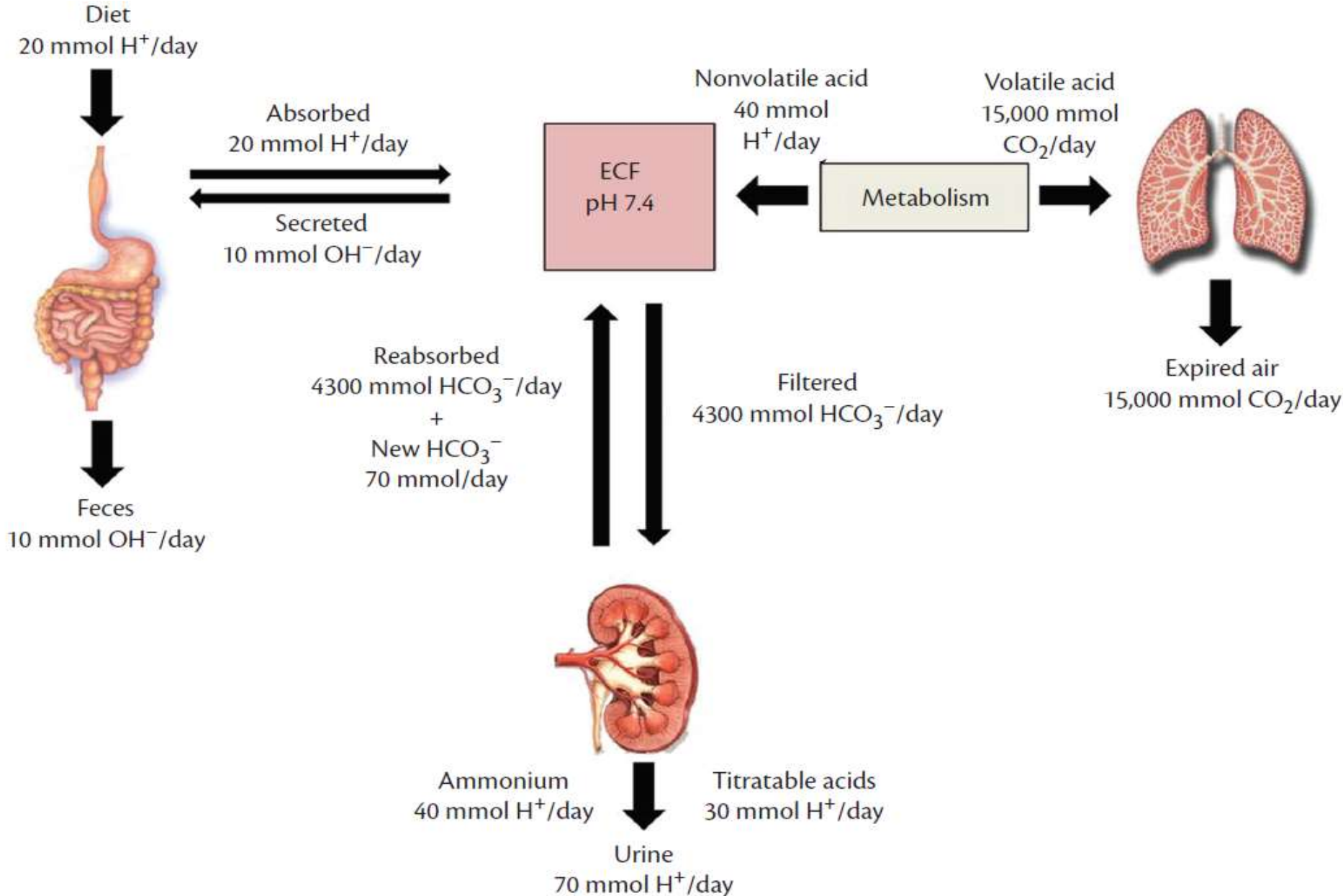


Clinical approach to metabolic acidosis

Norbert Lameire, MD, PhD
Em Prof of Medicine
University Hospital
Gent, Belgium

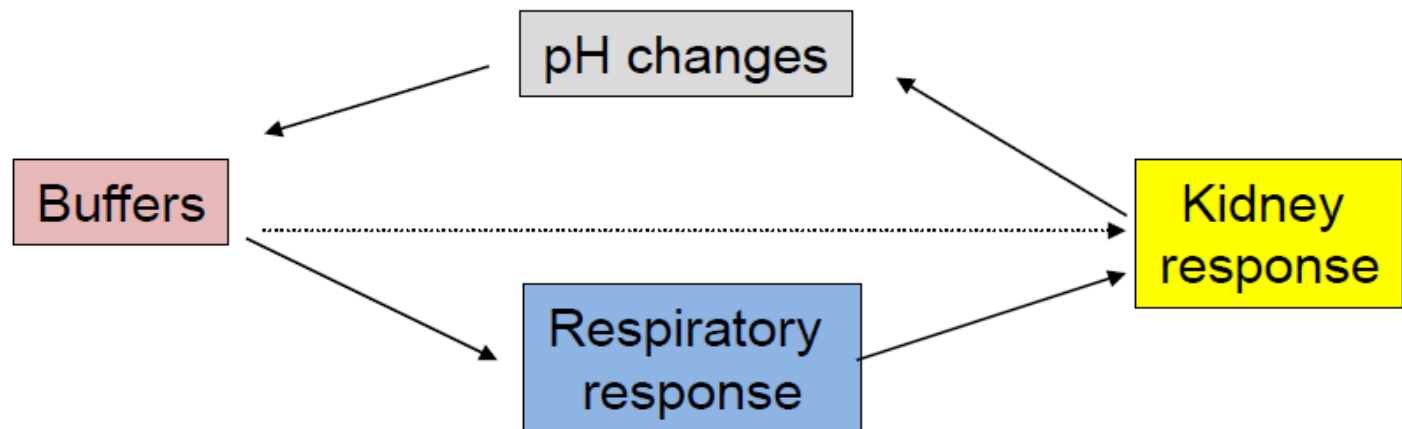
Moscow, October 2017

Acid base fluxes in healthy 70 kg man



The Regulation of Blood pH

- Blood pH control: essential for metabolism
→ enzymes, proteases, ...
- Three lines of defense:
 1. Buffers: instantaneous response
 2. Lungs: minutes - hours
 3. Kidneys: a few days

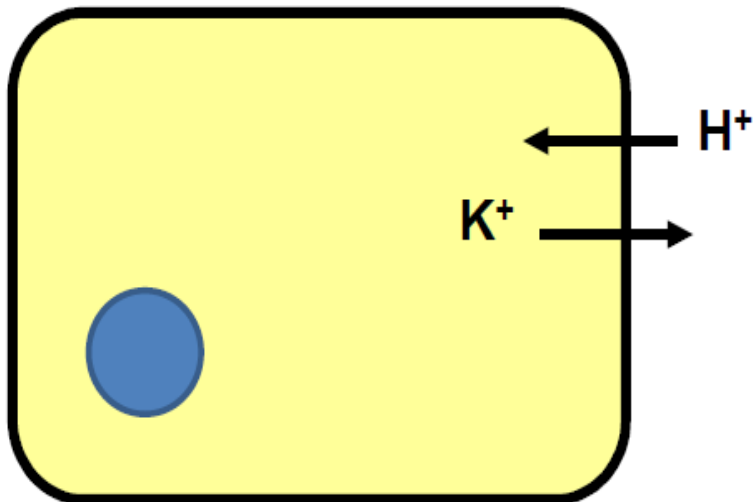


Buffer Systems (I)

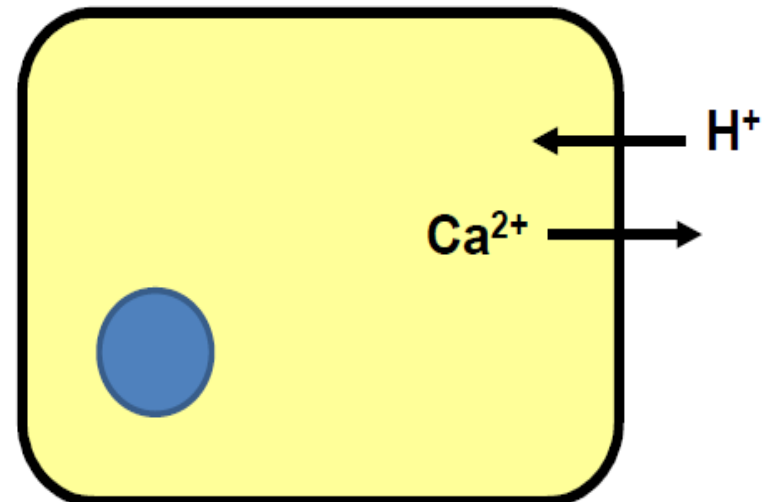
- Weak acids which capture the circulating H^+

→ **Intracellular buffers:** proteins, hemoglobin

- Exchange H^+ for K^+ or Ca^{2+}



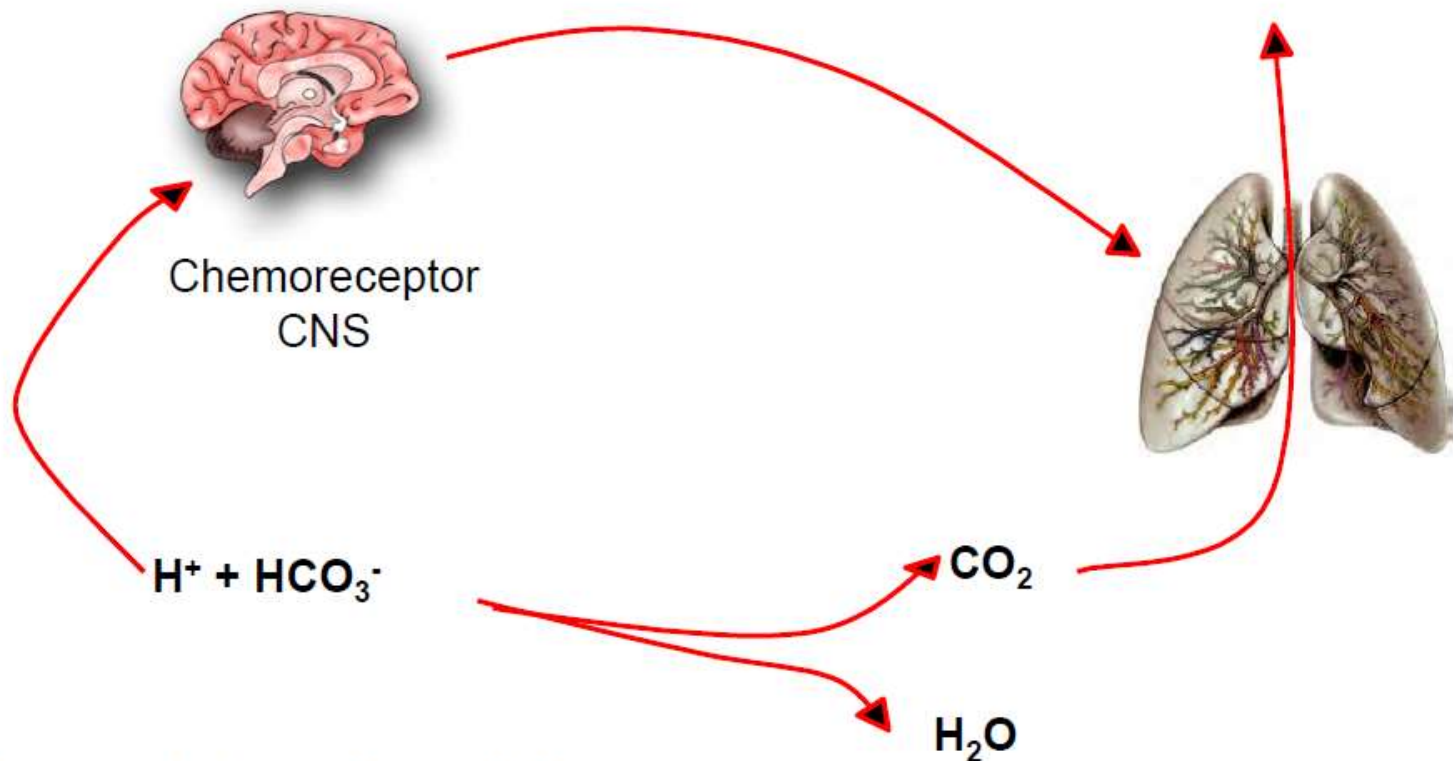
All cells



Bone cells

Acid Stress: The Respiratory Response

- Central chemoreceptor: sense P_{CO_2} & (H^+)
- Stimulation ventilation - CO_2 elimination
- Loss of CO_2 – volatile acids: reaction favours captation of H^+



Acid Stress: The Renal Response

→ *Double role: two different nephron segments*

1. Reabsorption of filtered bicarbonate

- Proximal tubule(+ TAL)
- Regeneration of the main circulating buffer

2. Excretion of net acid load

- Distal nephron: intercalated cells
- Elimination of non-volatile acids < metabolism

Basal state: loss of 70 mEq H⁺ /day in urine

- Daily production of non-volatile acids : needs buffering !
- Equilibrium: production H⁺ = excretion H⁺
- Blood pH is stable

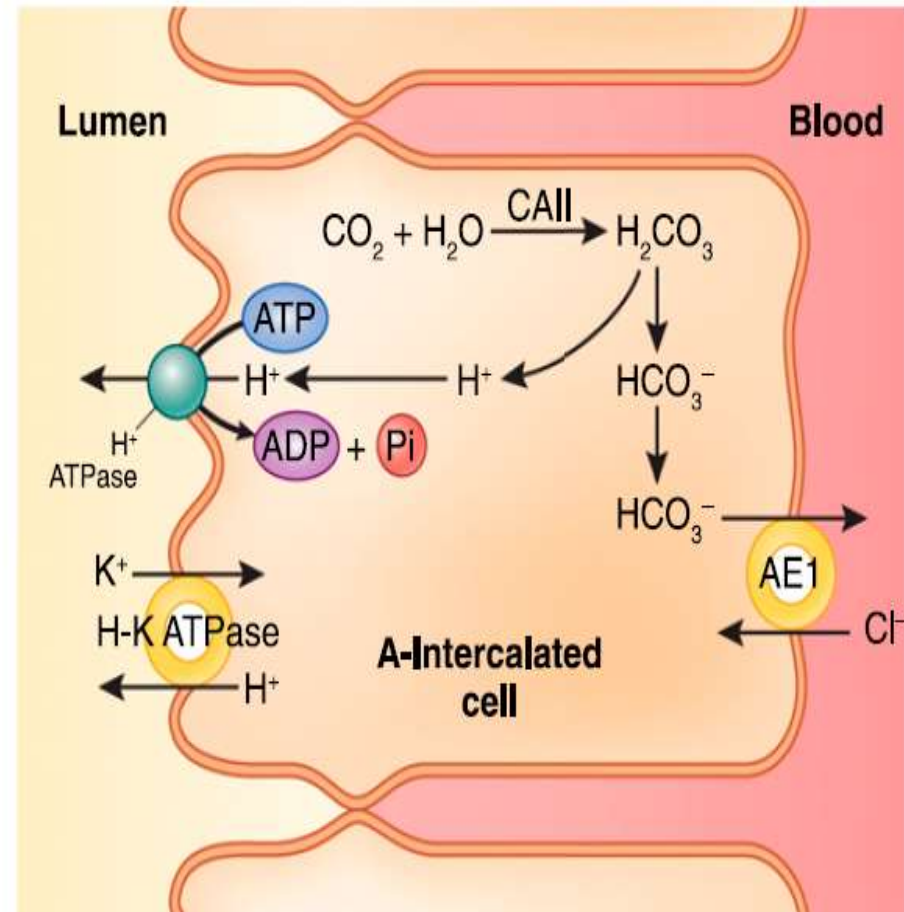
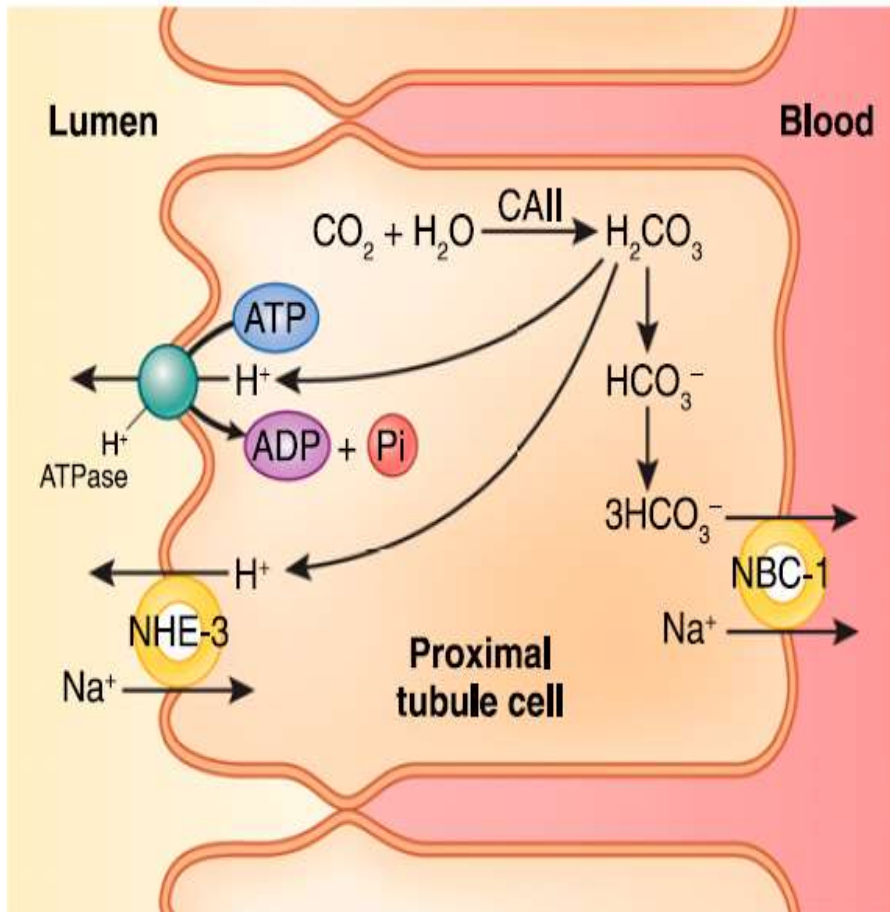
Buffers in the Urine: Phosphate, Ammonia

