

Pathophysiology and Clinical Approach to Acid–Base Disorders and its management

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Introduction

Acid–base abnormalities are frequent and clinically important disturbances that arise when physiological systems fail to maintain the normal balance of hydrogen ions and bicarbonate in the body. This balance is tightly regulated so that arterial pH remains within a narrow range (approximately 7.35–7.45), which is essential for optimal cellular metabolism, enzyme activity, electrolyte balance, and organ function (Demirci, 2019; Hsu & Lakhani, 2016). Disruptions in this homeostasis may lead to metabolic or respiratory acidosis and alkalosis, each of which carries distinctive pathophysiologic consequences.

Physiological Mechanisms of Acid–Base Regulation

The human body employs several mechanisms to preserve acid–base homeostasis:

- **Buffer Systems:** Immediate neutralization of acid or base fluctuations relies on buffer systems such as the bicarbonate buffer, plasma proteins, hemoglobin, and phosphate buffers (Hsu & Lakhani, 2016).
- **Respiratory Regulation:** The lungs regulate carbon dioxide (CO₂) elimination. Retention of CO₂ (e.g., from hypoventilation) leads to increased carbonic acid and may cause respiratory acidosis; excessive CO₂ elimination (e.g., hyperventilation) reduces CO₂ and may result in respiratory alkalosis (MSD Manual, 2025).
- **Renal Regulation:** The kidneys reabsorb filtered bicarbonate, excrete hydrogen ions, generate new bicarbonate (e.g., via ammonia genesis), and maintain electrolyte balance. Renal mechanisms provide slower but essential long-term control of acid–base balance (Tinawi, 2021; Demirci, 2019).

Thus, both respiratory (fast) and renal (slow) regulatory mechanisms work in concert to stabilize pH. Chronic derangements often involve compensatory changes by the non-primary system (e.g., renal compensation in chronic respiratory disorders) (Demirci, 2019; Hsu & Lakhani, 2016).

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Classification of Acid–Base Disorders

Metabolic acidosis, metabolic alkalosis, respiratory acidosis, and respiratory alkalosis are the four traditional classifications of primary acid-base diseases (MSD Manual, 2025; Thieme, 1985).

Disorder Type	Primary Change	Compensatory Mechanism
Metabolic Acidosis	↓ HCO ₃ ⁻	↑ ventilation → ↓ PaCO ₂ (respiratory compensation)
Metabolic Alkalosis	↑ HCO ₃ ⁻	↓ ventilation → ↑ PaCO ₂ (respiratory compensation)
Respiratory Acidosis	↑ PaCO ₂	Increased renal HCO ₃ ⁻ retention, H ⁺ excretion (renal compensation)
Respiratory Alkalosis	↓ PaCO ₂	Renal excretion of HCO ₃ ⁻ , H ⁺ retention (renal compensation)

Compensatory mechanisms help shift pH toward normal, but rarely restore it fully; importantly, compensation should not be interpreted as resolution — the primary disorder must be addressed (MSD Manual, 2025).

Etiology: Typical Reasons for Acid-Base Problems

Metabolic Acidosis

Metabolic acidosis arises when there is a loss of bicarbonate, increased acid production, diminished acid excretion, or ingestion of exogenous acids (Tinawi, 2021; OpenStax, n.d.). Frequent causes include:

- Diabetic ketoacidosis (excess ketone bodies)
- Lactic acidosis (due to shock, sepsis, tissue hypoxia)
- Renal failure (impaired acid excretion, decreased bicarbonate regeneration)
- Gastrointestinal bicarbonate loss (e.g., diarrhea)
- Poisoning/toxin ingestion (e.g., methanol, salicylates) (OpenStax, n.d.)

Metabolic Alkalosis

Metabolic alkalosis commonly results from loss of acid (e.g., vomiting, gastric suction), excessive bicarbonate intake, diuretic therapy (leading to volume depletion and potassium loss), and certain endocrine disorders causing excess base retention

(MSD Manual, 2025; OpenStax, n.d.).

Respiratory Acidosis and Respiratory Alkalosis

Respiratory acidosis arises from hypoventilation — due to airway obstruction, drug-induced respiratory depression, neuromuscular impairment, or chronic lung disease — leading to CO₂ retention and acid accumulation (MSD Manual, 2025). Acute respiratory acidosis may present with confusion, drowsiness, and neuromuscular signs, while chronic respiratory acidosis shows more subtle symptoms due to renal compensation. Over-rapid correction of chronic hypercapnia may risk “post-hypercapnic alkalosis.” (MSD Manual, 2025)

Conversely, respiratory alkalosis is caused by hyperventilation — anxiety, fever/sepsis, pain, hypoxia, or mechanical over-ventilation — leading to excessive CO₂ elimination and resultant alkalemia (Thieme, 1985; Hsu & Lakhani, 2016).

