Na^+$  reabsorption.
- Weak nonvolatile acids are largely protein, principally albumin.

# pH

- Hemoglobin is the buffering agent against CO<sub>2</sub> in the blood.
- Carbonic anhydrase in the red cell facilitates movement of CO<sub>2</sub> in and out of the cell.
- O<sub>2</sub> binds to hemoglobin in the alveolar capillaries.
- This leads to H<sup>+</sup> release.
- H<sup>+</sup> combines with HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the plasma, permitting CO<sub>2</sub> to be released into alveoli.
- HCO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is the moment-to-moment buffer that maintains pH in a narrow range.
- Phosphate and protein are the chief intracellular buffers.
- pH rises with hypoproteinemia.

# Acid-base nomogram



Changes in the  $P_{CO_2}$  (curved lines), plasma  $HCO_3^-$ , and pH (or  $[H^+]$ ) of arterial blood in respiratory and metabolic acidosis are shown.

(Reproduced with permission from Cogan MG, Rector FC Jr.: Acid-base disorders. In: *The Kidney*, 4th ed. Brenner BM, Rector FC Jr. [editors]. Saunders, 1991.)

Fig. 36-10 Accessed 02/01/2010

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# pH and the anion gap

- Henderson-Hasselbach equation:  
$$\text{pH} = 6.1 + \log (\text{HCO}_3^-) / .03\text{pCO}_2$$
- 1meq  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  is equivalent to 1.2 mmHg  $\text{pCO}_2$
- Low pH likely a result of metabolic abnormality.
- High pH likely due to decreased renal perfusion.
- Hypokalemia also promotes  $\text{HCO}_3^-$  absorption.
- Vomiting, nasogastric suction, diuretic use as other causes.

PLASMA ANION GAP =  $\text{Na} - (\text{Cl} + \text{HCO}_3)$ .

URINE ANION GAP =  $(\text{Na} + \text{K}) - (\text{Cl} + 13)$ .

# pH

- pH < 7.20
- Diminished contractility
- Increased arrhythmia risk
- Vasodilation
- Hyperventilation
- K<sup>+</sup> and insulin increase

# pH

- pH > 7.60
- Arteriolar vasoconstriction
- Decreased coronary blood flow
- Increased arrhythmia risk
- Hypoventilation
- Decreased K<sup>+</sup>
- Increased Ca<sup>2+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup>

# Diminished plasma anion gap

- Hypoalbuminemia
- Hypercalcemia
- Cationic immunoglobulins (as in myeloma)
- Lithium drug use
- Dilution (hypertriglyceridemia)

# Diminished urine anion gap

- The urine anion gap is a rough measure of ammonium production.
- In the hyperchloremic acidotic patient, if  $(\text{Na} + \text{K}) < \text{Cl}$ , interstitial renal disease is likely.



# Normal plasma anion gap

- A normal anion gap does not exclude lactic acidosis.
- Renal tubular acidosis (type IV)
- Characterized by diminished renin and aldosterone
- Hyperkalemia
- Acidosis
- Impaired ammonia production

# Elevated plasma anion gap

- Ethylene glycol usual cause of large anion gap
- Other causes:
- Elevated albumin (1g/dL accounts for 2.5meq/L anion gap)
- Low Calcium, low Magnesium
- Aspirin
- Methyl alcohol
- Increased acid generation:
  - Lactate, ketoacids.
  - Serum lactate level more sensitive indicator of lactic acidosis than is an increase in the anion gap.

# Elevated plasma anion gap

- $\text{HCO}_3^-$  loss:
- Diarrhea
- mEq for mEq exchange of  $\text{Cl}^-$  for  $\text{HCO}_3^-$
- $\text{Na}^+$  and  $\text{Cl}^-$  are retained by the kidney to maintain circulating volume
- Proximal renal tubular acidosis (Type I)
- Carbonic anhydrase inhibitor
- Ethylene glycol usual cause of large anion gap

# Lactic acidosis

- Endogenous lactate is L-lactic acid.
- That is what the assay measures.
- Serum lactate level more sensitive indicator than is an increase in the anion gap.
- A normal anion gap does not exclude lactic acidosis.
- D-lactic acidosis may be seen with carbohydrate malabsorption where it is metabolized to D-lactic acid and is absorbed.
- Serum lactate levels are normal as only the L-form is measured.

# Lactic acidosis

- Endogenous lactate is L-lactic acid.
- That is what the assay measures.
- Causes:
- Hypoxemia
  - Including CO interference with O<sub>2</sub> binding
  - Including HCN- (cyanide) binding to hemoglobin
- Fe<sup>2+</sup>
- Shock
- Tissue necrosis
  - Infarcted bowel or muscle