To buffer the large amounts (70-80 mM/day) of free H^+

- $NHE_3 - NH_4^+$ (ammonia/ammonium - 2/3 acid excretion - 40 mmol/d)
 - $HPO_4^{2-} - H_2PO_4^-$ (phosphate - 1/3 acid excretion - 20 mmol/d)
 - HCO_3^- (filtered but > 95% reabsorbed in PT + TAL)

! Urine pH : indicative value but quantitatively negligible (nEq/L)

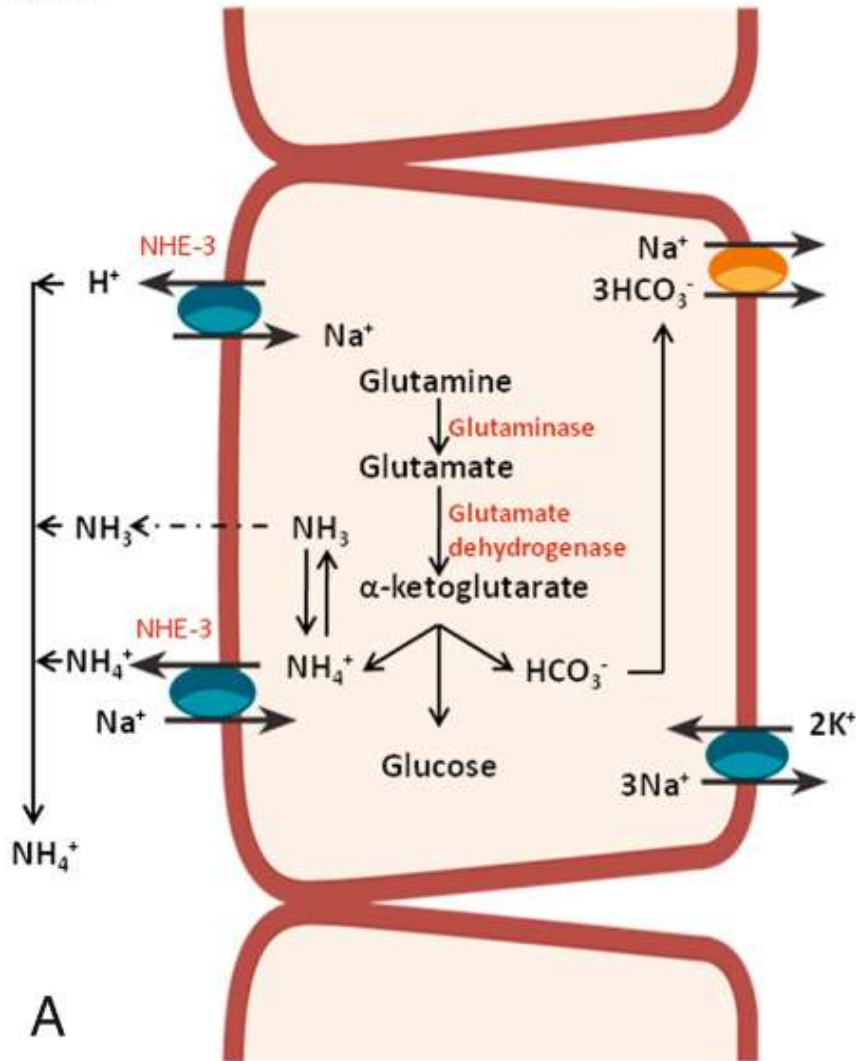
Cell transport models of a bicarbonate reabsorbing proximal tubule cell (left) and an acid secreting α -intercalated cell (right)



Cell models of ammonia synthesis and excretion pathways

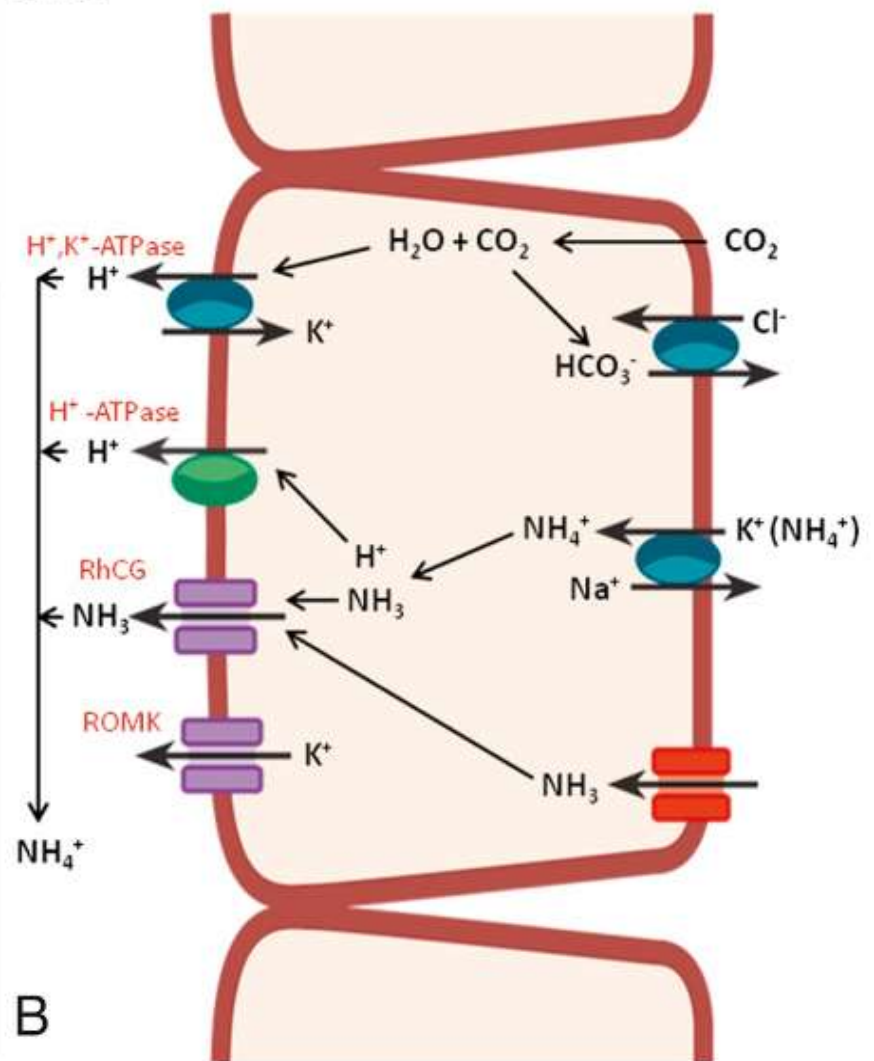
panel A: Proximal convoluted tubule
 panel B: Type A intercalated cell in collecting tubule

Lumen



A

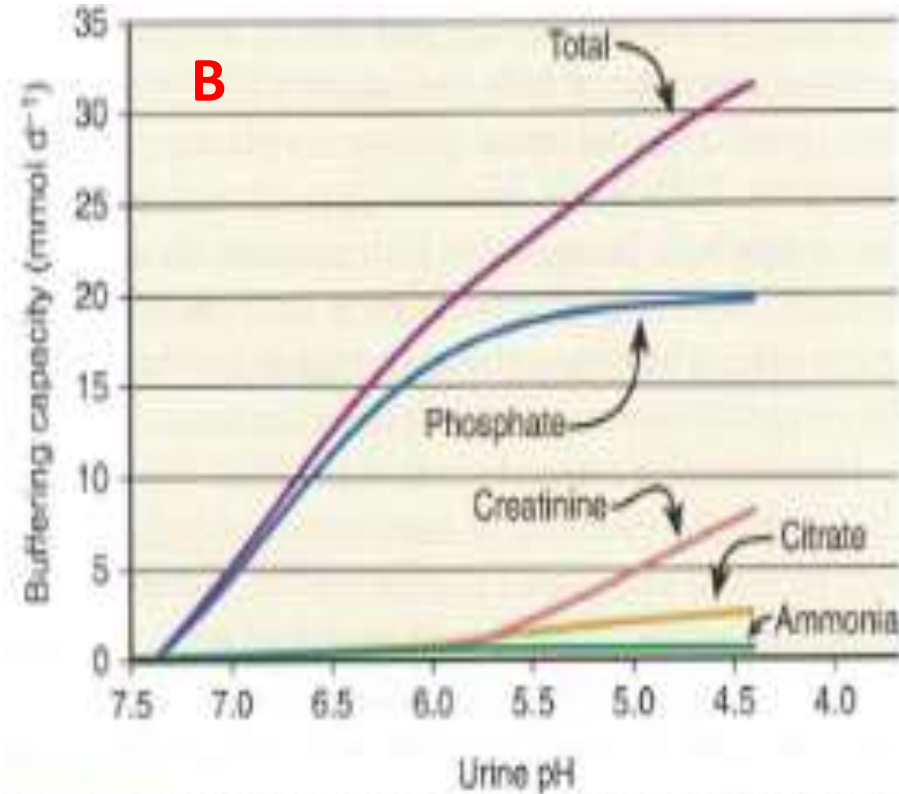
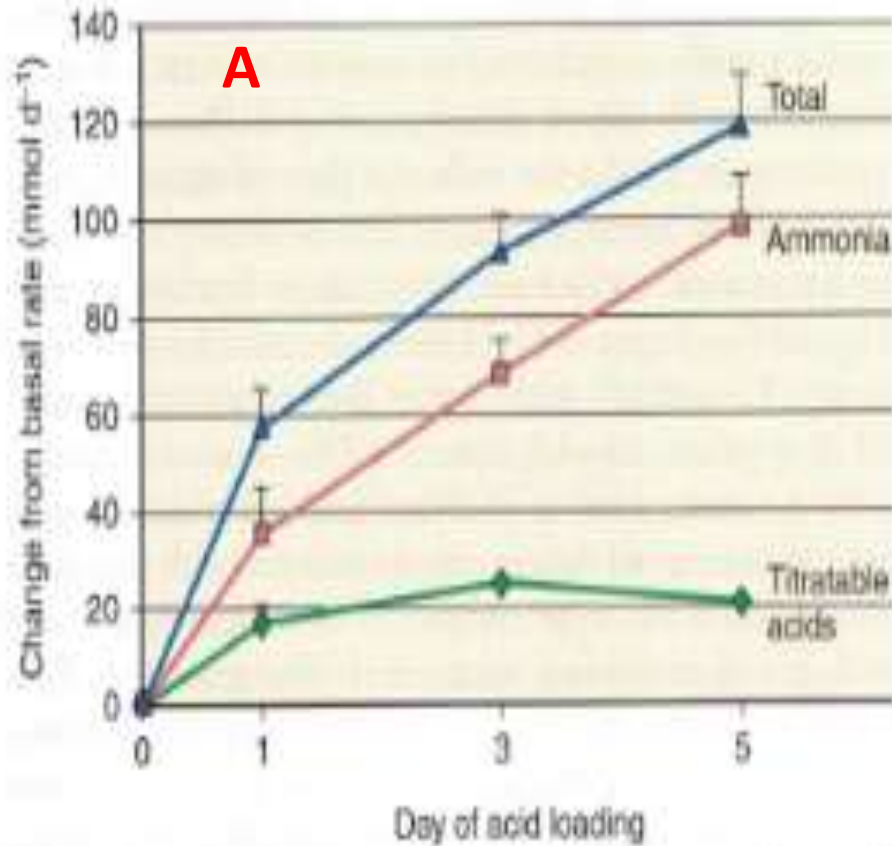
Lumen



B

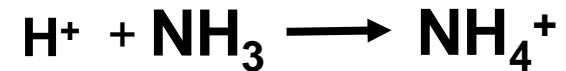
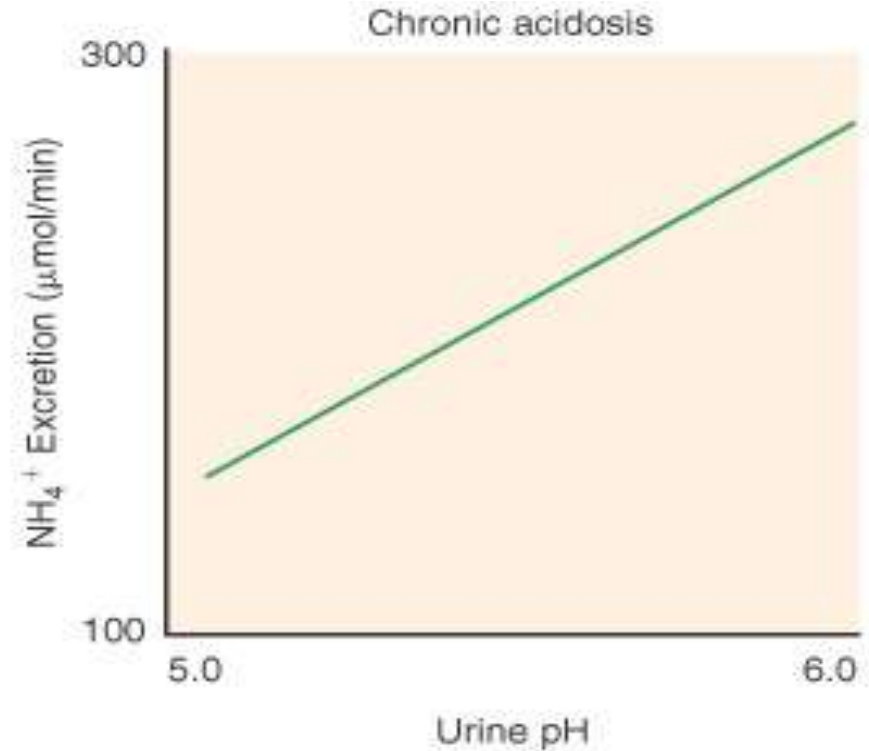
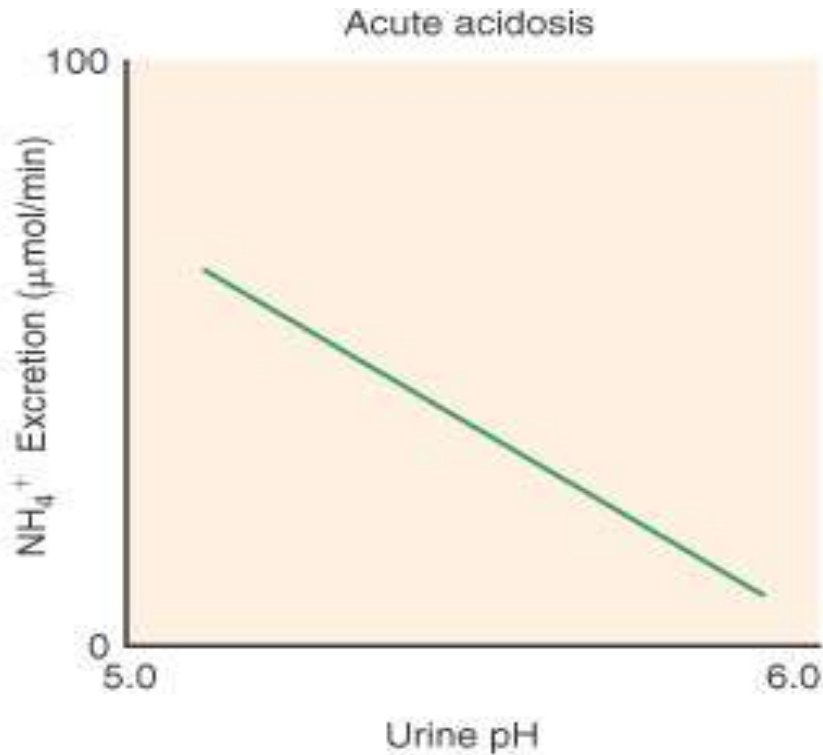
Relative responses of TA and ammonia excretion in the response to metabolic acidosis (panel A)

Relative contribution of urinary buffers to TA excretion (panel B)



$$\text{Net UAE} = (\text{UNH}_4^+ \times V) + (\text{UTA} \times V) - (\text{UHCO}_3^- \times V)$$

