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FLUIDS, ELECTROLYTES AND ACID-BASE

BALANCING DND Primary Care Paramedicine

Module: 02 Section: 02



Total Body Water

- Normal values expressed as a percentage
- Differences occur due to age, sex and fat content

- Water
 - 80% Total body weight (newborns)
 - 65% 70% TBW (children)
 - 50% 60% TBW (adults)
 - 45 % TBW (elderly)

Body Fluid Compartments

body fluid compartments



male

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Fluid Composition

- A constant balance between the fluid and the electrolytes must exist for homeostasis
 - Water
 - Electrolytes
 - Salt substances that dissociate into charged components when dissolved in water (Na⁺, K⁺)
 - Non-electrolytes
 - Substances that do not carry an electrical charge in water (glucose, urea)



Distribution





Electrolytes

- Positively Charged Electrolytes (Cation)
 - Intracellular
 - Potassium K⁺
 - Calcium Ca⁺⁺
 - Magnesium Mg⁺⁺
 - Extracellular
 - Sodium Na⁺



Electrolytes

- Negatively Charged Electrolytes (Anion)
 - Intracellular
 - Phosphate PO₄³⁻
 - Extracellular
 - Chloride Cl⁻
 - Bicarbonate HCO₃⁻



Electrolytes

- Aldosterone is the primary regulator of electrolyte concentrations
- Accomplishes this through reabsorption of Na⁺ and K⁺



Avenues

- Water enters the body
 - Digestive system
 - Cellular metabolism
- Water exits the body
 - Kidneys
 - Lungs
 - Sweat
 - Feces
- Input = Output



Health Ed Factors Affecting Movement

- Net Filtration (Starling's law of the capillaries)
- Net filtration = forces favoring filtration vs. forces opposing filtration
 - Forces favoring filtration
 - Blood hydrostatic pressure (BHP)
 - Interstitial fluid colloid osmotic pressure (IFCOP)
 - Forces opposing filtration
 - Blood colloid osmotic pressure (BCOP)
 - Interstitial fluid hydrostatic pressure (IFHP)
 - Other factors
 - Tonicity
 - Membrane permeability



Blood Hydrostatic Pressure (BHP)

- The mechanical force of water against cellular membranes
- One of the primary forces in the movement of fluid
- Pressure created by contraction of Left Ventricle
- Filters fluid from blood
 - Allows fluid to pass from vascular space through the capillary wall
- Represents the blood pressure within the capillary network (approximately 25 – 30 mmHg)



- The overall osmotic effect of colloids (plasma proteins) in the vasculature
- Opposes filtration of large solutes
- Maintains levels of intravascular fluids



Interstitial Fluid Colloid Osmotic Pressure (IFCOP)

- Generally a negative pressure
- Causes a suction of fluid into the interstitium
- Present due to solute concentration in the interstitium
- Works with capillary hydrostatic pressure in filtration



- The mechanical force of water within the interstitium against cellular membranes
- Works with plasma osmotic pressure against filtration
- Keeps small quantities of plasma proteins which have leaked into the interstitium within the interstitium



• Therefore effective filtration pressure is:

$$EFP = (BHP + IFCOP) - (IFHP + BCOP)$$
Moves fluid out of the capillaries Moves fluid into the capillaries

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Movement of Fluids



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Tonicity

- Isotonic
 - Of **equal** solute concentration...
 - Same pressure
- Hypotonic
 - Of lesser solute concentration...
 - Less pressure
- Hypertonic
 - Of higher solute concentration...
 - More pressure

...than the fluid being compared



Membrane Permeability

- Only a small portion of plasma proteins cross capillary membranes
- Fluid passes easily, depending on the tonicity of each side of the membrane
- Electrolytes pass readily due their size and function



- Osmosis
 - The diffusion of water through a selectively permeable membrane
- Diffusion
 - Movement of atoms, ions or molecules from a region of high concentration to a region of low concentration
- Active Transport
 - Moves substances against ("uphill") a concentration gradient
- Facilitated Diffusion
 - Moves substances down the gradient by use of a carrier protein



Water Balance

- Water balance regulated by ADH and perception of thirst.
- ADH released due to:
 - Increased plasma osmolality
 - Decreased circulating blood volume
 - Lowered venous and arterial pressure
- Following the release of ADH water is reabsorbed from renal tubules and collecting ducts of the kidneys

