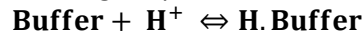


Acid-Base Physiology

1990 Write short notes on buffers.

1. A buffer is a solution which has the ability to minimise changes in pH when an acid or base is added to it. It usually consists of a weak acid and its conjugate base. In the body, the buffer binds H^+ ions reversibly to minimise change in pH:



2. Effectiveness of a buffer:
 - a. Amount of buffer present
 - b. pKa of buffer (pH when 50% of acid is dissociated): buffers are most effective in pH solutions ± 1 of their pKa.
 - c. Open (physiological) or closed (chemical) system.
3. Buffers in the body:

Buffer	Equation	pKa
Extracellular		
Bicarbonate	$H^+ + HCO_3^- \rightleftharpoons H_2CO_3 \rightleftharpoons H_2O + CO_2$	6.1
Haemoglobin	$H^+ + Hb \rightleftharpoons H.Hb$	6.8
Protein	$H^+ + \text{protein}^- \rightleftharpoons H.\text{protein}$	2/9
Intracellular		
Protein	$H^+ + \text{protein}^- \rightleftharpoons H.\text{protein}$	2/9
Phosphate	$H^+ + HPO_4^{2-} \rightleftharpoons H_2PO_4^-$	6.8
Renal Tubules		
Ammonia	$H^+ + NH_3 \rightleftharpoons NH_4^+$	
Bicarbonate	$H^+ + CO_3^- \rightleftharpoons H_2O + CO_2$	6.1
Phosphate	$H^+ + HPO_4^{2-} \rightleftharpoons H_2PO_4^-$	6.8

4. Bicarbonate System:
 - a. Weak acid (carbonic acid) + bicarbonate salt (ECF – sodium, ICF – potassium, magnesium)
 - b. Adding:
 - i. Strong acid \rightarrow buffering by $HCO_3^- \rightarrow H_2CO_3 \rightarrow H_2O + CO_2 \rightarrow CO_2$ excreted from ECF by the lungs.
 - ii. Strong base \rightarrow buffering by $H_2CO_3 \rightarrow HCO_3^- \rightarrow$ excreted by kidney.
 - c. Despite pKa 6.1, it is an effective buffering system because it is an open system $\rightarrow CO_2$ is regulated by the pulmonary system, while HCO_3^- is regulated by renal system. It can only buffer metabolic acids (not carbonic acid).
5. Haemoglobin: see notes below
6. Proteins:
 - a. Amino (pKa 9) and carboxyl (pKa 2) and imidazole (pKa 6.8) side chains can buffer H^+ ions. Not very significant in ECF
 - b. More important in ICF as proteins are higher in concentration and the more acidic environment improves buffering ability.
7. Phosphate:

- a. Low ECF concentration → not significant as ECF buffer
- b. Significant contribution to ICF and renal DCT buffering due to higher concentrations and more acidic conditions

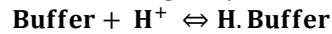
EXTRA NOTES:

8. Acid load in the body:

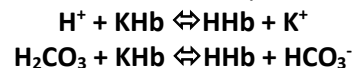
Acid	Amount/day	Mechanism
Carbon dioxide	15000mmol	CO ₂ produced by decarboxylation reactions of Krebs cycle → carbonic acid. Most excreted by lungs.
Sulphuric acid	45	Metabolism of sulphur containing amino acids
Hydrochloric acid	12	Metabolism of lysine, arginine and histidine.
Phosphoric acid	13	Metabolism of phosphoroproteins
Lactic acid	1500	Anaerobic metabolism of glucose in RBCs, skin, skeletal muscle. Most metabolised by liver → HCO ₃ ⁻
Ketones		Metabolism of TGs during fasting
Total	50-100mmol Net	

Physiol-10B15/03A9/92 Discuss the role of haemoglobin as a buffer.

1. A buffer is a solution which has the ability to minimise changes in pH when an acid or base is added to it. It usually consists of a weak acid, its salt and its conjugate base. In the body, the buffer binds H^+ ions reversibly to minimise change in pH:

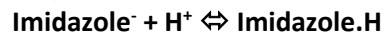


2. Haemoglobin is a metalloprotein present within erythrocytes (intracellularly). It is the most important extracellular buffer for CO_2 produced by aerobic metabolism, due to its unique properties and accounts for 90% buffering of carbonic acid. This is important because the bicarbonate system cannot buffer carbonic acid from CO_2 as they form part of the same weak acid-conjugate base pair. Hb is present in RBCs with a potassium salt:



3. Properties of the Hb buffer:

- a. Present in large concentrations – 150g/L
- b. Structure: metalloprotein (65000 Da) containing 4 polypeptide Haeme-globin chains.
 - i. Each Hb molecule contains 38 histidine residues (with imidazole side-chain) which buffer H^+ (pKa 6.8).