Urine pH and the excretion of NH_4^+



Acidification of the urine by the A intercalated cell

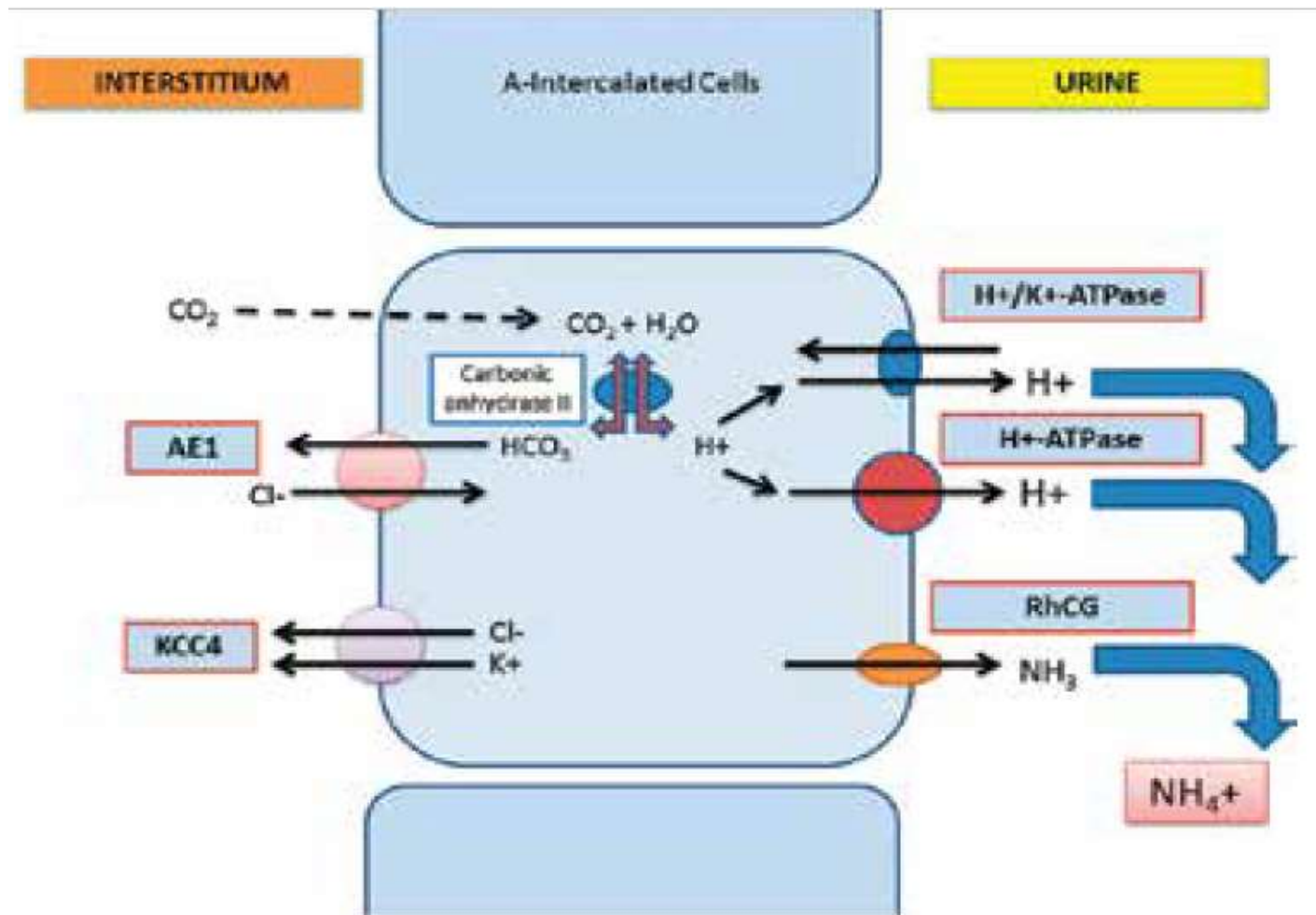
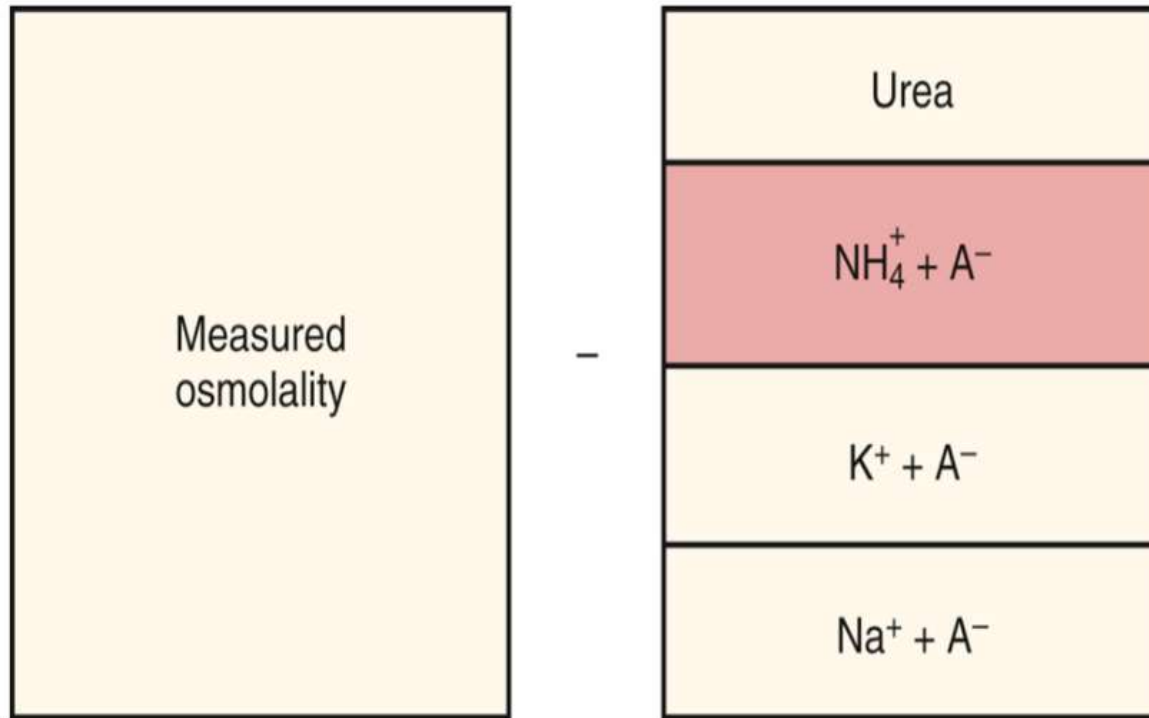


Figure 5. | The α -intercalated cell and handling of acid balance in the distal tubule. Acidification of the urine depends on the entry of CO_2 into the cell and its reaction with water to create bicarbonate and H^+ ions. This reaction is catalyzed by carbonic anhydrase II (CAII). The bicarbonate is reabsorbed *via* cellular exit through the anion exchanger 1 (AE1). The H^+ is excreted *via* H^+/K^+ -ATPase or H^+ -ATPase. Lastly, ammonia is transported into the tubule *via* the Rh C glycoprotein (RhCG) channel. Defects in H^+ ion secretion, backflow of H^+ ions into the cell, defects in AE1 or CAII or in ammonia production or transport can all lead to forms of distal RTA.

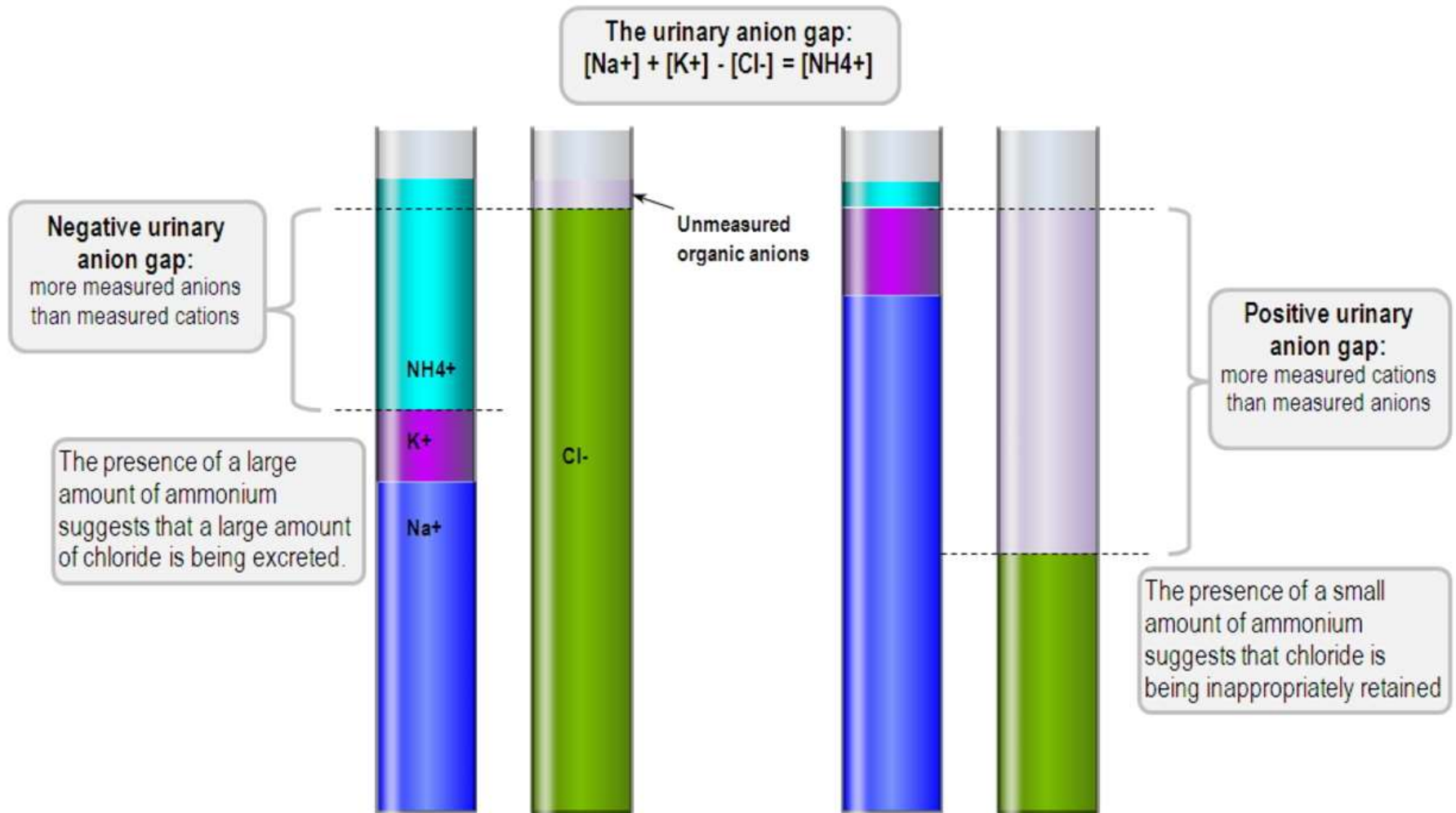
Estimation of the $U_{\text{NH}_4^+}$ concentration by calculation of the urine osmolality gap



$$U_{\text{NH}_4^+} = 0.5 \left(U_{\text{osm}} - [2\text{Na}^+ + \text{K}^+]_{\text{u}} + \text{urea}_{\text{u}} + \text{glucose}_{\text{u}} \right)$$

Urinary ammonium concentrations of 75 mEq/L or more would be anticipated if renal tubular function is intact and the kidney is responding to the prevailing metabolic acidosis by increasing ammonium production and excretion. Conversely, values below 25 mEq/L denote inappropriately low urinary ammonium concentrations.

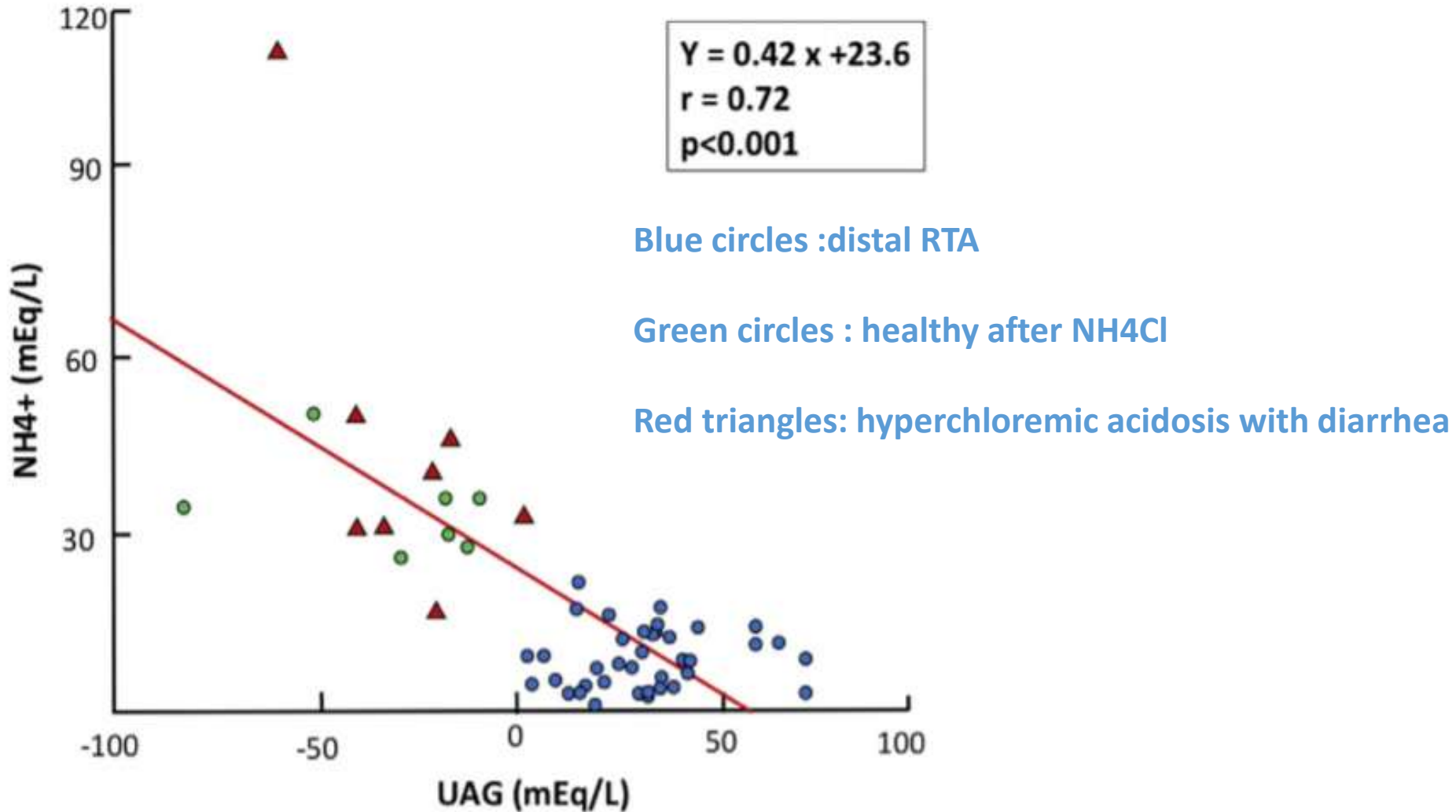
The urinary anion gap in metabolic acidosis

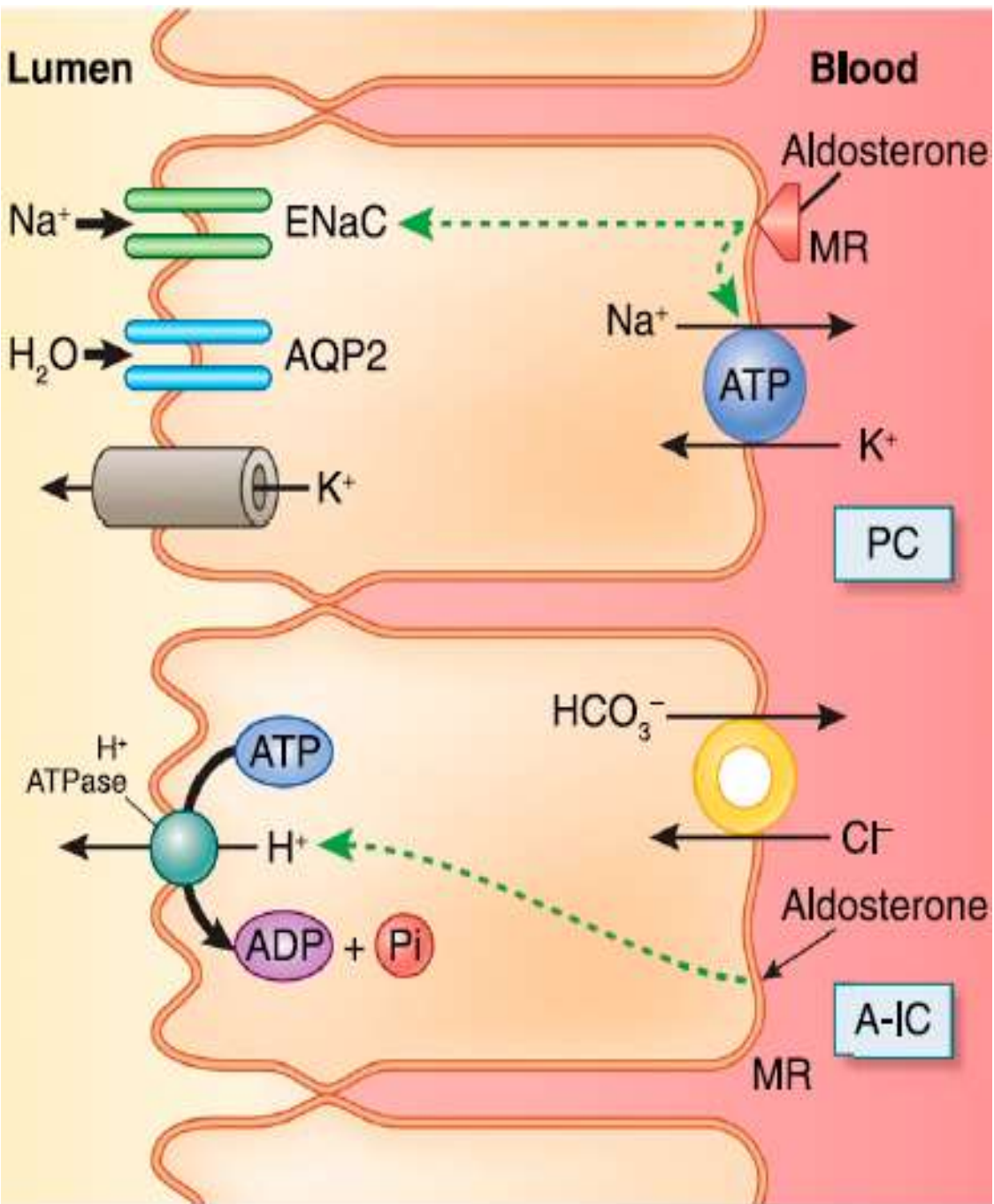


Mostly chronic metabolic acidosis or
Diarrhea induced hyperchloremic acidosis

CKD, Distal RTA or
Renal adaptation of chronic respiratory
alkalosis where NH_4^+ is suppressed

Urinary ammonium (NH₄⁺) excretion in relation to urinary anion gap (UAG)





Effect of aldosterone on Na, K and H transport in the CD

Steps in evaluation of acid-base status

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_\alpha + \log \frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}^-]} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{HCO}_3^- \\ \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3 (\text{pCO}_2) \end{array}$$

1. What is blood pH?
2. Which one (HCO_3^- or pCO_2) has moved in the direction of pH?
3. Is compensation appropriate?
4. Are there more primary abnormalities?
5. What is anion gap? **AG = $\text{Na}^+ - (\text{Cl}^- + \text{CO}_2)$**