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Renin-Angiotensin-Aldosterone System (RAAS)



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Antidiuretic Hormone (ADH)

• ADH also referred to as Vasopressin

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Health =

- Created in the hypothalamus and stored in the posterior pituitary gland
- Stimulated to be released as a result of Angiotensin II (that was released due to a drop in blood volume)





Atrial Natriuretic Hormone (ANH)

- Increasing blood volume (RAAS and ADH) and pressure causes right atrium to over stretch
- This stimulates the release of ANH from the cardiac cells into the blood stream
- ANH causes:
 - $-\downarrow$ Na+ reabsorption
 - $\uparrow \text{GFR}$
 - Peripheral vasodilation
 - Inhibits ADH
 - Inhibits Aldosterone





Balance





- Hypovolemia (dehydration)
 - Isotonic
 - Hyponatremic
 - Hypernatremic
- Hypervolemia (overhydration)



Isotonic

- Excessive loss of equal amounts of Na and Water
 - Severe or long term vomiting/diarrhea
 - Systemic infection
 - Intestinal obstruction



Hyponatremic

- A serum decrease in Na
 - Excess loss of Na
 - Decrease in [Na] relative to water
- Causes
 - Use of salt-wasting diuretics
 - Excessive perspiration
 - Salt losing renal disorders
 - Increased water intake
 - Excessive use of water enemas



Hyponatremic

- S/S
 - Muscle cramps
 - N/V
 - Postural BP changes
 - Poor skin turgor
 - Fatigue
 - Dyspnea
 - Confusion, hemiparesis, seizures and coma (due to cerebral swelling in severe cases)



Hypernatremic

- Elevation of serum levels
 - Loss of water in excess of Na
 - Elevated Na levels
- Causes
 - Lack of fluid intake
 - Diabetes Insipidus
 - CHF
 - Renal failure
 - Excessive misuse of diuretics
 - Na intake in absence of water
 - Profuse watery diarrhea



Hypernatremic

- S/S
 - Similar to hyponatremia
 - Thirst
 - Disorientation
 - Lethargy
 - Seizures



Overhydration

- Increased body water with a decrease in solute concentration
 - Excessive IV fluid administration
 - Impaired cardiac function
 - Impaired renal function
 - Endocrine dysfunction







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Roles of Electrolytes

- K
 - Nerve, muscle and cardiac function
- Ca
 - Neurotransmission, cell membrane permeability, hormone secretion, growth, ossification of bones and muscle contraction
- Mg
 - Activates many enzymes, nervous system and MSK effects similar to calcium

TABLE 27.2

Blood Electrolyte Imbalances

	DEFICIENCY		EXCESS	
ELECTROLYTE*	NAME AND CAUSES	SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS	NAME AND CAUSES	SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS
Sodium (Na⁺) 136–148 mEq/liter	Hyponatremia (hī-pō-na-TRĒ-mē-a) may be due to decreased sodium intake; increased sodium loss through vomiting, diarrhea, aldosterone deficiency, or taking certain diuretics; and excessive water intake.	Muscular weakness; dizziness, headache, and hypotension; tachycardia and shock; mental confusion, stupor, and coma.	Hypernatremia may occur with dehydration, water deprivation, or excessive sodium in diet or intravenous fluids; causes hypertonicity of ECF, which pulls water out of body cells into ECF, causing cellular dehydration.	Intense thirst, hypertension, edema, agitation, and convulsions.
Chloride (Cl [−]) 95–105 mEq/liter	Hypochloremia (hī-pō-klō-RĒ-mē-a) may be due to excessive vomiting, overhydration, aldosterone deficiency, congestive heart failure, and therapy with certain diuretics such as furosemide (Lasix®).	Muscle spasms, metabolic alkalosis, shallow respirations, hypotension, and tetany.	Hyperchloremia may result from dehydration due to water loss or water deprivation; excessive chloride intake; or severe renal failure, hyperaldosteronism, certain types of acidosis, and some drugs.	Lethargy, weakness, metabolic acidosis, and rapid, deep breathing.
Potassium (K ⁺) 3.5–5.0 mEq/liter	Hypokalemia (hī-pō-ka-LĒ-mē-a) may result from excessive loss due to vomiting or diarrhea, decreased potassium intake, hyperaldosteronism, kidney disease, and therapy with some diuretics.	Muscle fatigue, flaccid paralysis, mental confusion, increased urine output, shallow respirations, and changes in electrocardiogram, including flattening of T wave.	Hyperkalemia may be due to excessive potassium intake, renal failure, aldosterone deficiency, crushing injuries to body tissues, or transfusion of hemolyzed blood.	Irritability, nausea, vomiting, diarrhea, muscular weakness; can cause death by inducing ventricular fibrillation.