- c. pKa 6.8 is similar to intracellular pKa which \uparrow buffering capacity.
- d. Deoxy-Hb is a better buffer than oxy-Hb (Haldane-effect):
 - i. Deoxy-Hb (pKa 8.2) is a weaker acid, and dissociated more than oxy-Hb (pKa 6.6).
 - ii. 1 mmol oxyHb \rightarrow DeoxyHb allows \uparrow 0.7mmol H^+ buffering \rightarrow 0.7mmol CO_2 enters system without change in pH.
 - iii. Venous blood has \uparrow buffering capacity compared to O_2 blood, thus pH venous is only slightly reduced compared to \uparrow p CO_2 \rightarrow carried as bicarbonate and carbamino compounds which contribute to H^+ load.

4. Chemical Hb buffering: the properties of CO_2 as a volatile acid contribute to Hb buffering

- a. CO_2 rapidly diffuses across the red cell membrane
- b. RBCs contain carbonic anhydrase which catalyses:

$$H_2O + CO_2 \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCO_3^-$$
- c. Hb buffers the H^+ and favours formation of HCO_3^- \rightarrow diffuses down concentration gradient out of cell.
- d. Thus, the presence of acid in the ECF leads to maintenance of concentration gradient and ongoing diffusion of HCO_3^- out of the cell \rightarrow 30% Haldane effect.

EXTRA-NOTES

5. Carbamino compounds: produced by the reaction of CO₂ with terminal amine groups of each Hb chain → carbamic acid. This has a low pKa such that at plasma and intracellular pH, the acid is mostly dissociated:



Thus, the carriage of CO₂ by Hb as carbamino compounds actually adds H⁺ to the intracellular system. This requires buffering. Carbamino compounds do NOT contribute to Hb as a buffer.

Physiol-06B15/98B5 Explain how a metabolic acidosis develops in hypovolaemic shock. Describe the consequences of this metabolic acidosis for the body.

1. Metabolic Acidosis is the pathological process resulting in a decrease in pH primarily through depletion of HCO_3^- . Hypovolaemic shock is the pathological reduction in intravascular volume leading to inadequate perfusion to meet the metabolic demands of tissues.

2. Shock:
 - a. Inadequate delivery of O_2 to tissues:
 - i. The lack of O_2 does not allow removal of the end-products of glycolysis and the citric acid cycle \rightarrow build-up of pyruvate and NADH/FADH_2 .
 - ii. Shift to anaerobic glycolysis: pyruvic acid converted to lactic acid which diffuses out of cells to \downarrow pyruvic acid concentration \rightarrow allows glycolysis to continue.

$$\text{pyruvate} + \text{NADH} + \text{H}^+ \rightleftharpoons \text{lactic acid} + \text{NAD}^+$$
 - iii. Energy inefficient – produces 2ATP for every pyruvate converted.
 - b. Inadequate removal of lactate via the Cori cycle:
 - i. Under normal circumstances, lactate produced by anaerobic metabolism (RBCs, kidney etc) is cycled in the liver and reconverted to pyruvate \rightarrow glucose (gluconeogenesis).
 - ii. Shock: exhausted pathways for this conversion, and low hepatic blood flow \rightarrow accumulation of lactate \rightarrow metabolic acidosis

3. Consequences of metabolic acidosis:
 - a. Respiratory:
 - i. Ventilation:
 1. Sensors: peripheral chemoreceptors detect \downarrow pH
 2. Controller: activated by chemoreceptors in \uparrow ventilation
 3. Effectors: muscles of respiration \uparrow RR, TV \rightarrow \uparrow MV \rightarrow \downarrow p CO_2 (respiratory compensation). \downarrow pH 1 \rightarrow \uparrow MV 3L/min
 - ii. HbO_2 dissociation curve: R shift \rightarrow \uparrow offloading O_2 to peripheral tissues
 - b. Cardiovascular:
 - i. Direct negative inotrope: inhibits slow Ca^{2+} influx, and release from SR.
 - ii. Tachycardia due to catecholamine release
 - iii. Vessels: \downarrow SVR (metabolic autoregulation), \uparrow PVR. This is offset by hypovolaemic \uparrow SVR (local, neural and hormonal autoregulation).
 - iv. Impaired response to catecholamines when pH < 7.2
 - v. Arrhythmogenicity:
 1. Hyperkalaemia: K exchanged with H into ECF. pH \downarrow 0.1 \rightarrow \uparrow K 0.6mmol/L
 2. \uparrow free Ca^{2+} via dissociation from albumin (H^+ competes for binding sites on albumin).
 - c. CNS: neuronal dysfunction \rightarrow impaired consciousness.
 - d. GIT: \downarrow GI motility.
 - e. Renal: correction (delayed)
 - i. \uparrow reabsorption of HCO_3^-
 - ii. \uparrow excretion H^+ as titratable acid and ammonium