Expected respiratory compensatory responses

Disorder	Compensation	Limits
Metabolic Acidosis	<p>Expected $p\text{CO}_2 = (1.5 \times \text{HCO}_3^-) + 8 \pm 2$</p> <p>Expected $p\text{CO}_2 = \text{last 2 digits of pH}$</p> <p>$\Delta p\text{CO}_2 = 1.2 \times \Delta \text{HCO}_3^-$</p>	$p\text{CO}_2$ cannot go < 10 mmHg
Metabolic Alkalosis	<p>$\Delta p\text{CO}_2 = 0.7 \times \Delta \text{HCO}_3^-$</p> <p>$\text{HCO}_3^- + 15 = p\text{CO}_2 = \text{last two digits of pH}$</p>	$p\text{CO}_2$ cannot go > 55 mmHg
Respiratory Acidosis	<p>Acute: $\Delta \text{HCO}_3^- = 0.2 \times \Delta p\text{CO}_2$</p> <p>Chronic: $\Delta \text{HCO}_3^- = 0.4 \times \Delta p\text{CO}_2$</p>	<p>HCO_3^- cannot go > 30 mmHg</p> <p>HCO_3^- cannot go > 45 mmHg</p>
Respiratory Alkalosis	<p>Acute: $\Delta \text{HCO}_3^- = 0.2 \times p\text{CO}_2$</p> <p>Chronic: $\Delta \text{HCO}_3^- = 0.5 \times p\text{CO}_2$</p>	<p>HCO_3^- cannot go < 17-18 mmHg</p> <p>HCO_3^- cannot go < 12-15 mmHg</p>

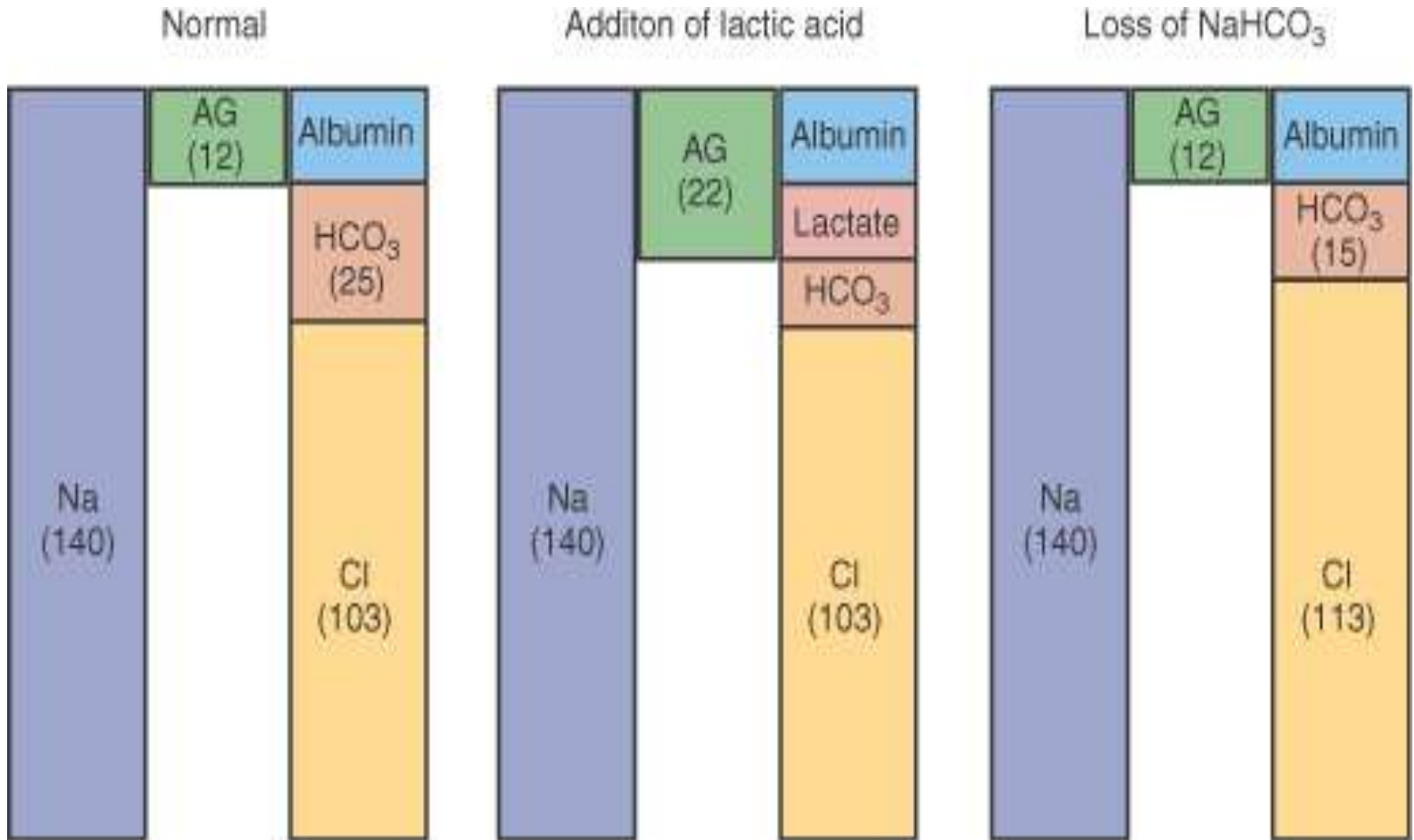
Arterial and central venous blood acid-base parameters

Condition	pH		[HCO ₃ ⁻]		PCO ₂ mmHg	
	A	CVB	A	CVB	A	CVB
Control	7.40	7.38	24	24	40	41
Acidosis without poor tissue perfusion	7.37	7.34	22	22	38	42
Severe CHF with decreased tissue perfusion	7.31	7.21	19.8	23.4	43.5	67.5
Cardiac arrest	7.36	7.01	6.9	8.1	27.5	76.5

Adrogué HJ et al. N Engl J Med 1989, 320 : 1312-1316

Treger R et al. Clin J Am Soc Nephrol 2010, 5: 390-394.

Assessment of the anion gap in plasma



$$AG = Na^+ - (Cl^- + HCO_3^-)$$

Significance of the anion gap

the past, “normal” anion gap was

12 +/- 4 meq/L

- **At present, changes in the technique for chloride have lowered the anion gap to**

8 to 10 +/- 4 meq/L

- **Anion gaps less than 20 mEq/L rarely indicate significant acidosis and are most secondary to changes in proteins, phosphate, or charge equivalents**
- **Anion gaps of more than 30 mEq/L are usually caused by easily identifiable acidoses**

The “real” anion gap

Unmeasured cations mEq/L		Unmeasured anions mEq/L	
K	4.5	Proteins	15
Ca	5	PO ₄	2
Mg	1.5	SO ₄	1
		Organic acids	5
Total	11	total	23

$\Delta : + 12$

Alterations in anion gap by non-acid-base disorders

- **Hypoalbuminemia and hyperphosphatemia**

Correction by following formula

“normal” AG = 2 (albumin g/dl) + 0.5 (phosphate mg/dl)

or

“normal” AG = 0.2 (albumin g/L) + 1.5 (phosphate mmol/L)

- Practically: **The approximate correction is a reduction in the normal anion gap of 2.5 meq/l for every 1g/dl decline in the plasma albumin concentration (normal value = 4 g/dl)**
- Hypercalcemia
- Lithium carbonate therapy
- Antibiotic administration (e.g. carbenicillin)
- Spurious laboratory results (e.g. hyperlipidemia)

The use of the Delta AG / Delta HCO₃ ratio - Advantages

- **Delta AG / Delta HCO₃ ratio should be equal to 1 in pure high AG acidosis**

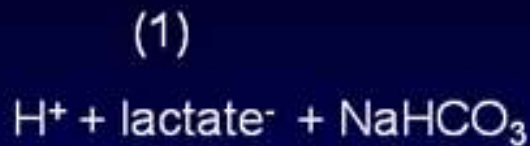
A value > 1, where the increase in AG is higher than the decrease in HCO₃ could be due to concomitant alkalosis or compensation for respiratory acidosis.

A value < 1 with a relative decrease of HCO₃ can be due to an concomitant hyperchloremic metabolic acidosis or compensation for a respiratory alkalosis.

Use of the Delta/Delta: Examples

<u>AG</u>	<u>HCO₃</u>	<u>Diagnosis</u>
18 (↑ 6)	18 (↓ 6)	Appropriate; pure AG acidosis
18 (↑ 6)	22 (↓ 2)	HCO ₃ has ↓ less than predicted, so HCO ₃ is too high; mixed AG acidosis AND met alk
18 (↑ 6)	12 (↓ 12)	HCO ₃ has ↓ more than predicted, so HCO ₃ is too low; mixed AG AND non-AG acidosis

Evolution of the serum anion gap In high anion gap metabolic acidosis

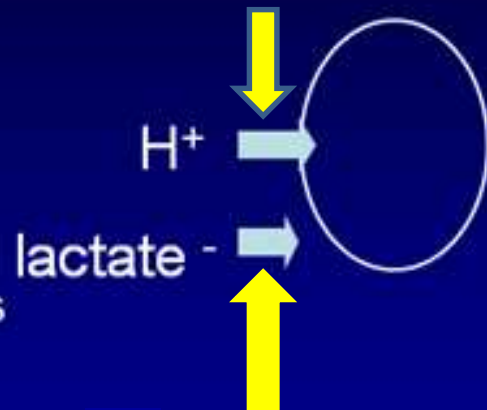


NI

AG Acidosis

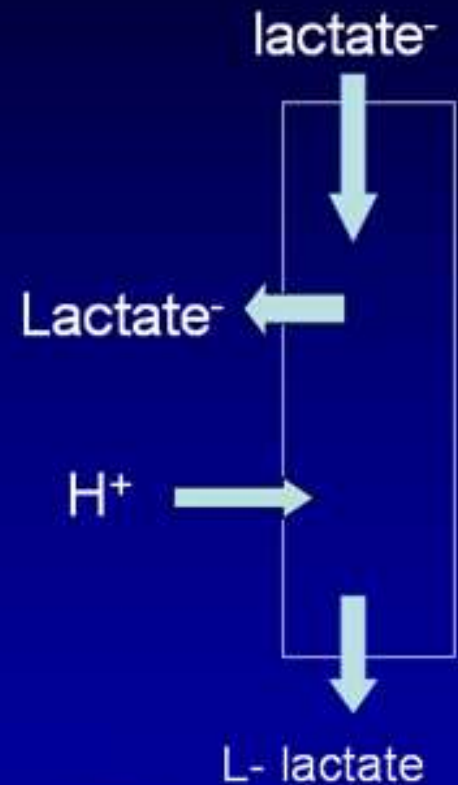
Na	140	140	140
HCO ₃	24	14	14
Cl ⁻	106	106	100
AG	10	20	26
ΔAG/ΔHCO ₃	1:1	1.6:1	

(2)
 Part of the H⁺ is buffered intracellularly and does not decrease Plasma HCO₃⁻ further



Lactate anion remains Extracellularly

(3)



Urinary anion excretion determines $\Delta\text{AG}/\Delta\text{HCO}_3^-$ in overproduction acidosis

Disorder	DKA (n = 8)	L-Lactic acidosis (n = 8)	Toluene intoxication (n = 3)
Plasma HCO_3^- (mEq/L)	11.0 ± 1.3	14.9 ± 2.4	11.3 ± 1.5
$\Delta\text{AG}/\Delta\text{HCO}_3^-$	1.0 ± 0.1	1.5 ± 0.1	0.3 ± 0.1
Fe anion %	45.8 ± 3.1	4.7 ± 0.3	> 100

Anion gap acidosis mnemonic: GOLD MARK:

- Glycols (ethylene and propylene),
- Oxoproline,
- L-lactate, D-lactate,
- Methanol,
- Aspirin,
- Renal failure, and
- Ketoacidosis.

Mehta et al. Lancet 2008;372:892

** Anion gap corrected for albumin is an excellent surrogate for strong anion gap (SIG).*

American Journal of Emergency Medicine (2012) 30, 391

PLoS ONE, vol. 8, no.2,2013.

Major pathways of pyruvate and lactate metabolism

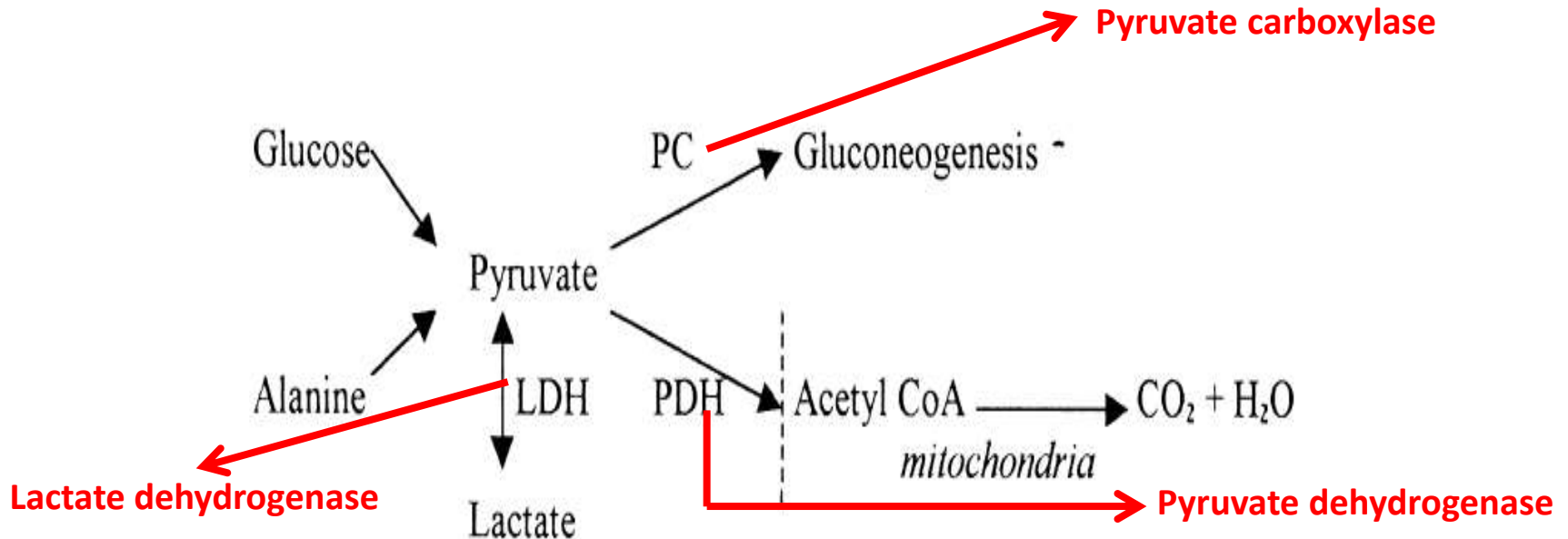
Lactic acid production:

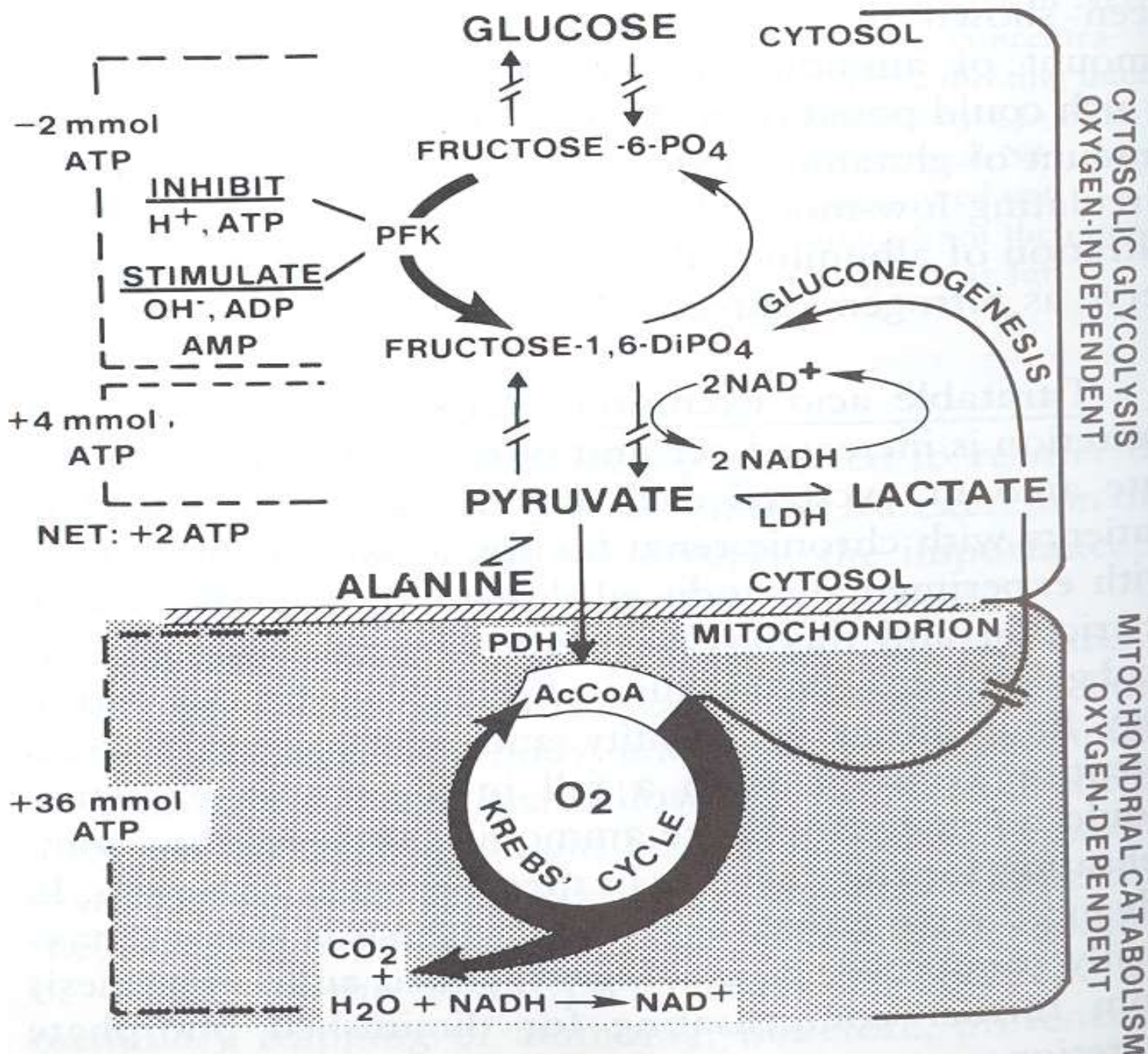
Skin
Erythrocytes
Brain
Muscle

Lactic acid utilisation:

90% by Liver
1. oxydation of pyruvic acid (80%)
2. gluconeogenesis (20%)
10% by Kidney
1. oxydation of pyruvic acid
2. gluconeogenesis
3. excretion

**Basal lactate production
Is 0.8 mmol/kg/hr (1300 mmol/day)**





Conditions favouring the conversion of pyruvate to lactate

Systemic hypoperfusion necessitating anaerobic metabolism

Regional hypoperfusion and microcirculatory dysfunction

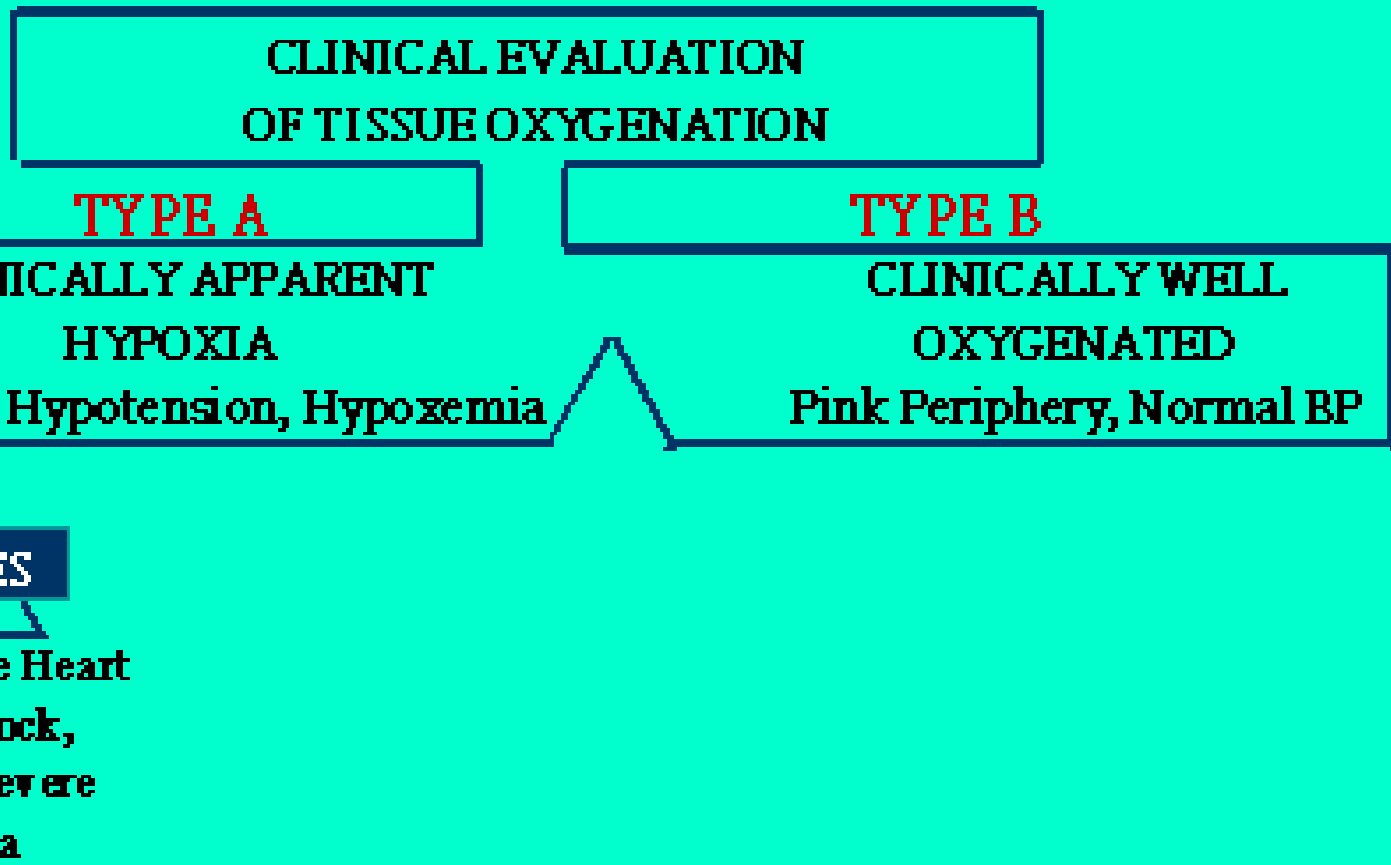
Increased aerobic glycolysis, with pyruvate production exceeding pyruvate dehydrogenase capacity. This condition may be seen in response to cytokine release, increased circulating catecholamine levels, or the accumulation of leukocytes at the site of inflammation/infection

Mitochondrial dysfunction shunting pyruvate away from the tricarboxylic acid cycle, which may be seen in sepsis and drug toxicity (f.e. metformin)

Impaired activity of pyruvate dehydrogenase, which is essential for the conversion of pyruvate into acetyl coenzyme A, a necessary step in aerobic metabolism. This condition may be seen in excessive alcohol use and cofactor deficiency states (beriberi)

Diagnosis of lactic acidosis (1)

- (HCO₃), Pco₂, pH: all low
- Anion Gap: Increased > 12 mM
- Ketotest neg; BUN < 40 mg/dl;
- no intoxication
- serum (lactate) increased > 2 mM



Diagnosis of lactic acidosis (2)

- (HCO_3^-) , Pco_2 , pH: all low
- Anion Gap: Increased $> 12 \text{ mM}$
- Ketotest neg; BUN $< 40 \text{ mg/dl}$;
- no intoxication
- serum (lactate) increased $> 2 \text{ mM}$

CLINICAL EVALUATION OF TISSUE OXYGENATION

TYPE A

CLINICALLY APPARENT HYPOXIA

Cyanosis, Hypotension, Hypoxemia

CAUSES

Congestive Heart failure, shock, Anemia, Severe Hypoxemia

TYPE B

CLINICALLY WELL OXYGENATED

Pink Periphery, Normal BP

COMMON CAUSES

Liver Damage, Sepsis, Seizures, Diabetes Mellitus, Malignancy

DRUGS AND TOXINS

Fructose
Ethanol
Methanol
Biguanides

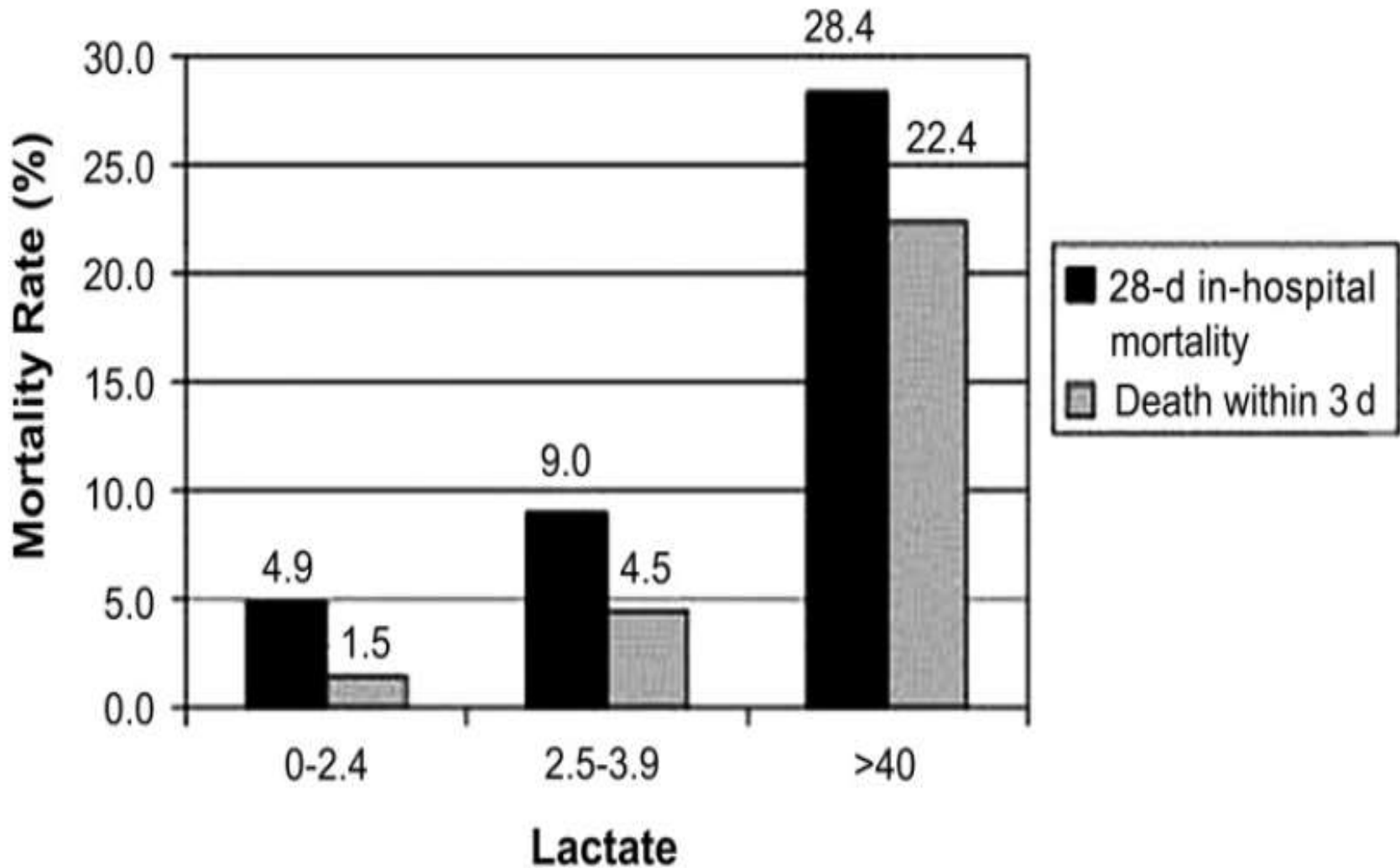
HEREDITARY DISORDERS

Von Gierke's Disease
Fructose-1,6-Diphosphatase Def.
Pyruvate Carboxylase Def.
Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Def.

MISC DIS-ORDERS

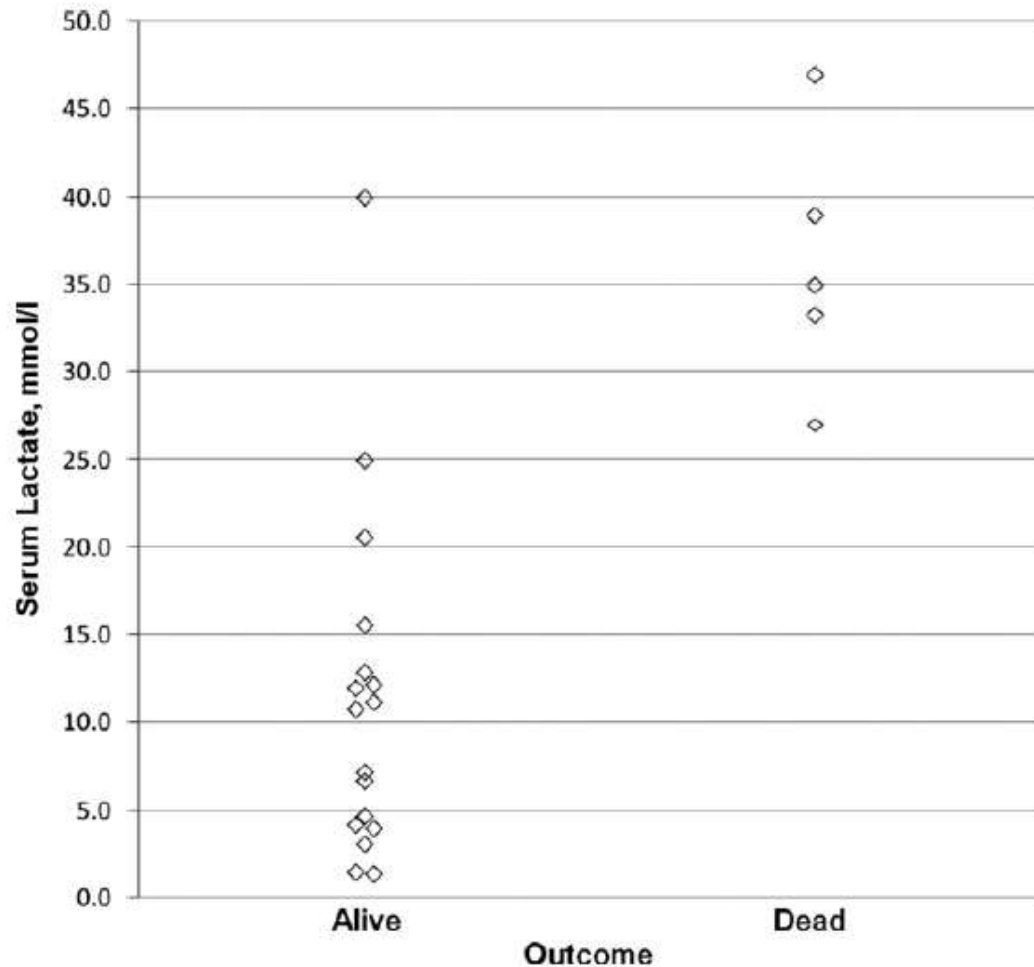
D-Lactic Acidosis

Lactate as a predictor of mortality



Shapiro et al Ann Emerg Med 2005;45(5):524–528;

Metformin overdose- lactate levels



Peak serum lactate concentration and mortality.

Modification of metformin doses with respect to renal function

CKD stage	eGFR ml/min/1.73 m ²	Dose	% max.
0-1	≥90	2,500 mg daily	100
2	≥60	1,000 mg b.i.d.	80
3	≥45	500 mg b.i.d.	40
3	≥30	500 mg daily	20
4-5	<30	0	0

Updated US Food and Drug Administration guidelines for the use of metformin in CKD

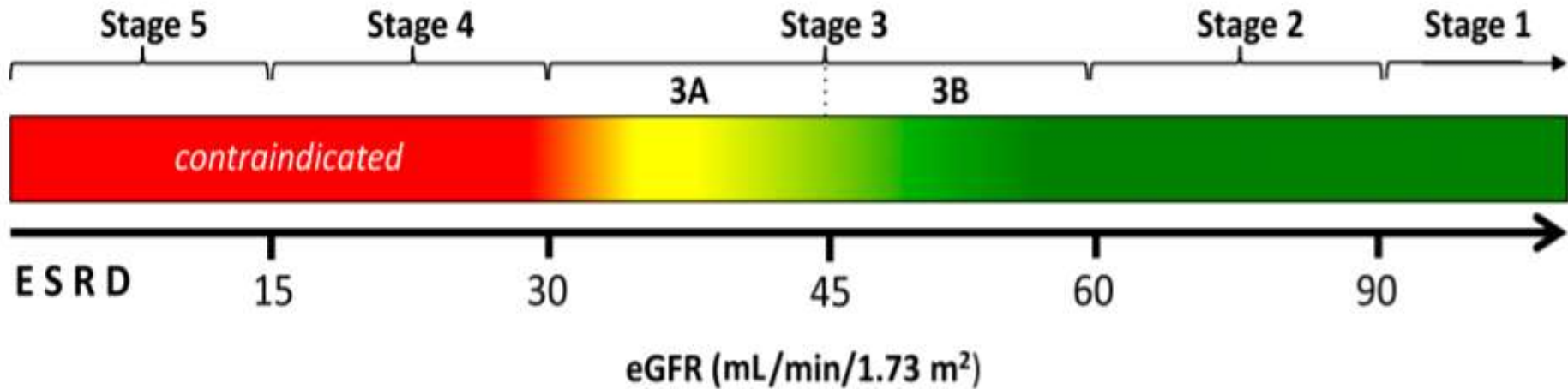


Figure 2—Recently updated U.S. Food and Drug Administration guidelines for the use of metformin in CKD. Metformin may now be used in patients with estimated glomerular filtration rate (eGFR) <60 mL/min/1.73 m² but is contraindicated in those with an eGFR <30 mL/min/1.73 m². If eGFR falls <45 mL/min/1.73 m², the benefits and risks of continuing treatment should be assessed. Starting metformin in patients with an eGFR between 30 and 45 mL/min/1.73 m² is not recommended. ESRD, end-stage renal disease.