*Values are normal ranges of blood plasma levels in adults.

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TABLE 27.2

Blood Electrolyte Imbalances

DEFICIENCY

ELECTROLYTE* NAME AND CAUSES SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS NAME AND CAUSES Calcium (Ca²⁺) Hypocalcemia Numbness and tingling Hypercalcemia may result Total = (hī-pō-kal-SĒ-mē-a) may of fingers; hyperactive from hyperparathyroidism, 9.0-10.5 mg/dL; reflexes, muscle cramps, some cancers, excessive be due to increased ionized = calcium loss, reduced tetany, and convulsions; intake of vitamin D, 4.5-5.5 mEg/liter calcium intake, elevated bone fractures; spasms and Paget's disease of laryngeal muscles phosphate levels, or of bone. hypoparathyroidism. that can cause death by asphyxiation. Phosphate (HPO₄²⁻) Hypophosphatemia Confusion, seizures, Hyperphosphatemia 1.7-2.6 mEg/liter (hī-pō-fos'-fa-TĒ-mē-a) coma, chest and muscle occurs when kidneys fail to may occur through pain, numbness and excrete excess phosphate, increased urinary tingling of fingers, as in renal failure: can also losses, decreased decreased coordination, result from increased intestinal absorption, memory loss, and intake of phosphates or destruction of body cells, or increased utilization. lethargy. which releases phosphates into blood. Magnesium (Mg²⁺) Hypomagnesemia Weakness, irritability, Hypermagnesemia occurs (hī'-pō-mag'-ne-SĒ-mē-a) in renal failure or due to 1.3-2.1 mEq/liter tetany, delirium, may be due to inadequate convulsions, confusion, increased intake of Mg²⁺, anorexia, nausea, such as Mg2+-containing intake or excessive loss in urine or feces; also occurs vomiting, paresthesia, antacids; also occurs in in alcoholism, malnutrition, and cardiac arrhythmias. aldosterone deficiency and diabetes mellitus, and hypothyroidism. diuretic therapy.

EXCESS

SIGNS AND SYMPTOMS

Lethargy, weakness, anorexia, nausea, vomiting, polyuria, itching, bone pain, depression, confusion, paresthesia, stupor, and coma.

Anorexia, nausea, vomiting, muscular weakness, hyperactive reflexes, tetany, and tachycardia.

Hypotension, muscular weakness or paralysis, nausea, vomiting, and altered mental functioning.

*Values are normal ranges of blood plasma levels in adults.

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Fluids, Electrolytes and Acid-Base Balancing

ACID-BASE BALANCING



- One of the most important balances in the body homeostatic mechanisms
 - Acids (proton donators)
 - Bases (proton acceptors)
 - Hydrogen ions (H⁺)
 - Hydroxide ions (OH⁻)



Acid / Base

- Hydrogen ion concentration
- Measured in moles/L (represented as pH)
- Acidity/alkalinity increases tenfold with every unit change





Le Chatelier's Principle

• Recall, that changes made to a reaction already at equilibrium will result in a shift to either the left or right to return the reaction to equilibrium

$A + B \leftrightarrow AB + Heat$

- Increase in concentration of reactants or products will cause shift away from the increase
- Decrease in concentration of reactants or products will cause a shift toward the decrease



Buffer systems

- Chemical (rapid)
 - Carbonic acid (bicarbonate buffering)
 - Phosphate buffering
 - Protein buffering
- Physiological (secondary)
 - Respiratory buffering
 - Renal buffering