Mixed or Complex Acid–Base Disorders

Patients frequently exhibit several main disorders at the same time (e.g., respiratory alkalosis and metabolic acidosis), especially in complicated clinical situations like sepsis, multi-organ failure, or ventilatory alterations.

Identifying mixed disorders requires careful interpretation of arterial blood gas (ABG), bicarbonate, PaCO₂, and compensatory expectations.

Diagnostic Approach

Accurate diagnosis of acid–base disorders is based on a combination of clinical assessment and laboratory investigations:

- **Arterial Blood Gas (ABG) Analysis:** Provides pH, PaCO₂, and bicarbonate (HCO₃⁻) fundamental to determine whether the disorder is primarily metabolic or respiratory (Demirci, 2019).
- **Anion Gap (AG) Calculation:** $AG = Na^+ - (Cl^- + HCO_3^-)$. Helps differentiate causes of metabolic acidosis: high-AG types (e.g., lactic acidosis, ketoacidosis, toxins) vs normal-AG (hyperchloremic) types (e.g., bicarbonate loss, renal tubular acidosis) (Tinawi, 2021; Thieme, 1985).
- **Assessment of Compensation:** Use predictive formulas or nomograms to verify whether the observed changes in HCO₃⁻ and PaCO₂ correspond to expected compensation; deviation may suggest a mixed disorder (MSD Manual, 2025; Thieme, 1985).

Clinical Consequences of Acid–Base Imbalance

Disturbances in pH beyond physiological limits can affect multiple organ systems:

- **Neurological effects:** confusion, lethargy, seizures, coma.
- **Cardiovascular:** arrhythmias, reduced myocardial contractility, impaired vascular tone, hypotension.
- **Metabolic/Electrolyte disturbances:** shift in potassium, calcium — leading to muscle weakness, cramps, tetany, or cardiac arrhythmias.
- **Respiratory:** compensatory ventilatory changes, respiratory fatigue, or ventilatory failure

Normal vs. Abnormal Laboratory Values in Acid–Base Disorders

Parameter	Normal Range	Abnormal Finding	Possible Interpretation
pH	7.35–7.45	< 7.35	Acidosis
		> 7.45	Alkalosis
PaCO₂	35–45 mmHg	> 45 mmHg	Acidosis (Respiratory)
		< 35 mmHg	Alkalosis (Respiratory)
HCO₃⁻	22–26 mEq/L	< 22 mEq/L	Acidosis (Metabolic)
		> 26 mEq/L	Alkalosis (Metabolic)
Anion Gap	8–16 mEq/L	> 16 mEq/L	High-AG metabolic acidosis
Potassium (K⁺)	3.5–5.0 mEq/L	↓ in alkalosis	Hypokalemia-induced alkalosis
		↑ in acidosis	Acidosis shifts K ⁺ extracellular

Management Principles

The primary goal in treating acid–base disorders is to identify and correct the **underlying cause**. Specific interventions are tailored accordingly:

- **Metabolic Acidosis:** Manage precipitating cause (e.g., insulin for diabetic ketoacidosis, treat sepsis/shock), restore perfusion, administer intravenous bicarbonate judiciously (in severe acidosis), and consider renal replacement therapy in renal failure or toxin ingestion (Tinawi, 2021; Demirci, 2019).
- **Metabolic Alkalosis:** Correct fluid deficits (often saline), restore potassium and chloride, halt causative factors (e.g., vomiting, diuretics), use carbonic anhydrase inhibitors (e.g., acetazolamide) when indicated.

- **Respiratory Acidosis:** Improve ventilation (bronchodilators, airway clearance), provide oxygen, or institute mechanical ventilation in severe hypoventilation. Correction must be gradual to avoid post-hypercapnic alkalosis (MSD Manual, 2025).
- **Respiratory Alkalosis:** Address underlying cause (e.g., pain, anxiety, hypoxia), encourage controlled breathing, treat hypoxia or other triggers; avoid over-rapid correction which may exacerbate cerebral perfusion issues (Thieme, 1985).
- **Mixed Disorders:** Treat each primary process; often requires complex management considering both metabolic and respiratory components.

Conclusion

Acid–base abnormalities remain a cornerstone of clinical medicine and critical care. Clinicians must maintain a solid grasp of physiological principles, employ rigorous diagnostic evaluation (ABG, electrolytes, anion gap, compensation assessment), and tailor management to underlying disorders rather than solely normalizing pH. A mechanistic understanding of acid–base regulation and compensation enhances diagnostic accuracy and supports better patient outcomes.

References

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