Relationship between plasma bicarbonate and GFR in patients with CKD of various causes

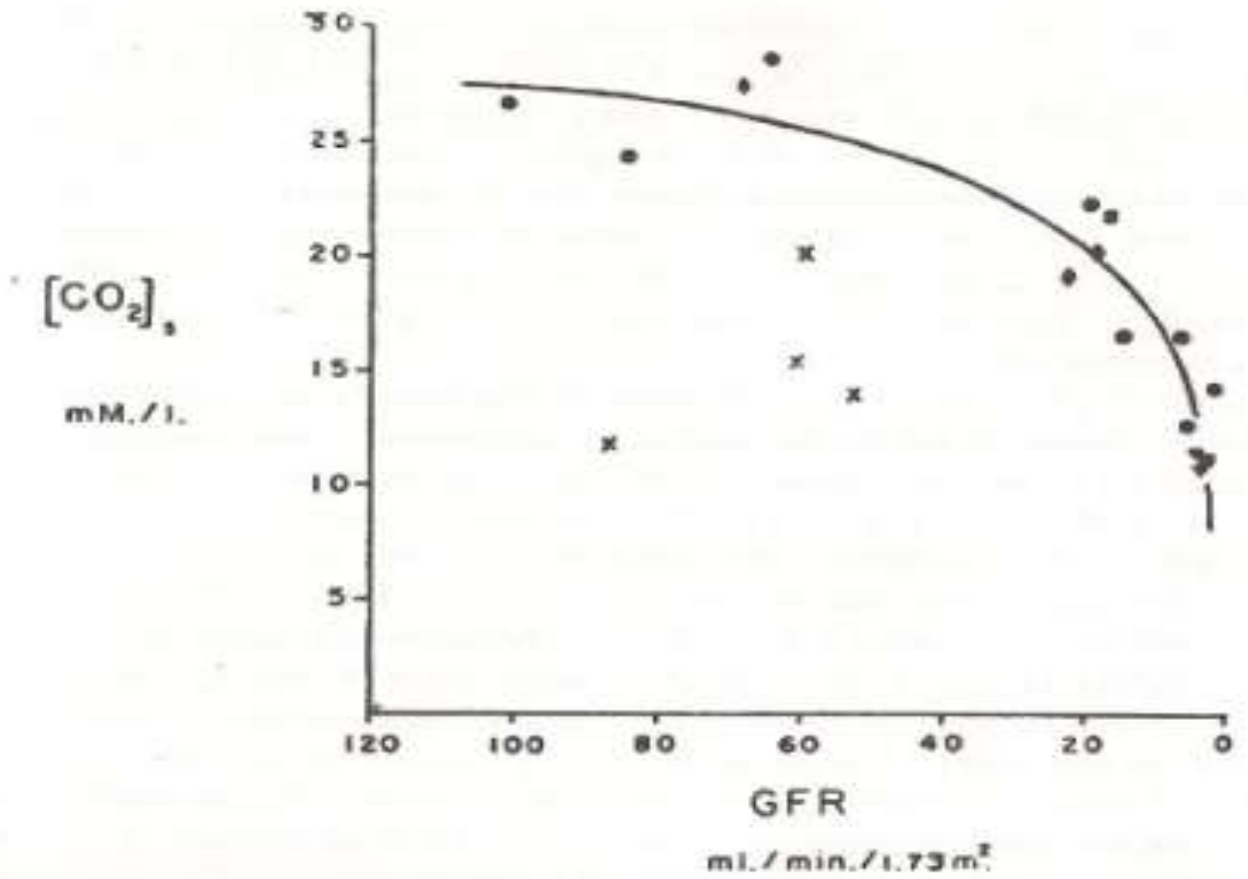
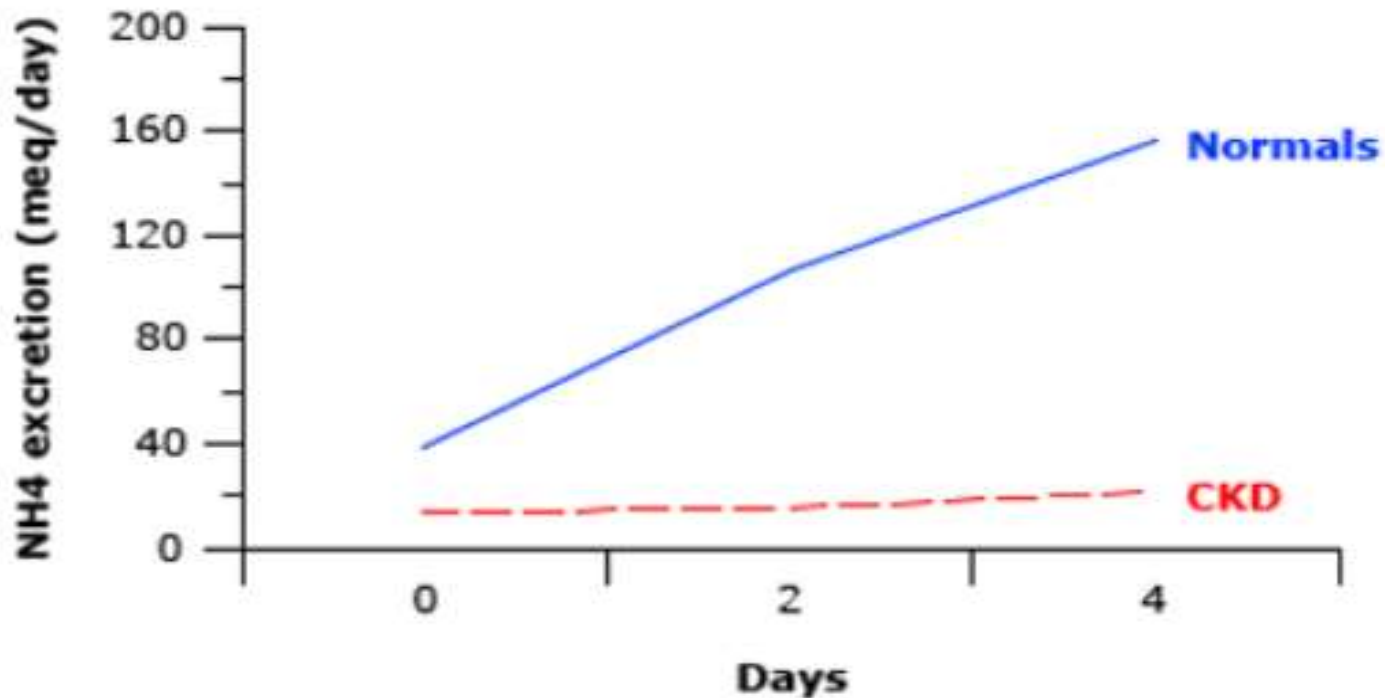


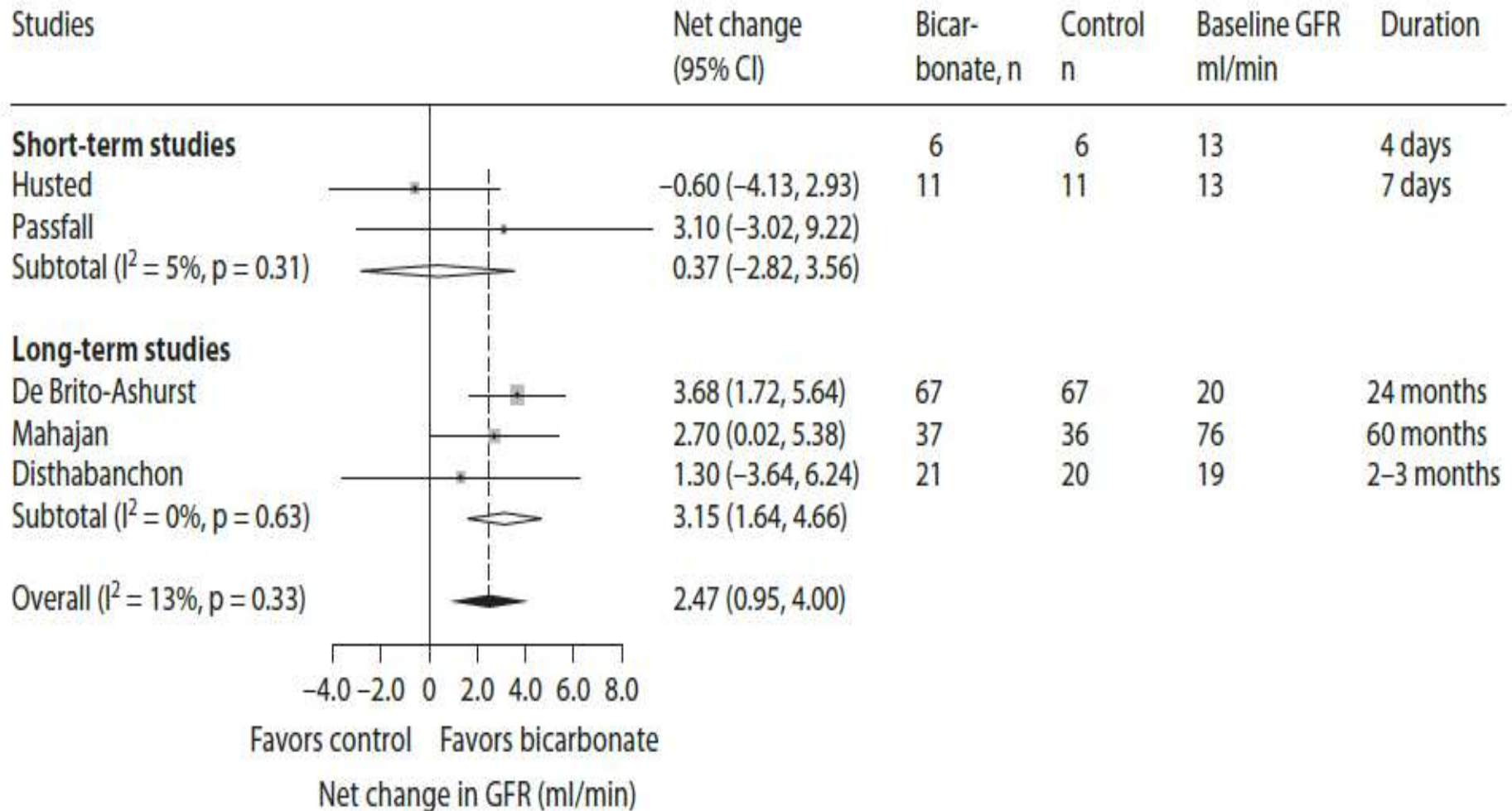
FIG. 1. Relationship between the level of serum total CO₂ concentration and glomerular filtration rate (GFR) in patients with chronic renal disease of various causes, including chronic glomerulonephritis (●), chronic pyelonephritis (■), nephrosclerosis (◆), and polycystic kidney disease (▼). Data from four patients with renal tubular acidosis also are depicted (X). (From ref. 6.)

Impaired ammonium excretion in chronic kidney disease-NH₄Cl loading in normals and CKD

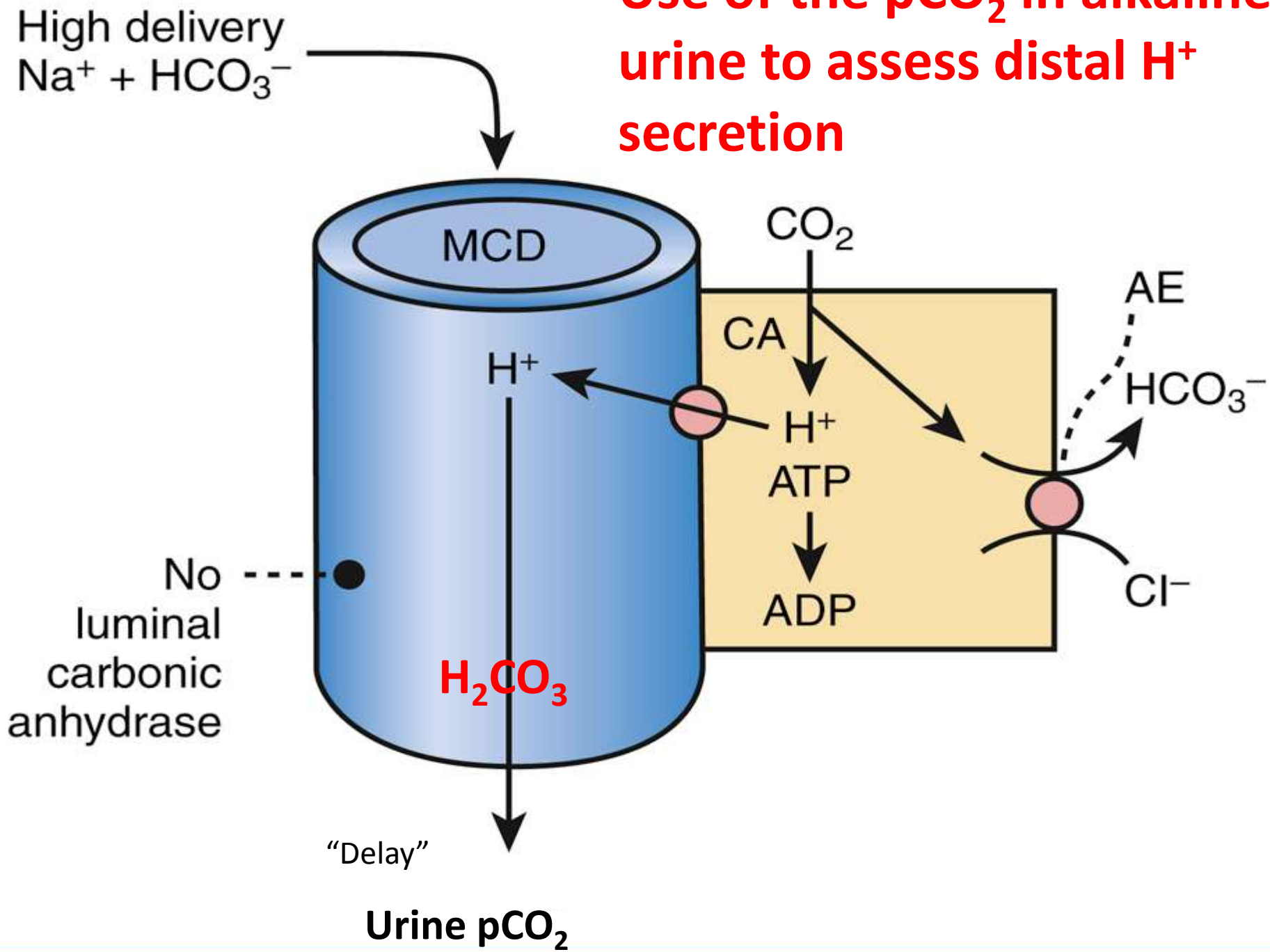


Urinary excretion of ammonium (NH₄) in normals (solid line) and patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD, dashed line) at baseline and after an acid load. The plasma bicarbonate concentration fell from 27 to 22 meq/L in normals and from 22 to 14 meq/L in CKD following the acid load.

Beneficial effects on GFR decline of bicarbonate treatment of acidosis in CKD



Use of the $p\text{CO}_2$ in alkaline urine to assess distal H^+ secretion



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

MCD

H^+

H_2CO_3

"Delay"

Urine $p\text{CO}_2$

No
luminal
carbonic
anhydrase

CO_2

CA

H^+

ATP

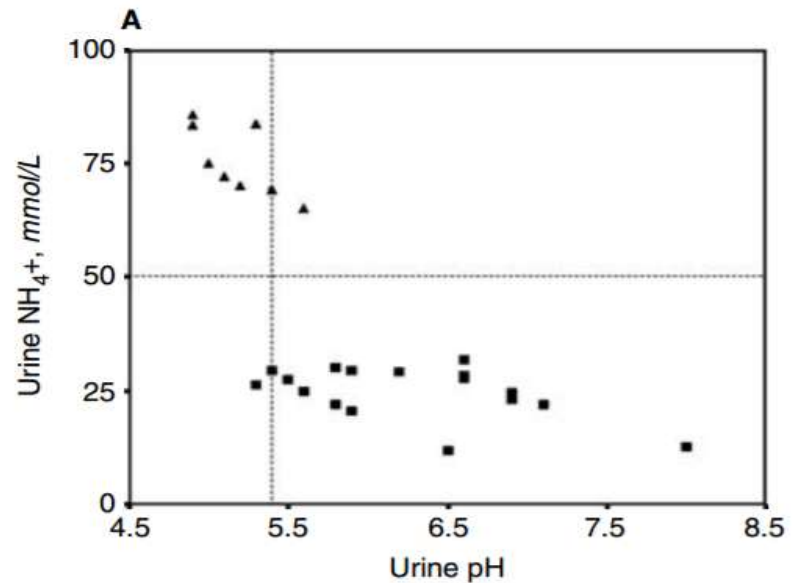
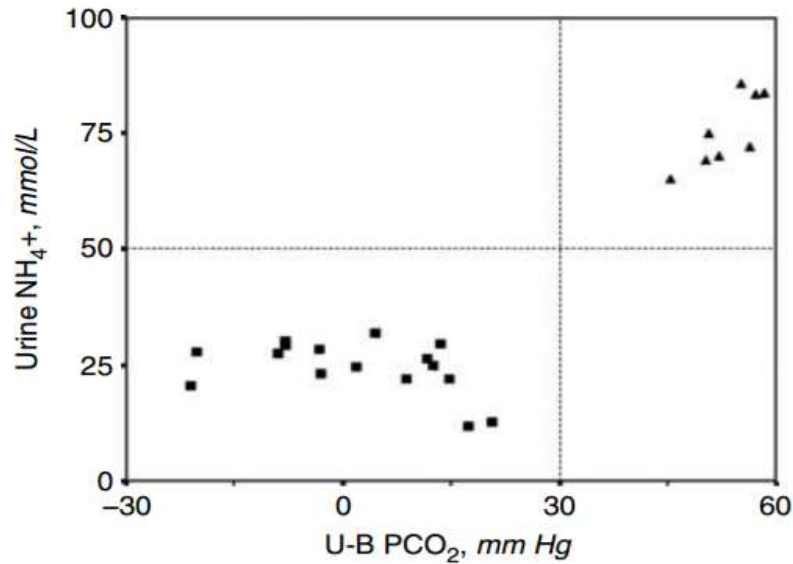
ADP