Carbonic Acid Buffer

- Normal carbonic acid to bicarbonate ratio is 1 : 20 = normal pH range
 - HCO_3^- , CO_2 and carbonic acid present in blood stream
 - HCO_3^- results from the transport of CO_2 in the blood
 - Carbonic anhydrase causes CO₂ to dissolve in water in the plasma to form carbonic acid (H₂CO₃)
 - H_2CO_3 breaks down into H^+ and HCO_3^-
- Increased $H_2CO_3 = acidosis$
- Increased HCO_3^- = alkalosis

$Co_{2} + H_{2}O \leftrightarrow H_{2}CO_{3} \leftrightarrow H^{+} + HCO_{3}$



Protein Buffering

- Negative charges allow proteins to serve as buffers for alterations in [H⁺]
- Primarily occurs intracellularly
 - Example:
 - In the tissues, CO₂ is high. Once this CO₂ enters the bloodstream, some is converted to Carbonic acid which then dissociates into Bicarb
 - This results in the release of H^+ into the blood
 - Hb then combines with H⁺ to form a weak acid
 - At lungs Hb binds with O₂ causing the release of H⁺
 - H⁺ then combines with HCO₃⁻ ions to form H₂CO₃ which is converted back to CO₂ and exhaled



 Hydrogen Phosphate / Dihydrogen Phosphate equilibrium helps to buffer the <u>intracellular</u> fluid.

$$HPO_4^2 + H^+ \leftrightarrow H_2PO_4$$

- Example:
 - If extra H⁺ ions enter the cell, HPO₄²⁻ can buffer the change and keep the pH within normal range
 - Results in increased [H₂PO₄⁻]



Renal Buffering

- Recovery of bicarbonate and filtered into tubules
- Excretion of H⁺ against a gradient to increase urine acidity
- Excretion of ammonium which carries H⁺



- Metabolic causes
 - HCO_3^- ion
- Respiratory causes
 - CO₂



Acidosis

Alkalosis

- Metabolic Acidosis
 - $\downarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$

- Respiratory Alkalosis $-\downarrow CO_2$







- Metabolic Acidosis:
 - Caused by excessive accumulation of acid or deficiency in base
 - Affects the bicarbonate side of equation
 - Excessive acid production = bicarbonate buffer consumption
 - Common Types:
 - Lactic acidosis
 - Diabetic ketoacidosis
 - Renal failure
 - Ingestion of toxins

$CO_2 + H_2O \leftrightarrow H_2CO_3 \leftrightarrow H^+ + HCO_3^-$



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- Metabolic Alkalosis:
 - Rare
 - Results from a loss of H⁺
 - Primarily through the GI related to excessive antacid ingestion
 - Over administration of IV NaHCO₃
 - Over administration of diuretics



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- Respiratory Acidosis:
 - Results from retained CO₂ and increased PCO₂
 - Depressed respiratory centre
 - Drug abuse, injury or disease
 - Anesthetics, sedatives, narcotics
 - Obstructive airways disease
 - Emphysema
 - Chronic Bronchitis
 - Asthma
 - Sever pneumonia
 - Blockages
 - Inhaled foreign object
 - Vomit
 - Bronchoconstriction (acute asthma)



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- Respiratory Alkalosis:
 - Results from decreased PCO₂ through hyperventilation
 - Sepsis
 - Peritonitis
 - Shock
 - CO poisoning
 - Head injury
 - DKA



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Blood Gas Analysis

- Determines
 - Blood oxygenation
 - Acid-base balance
- Arterial blood used to identify respiratory function
- pH indicates acidosis/alkalosis
 - PCO₂ indicates presence/absence of respiratory component
 - HCO₃ indicates presence/absence of metabolic component



Disorder	рН	Primary Disturbance	Compensatory Response
Metabolic Acidosis	\downarrow	↓ [HCO ₃ -]	↓ pCO ₂
Metabolic Alkalosis	1	↑ [HCO ₃ -]	↑ pCO ₂
Respiratory Acidosis	\downarrow	↑ pCO ₂	↑ [HCO ₃ -]
Respiratory Alkalosis	1	↓ pCO ₂	↓[HCO ₃ -]

- Complete compensation (pH within normal limits)
- Partial compensation (pH near normal limits)
- Uncompensated (pH above or below normal limits)