AE

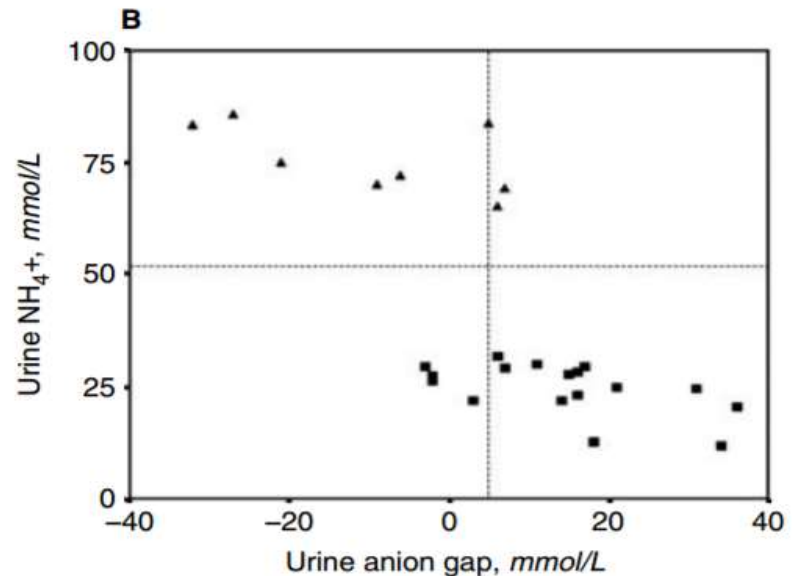
HCO_3^-

Cl^-

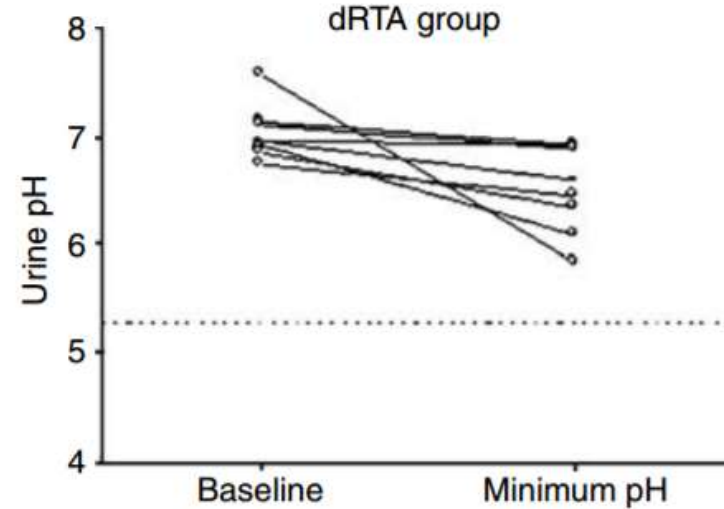
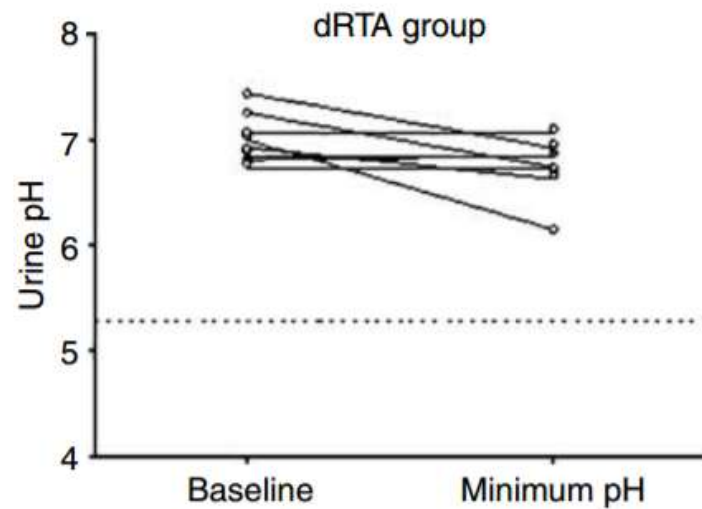
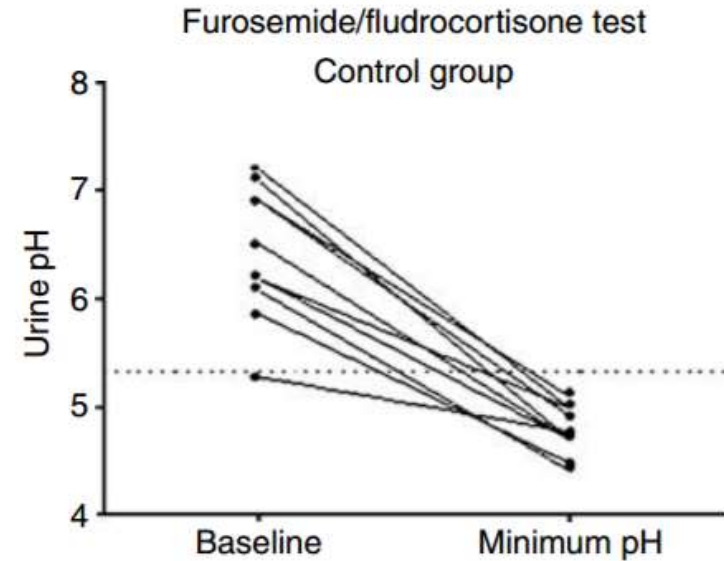
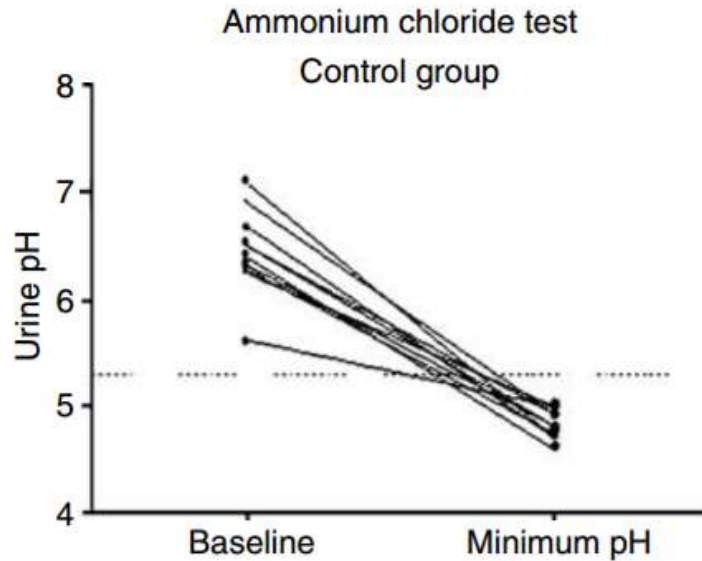
The U-B $p\text{CO}_2$ after bicarbonate loading in dRTA vs controls



Infusion of 2.75% NaHCO_3 solution (4ml/kg/hr. Urine and blood samples at 2hr intervals until the plasma bicarbonate concentration reached 26 mmol/L. Urine and blood PCO_2 were measured using a blood gas analyzer (Nova, Waltham, MA, USA), and the U-B PCO_2 was calculated when the urine pH was raised to 7.5.



The furosemide-hydrocortison test for acidification



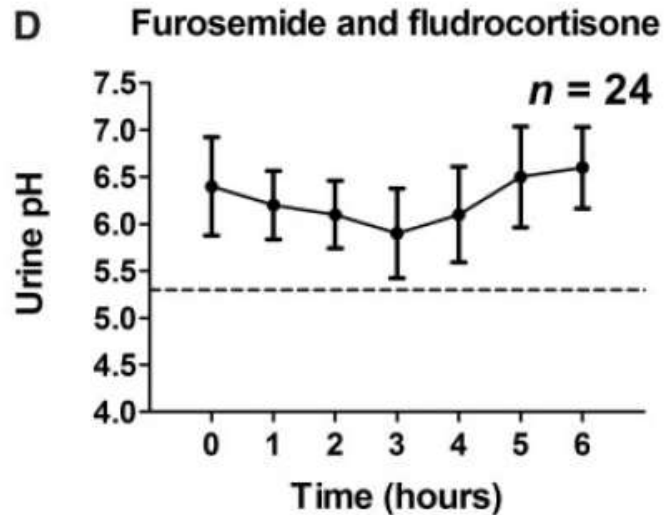
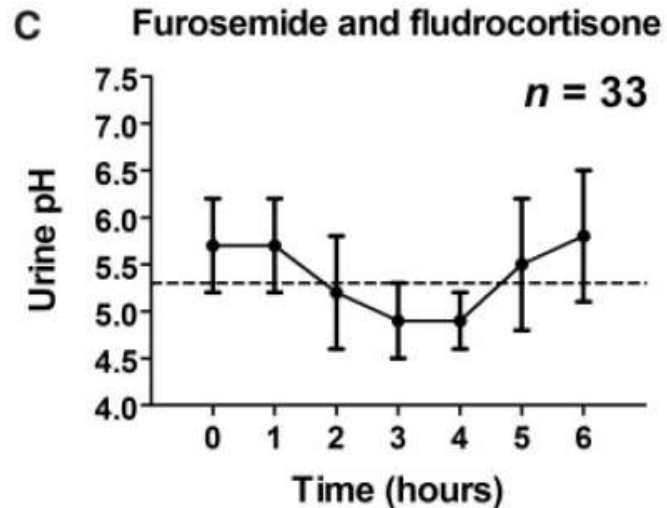
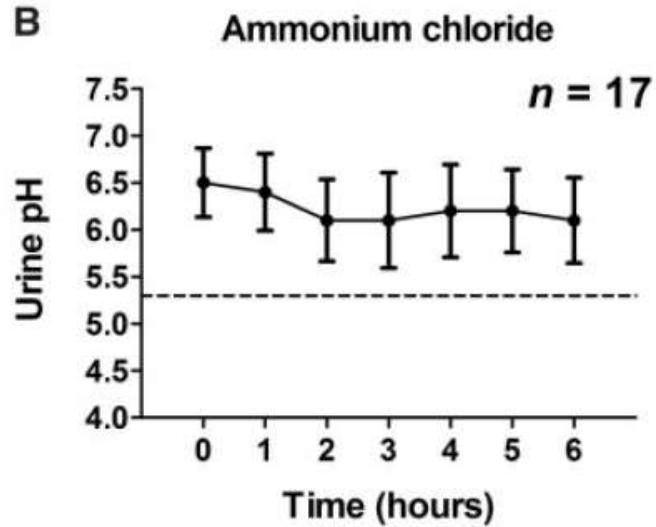
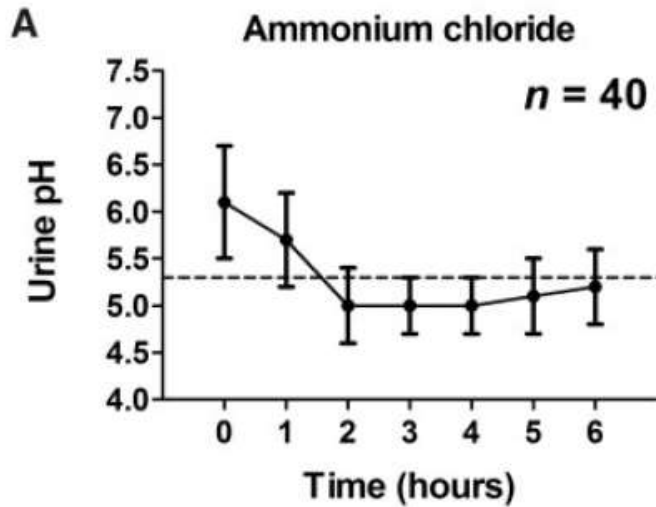
The different types of renal tubular acidosis

	Proximal RTA (type II)	Distal RTA (type I)		Type IV RTA
		Classic Ia (secretory)	Hyperkalaemic Ib (voltage-dependent)	Rate-limited
Bicarbonate wasting				Hyperkalaemic (hypoaldosteronism)
During acidosis				
Urine anionic gap	Negative	Positive	Positive	Positive
Urine pH	<5.5	>5.5	>5.5	<5.5
Plasma K	↔ ↓	↓	↑	↔ ↑
After bicarbonate loading				
FeHCO ₃	>15%	<5%	<5%	<5%
				<10%

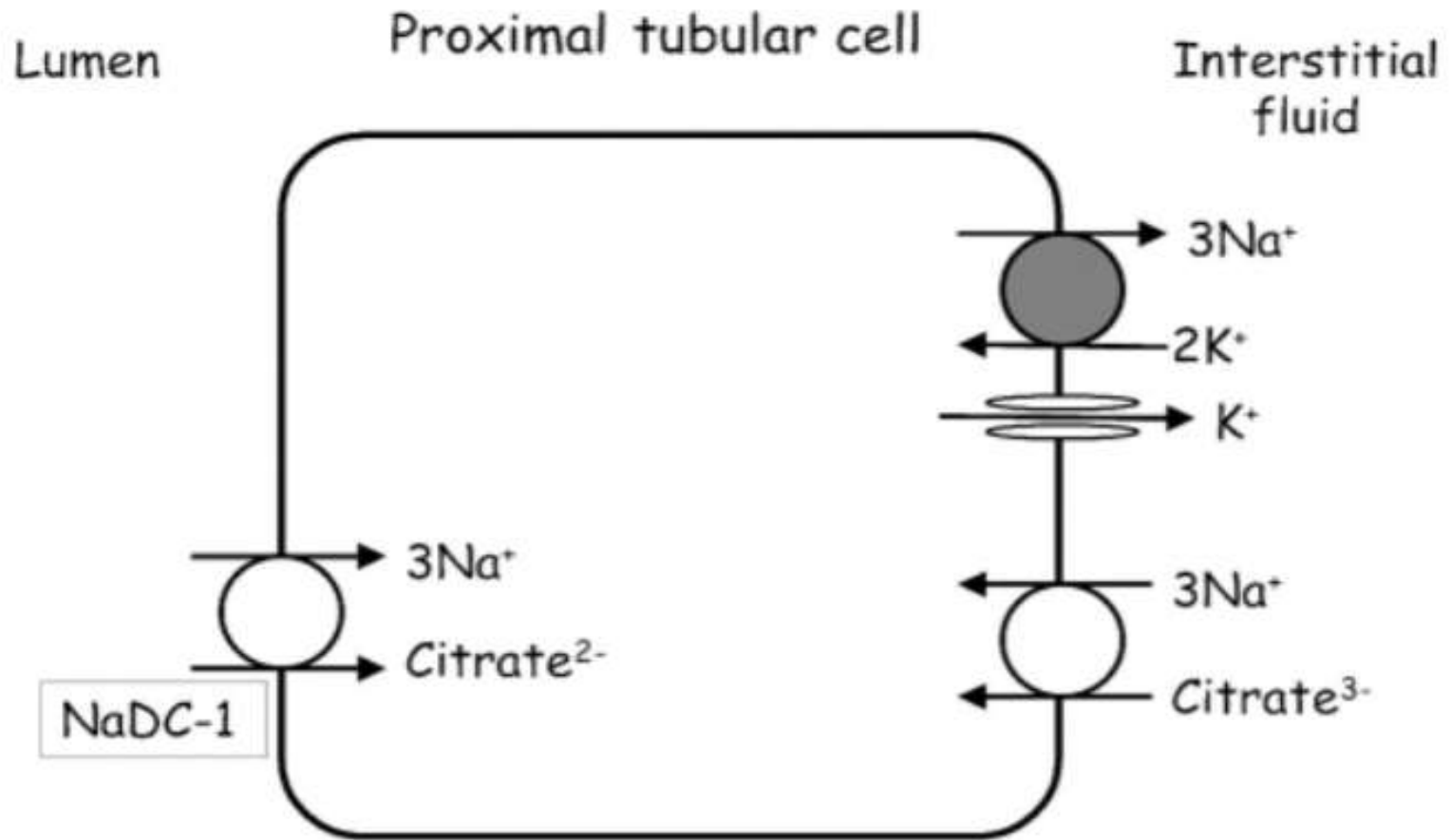
Classification of distal renal tubular acidosis

Voltage Defect	H ⁺ Secretory Defect	H ⁺ Gradient Defect	Defect in Ammonium Secretion
Inherited forms			
Mutation in ENaC subunits	Mutations in H ⁺ ATPase (vacuolar)	None	None
Mutations in mineralocorticoid receptor	Mutations in AE1 Mutations in CAII Medullary sponge kidney		
Acquired forms			
Hypoaldosteronism Any cause Medications NSAIDs Amiloride Cyclosporine Lithium RAAS inhibitors Heparin	Autoimmune disease Sjögren syndrome Lupus Thyroid disease Medications Topiramate Acetazolamide	Medication Amphotericin	Associated with hyperkalemia
Potassium levels			
Normal or elevated	Usually low	Usually low	Elevated
Renal insufficiency			
May be present	Usually absent	Variable	Often present

Prevalence of DRTA in 57 patients with Sjögren disease

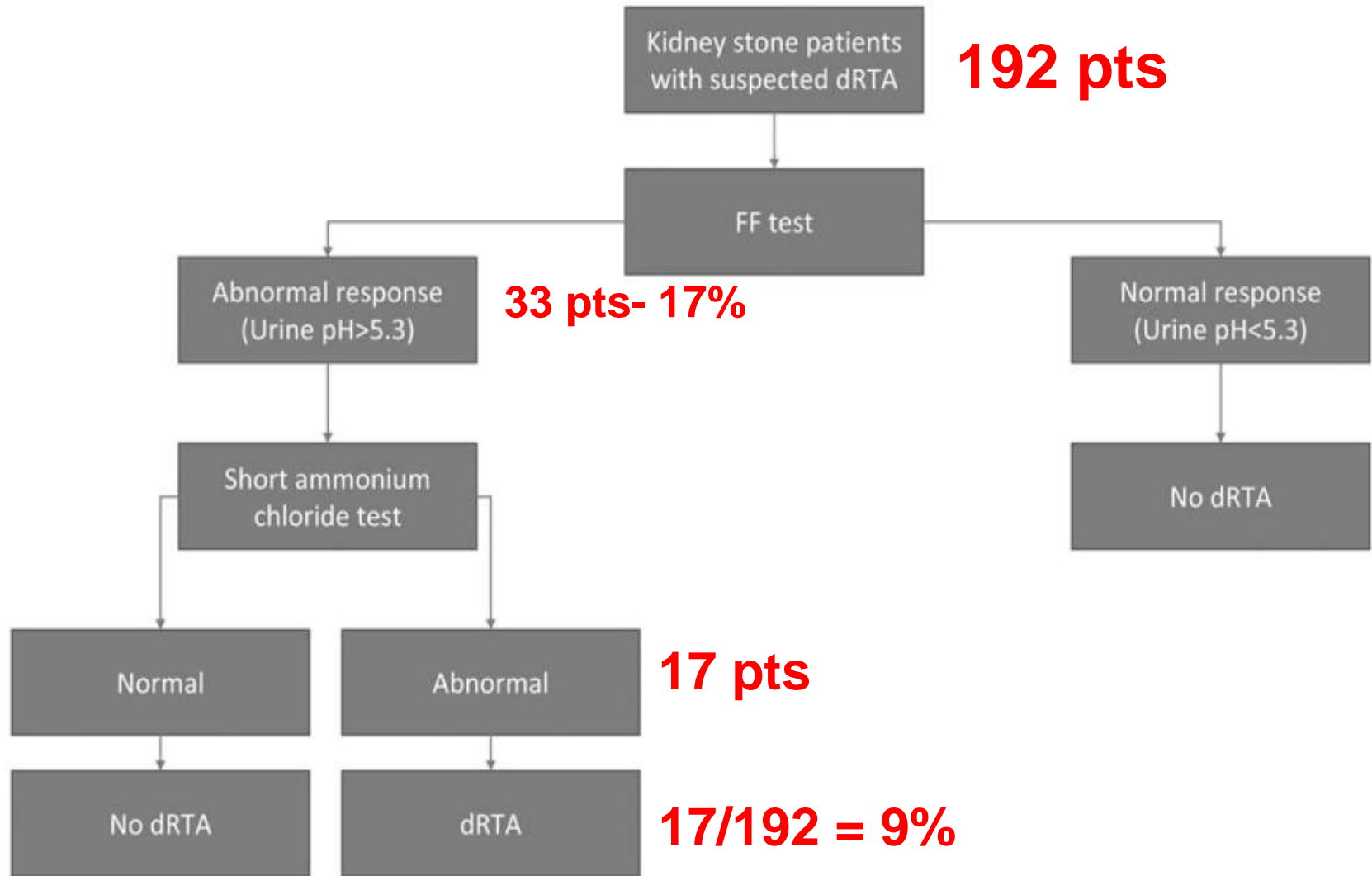


Mechanisms of citrate uptake in the proximal tubule



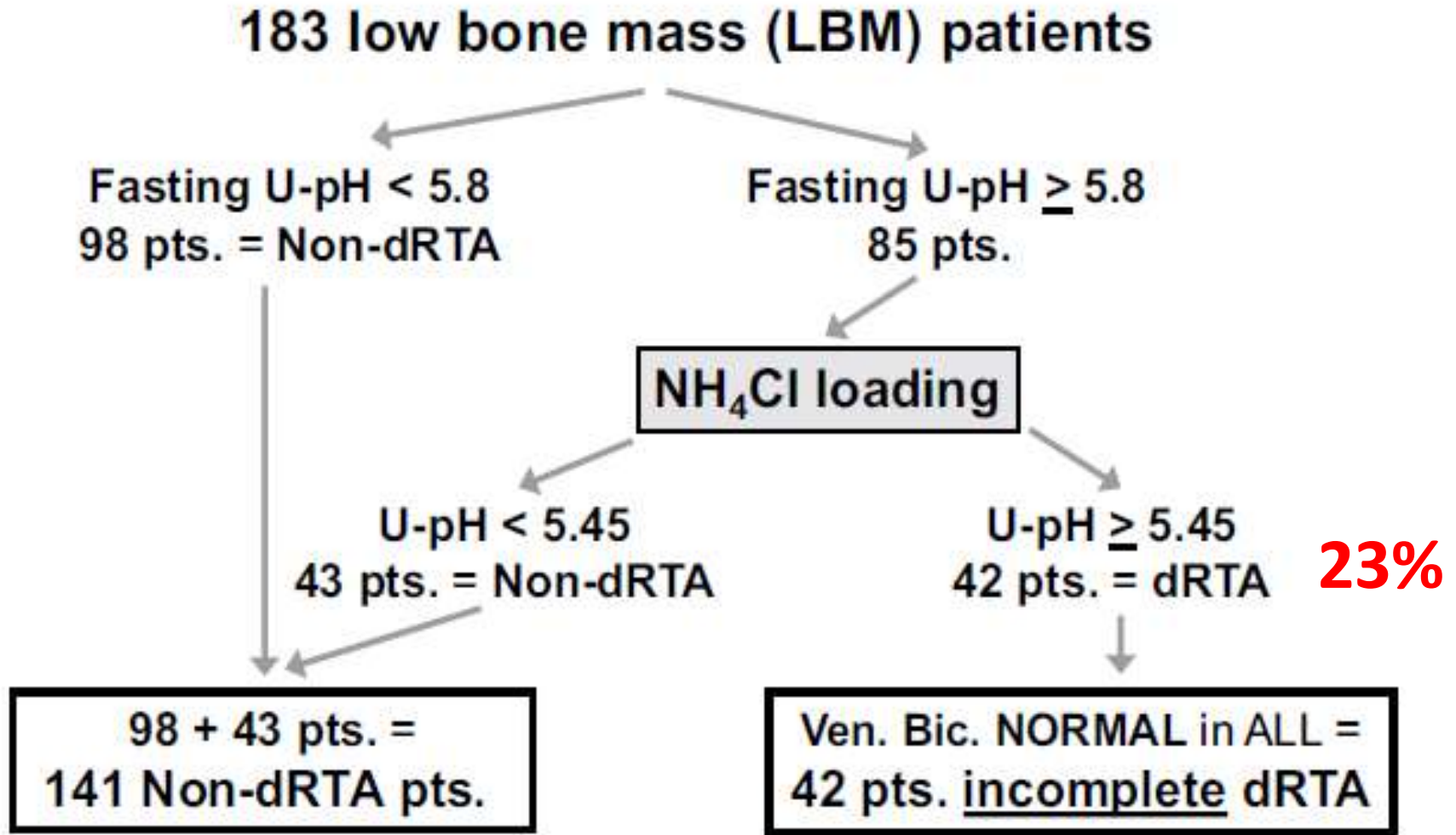
NaDC-1: Na^+ -dicarboxylate co transporter

Prevalence of distal tubular acidosis in recurrent kidney stone formers

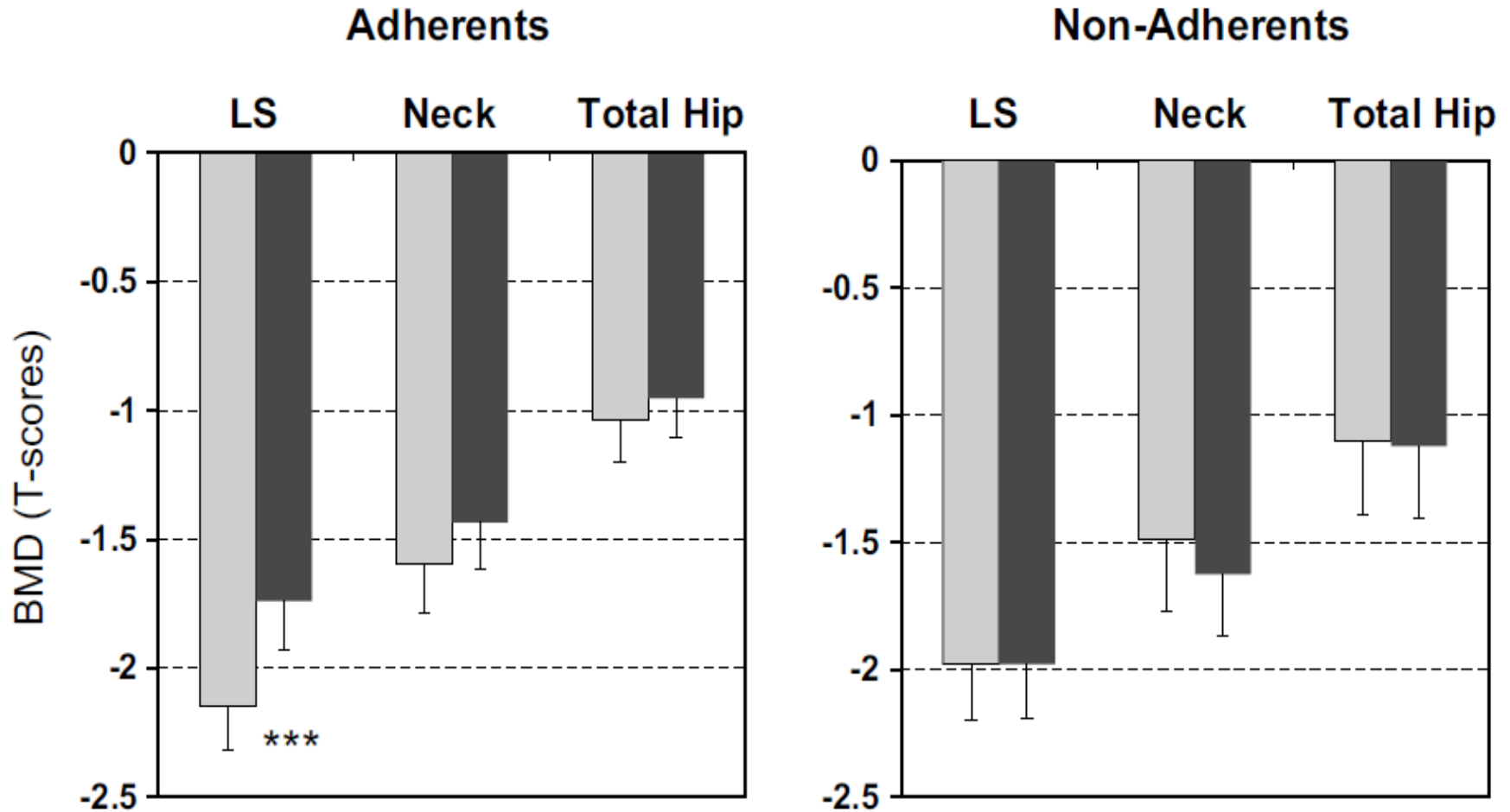


FF test false positive: 16/33 (49%)

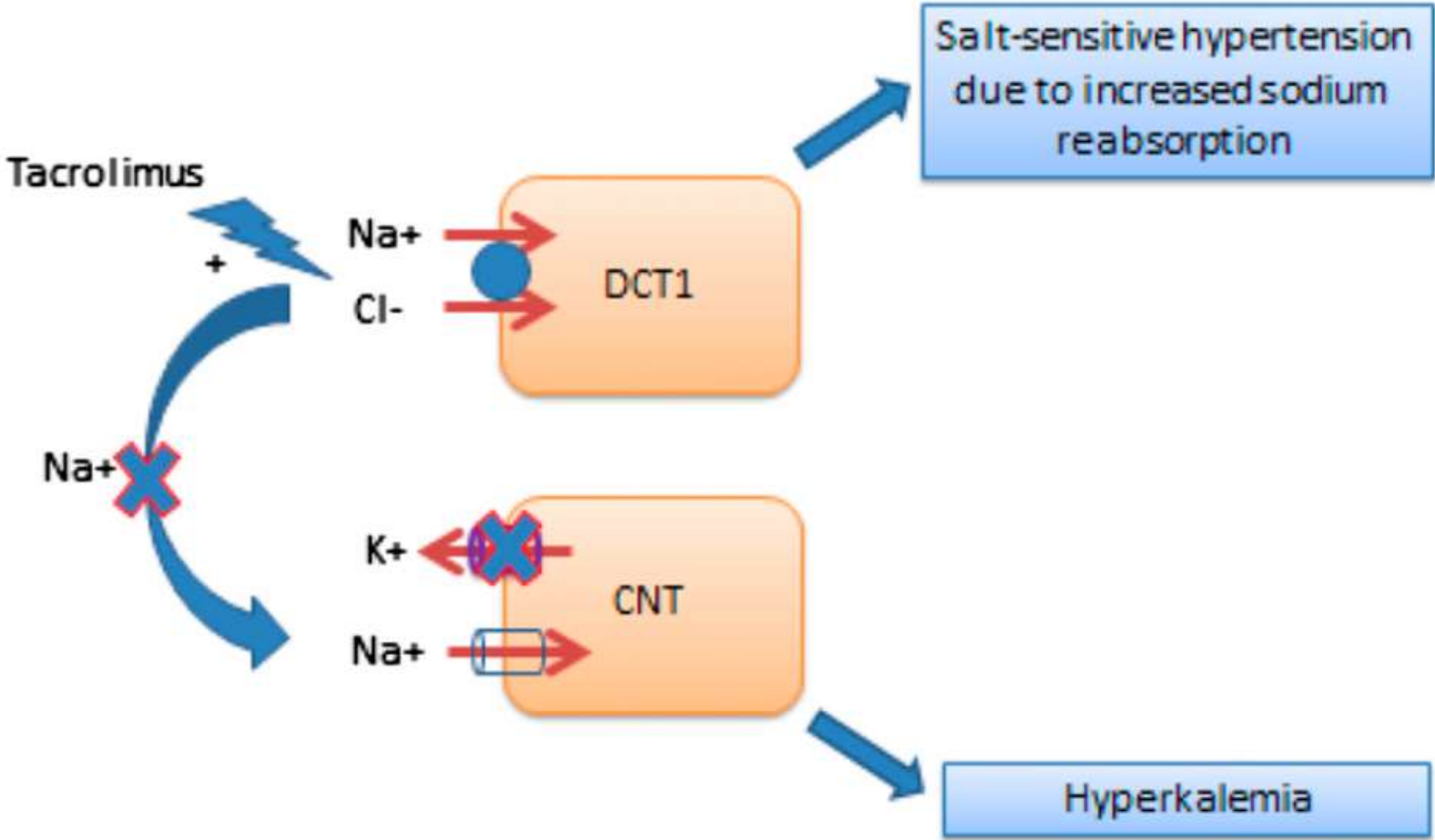
Prevalence of abnormal distal renal tubular acidification in patients with low bone mass



Effect of chronic alkali treatment on bone density (at start and FU)



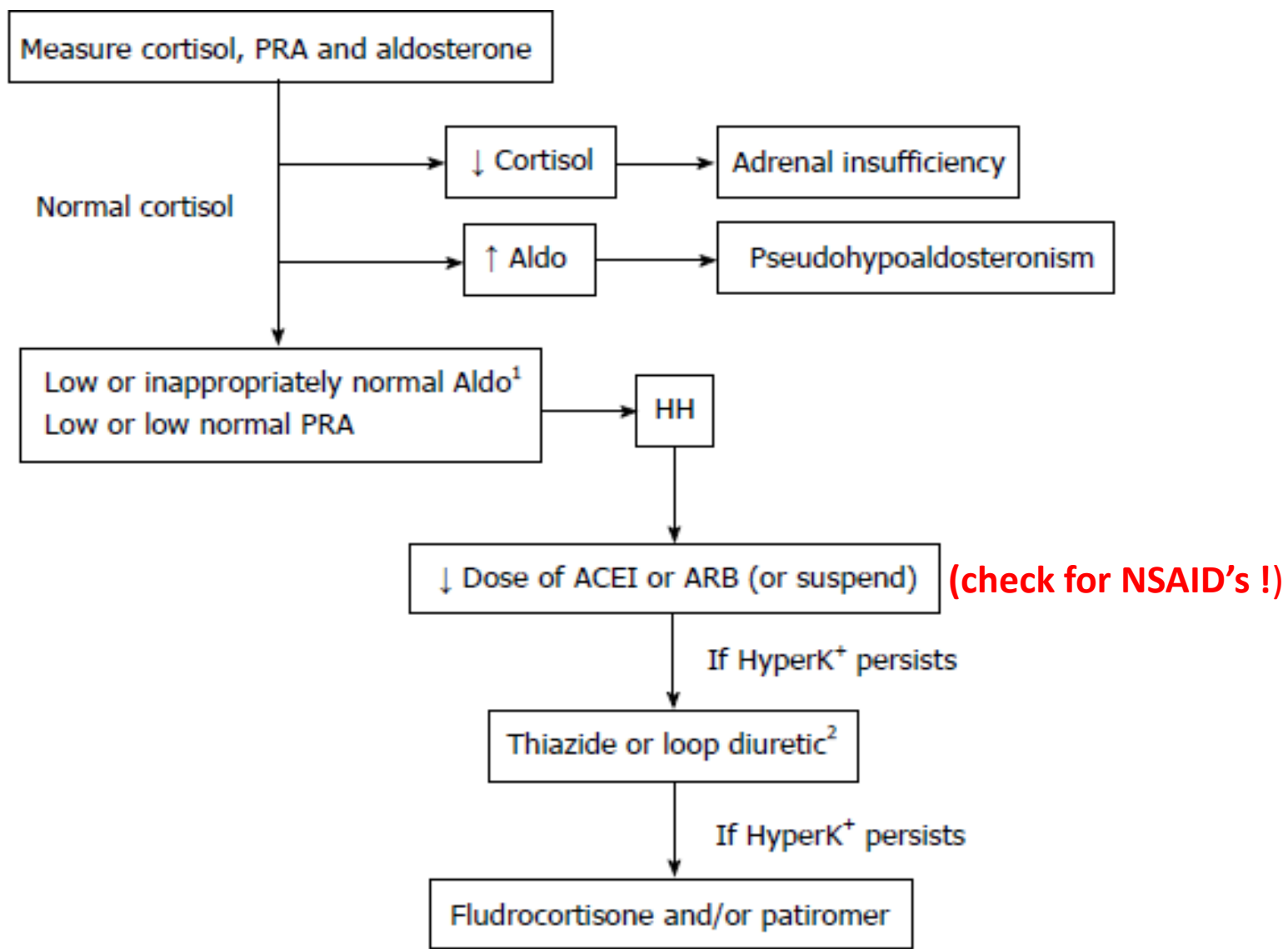
Mechanism of CNI-induced hyperkalemia and renal tubular acidosis



Metabolic acidosis and electrolytes in RTA subtypes at least 1yr post -tx

	76/576 pts 13% RTA Ia (classic) n=28	RTA Ib (hyperkalaemic) n=11	Rate-limited RTA n=16	RTA IV n=21	Normal
Acidosis					
PAG (mmol/l)	12.8 ± 2.6	12.4 ± 1.2	11.8 ± 1.6	11.8 ± 2.0	8–16
UAG (mmol/l)	23 ± 20	28 ± 9.7	22 ± 9.2	22 ± 7.9	–
UpH	6.2 ± 0.38	6.3 ± 0.49	5.2 ± 0.24	5.2 ± 0.21	<5.5 (during acidosis)
HCO ₃ (mmol/l)	18.95 ± 0.99	19.58 ± 0.55	19.40 ± 0.89	18.56 ± 0.99	23–27
PCO ₂ (mmHg)	41 ± 4	43 ± 5	40 ± 5	40 ± 4	42–50 (venous)
K (mmol/l)	4.48 ± 0.38	5.19 ± 0.16	4.55 ± 0.35	5.45 ± 0.40	3.5–5.0
FeK (%)	13.97 ± 5.27	10.79 ± 2.61	10.31 ± 3.51	11.04 ± 3.83	4–16
PpH	7.32 ± 0.04	7.32 ± 0.03	7.33 ± 0.03	7.31 ± 0.03	7.35–7.43
TRP (%)	74 ± 10	75 ± 7	78 ± 9	71 ± 12	80–90
Ca/24h (mmol/day)	1.91 ± 1.78	0.87 ± 1.26	1.46 ± 2.21	0.69 ± 1.08	3–7
Bicarbonate loading					
FeHCO ₃ (%)	1.42 ± 1.17	3.05 ± 2.33	1.06 ± 0.97	1.89 ± 1.77	<5

In a diabetic nephropathy patient with suspected hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism type 4 RTA



Hyporeninemic hypoaldosteronism: clinical features

Mean age 65 yr
Asymptomatic hyperkalemia (75%)
Weakness (25%)
Arrhythmia (25%)
Hyperchloremic metabolic acidosis (>50%)
Renal insufficiency (70%)
Diabetes mellitus (50%)
Cardiac disorders
Arrhythmia (25%)
Hypertension (75%)
Congestive heart failure (50%)