Physiol-07A11/05A15 Discuss how the body handles a metabolic acidosis.

1. Metabolic Acidosis is the pathological process resulting in a decrease in pH primarily through depletion of HCO_3^- . The body's responses can be classified into rapidity of activation. Its overall aim is to shift pH back to normal (ECH 7.4, ICF 6.8) as this is required for normal cell homeostasis.
2. Buffering: the body contains several buffer systems consisting of a weak acid and its conjugate base. Buffers minimise the change in pH when a strong acid or base is added. This occurs in minutes – hours.

Buffer	Equation	pKa	Description
Extracellular: pH range 7.36-7.44			
Bicarbonate	$\text{H}^+ + \text{CO}_3^- \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$	6.1	Most important ECF buffer. Open system (mechanisms to change pCO_2 and HCO_3^-) ↑ effectiveness In metabolic acidosis, relative ↓ $\text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow$ bicarbonate not as effective.
Haemoglobin	$\text{H}^+ + \text{Hb} \leftrightarrow \text{H.Hb}$	6.8	Imidazole residues of histidine groups (38 / Hb molecule). Favours formation of HCO_3^- (via carbonic anhydrase inside RBC).
Protein	$\text{H}^+ + \text{protein}^- \leftrightarrow \text{H.protein}$		Less important in ECF due to low concentration
Intracellular: pH lower range 6.8-7.1			
Protein	$\text{H}^+ + \text{protein}^- \leftrightarrow \text{H.protein}$		
Phosphate	$\text{H}^+ + \text{HPO}_4^{2-} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-$	6.8	
Bone			
Ca-bicarbonate	Exchange of ECF H^+ for ICF $\text{Na}^+/\text{Ca}^{2+}$		Over time, high acidity demineralises bone and releases alkaline compounds CaCO_3 , CaHPO_4 .

3. Compensation: the respiratory system responds to metabolic acidosis by ↑ CO_2 excretion to restore the $[\text{HCO}_3^-]/\text{PaCO}_2$ ratio. CO_2 can be considered as a volatile acid and alterations in body pH occur quickly because CO_2 crosses cell membranes easily.
 - a. Sensor: peripheral chemoreceptors in carotid/aortic bodies detect ↓ pH → stimulation medulla via the vagus and glossopharyngeal nerves.
Central chemoreceptors have a delayed response due to the diffusion of HCO_3^- across the BBB, thus lowering brain ECF pH.
 - b. Controller: respiratory centre in the medulla
 - c. Effector:
 - i. Change ventilation causes change pCO_2 : ↑ RR / TV → ↑ MV → ↓ pCO_2

$$\text{PaCO}_2 = k \cdot \frac{\dot{V}\text{CO}_2}{\dot{V}_A}$$

- ii. Change pCO_2 causes change pH:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pKa} + \log_{10} \frac{\text{HCO}_3^-}{0.03 \times \text{pCO}_2}$$

There is *no direct excretion of metabolic acids* and thus this mechanism is limited in dealing with fixed metabolic acidosis.

4. Correction: the renal system responds to metabolic acidosis by ↑ the reabsorption of HCO_3^- , and ↑ the net excretion of H^+ as titratable acids. This is the only way of excreting fixed acids.

- a. Reabsorption of HCO_3^- and Secretion of H^+ from PCT: high capacity, low gradient (secretes 4320mmol H^+ , limiting pH 7.0). Energy from Na-K ATPase.
- Tubular cell: $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$
 - H^+ excreted with Na^+ counter-transport
 - Lumen: $\text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$ (filtered from glomerulus) $\rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
 - CO_2 reabsorbed into PCT \rightarrow combines $\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^- \rightarrow$ reabsorbed into blood.
 - HCO_3^- thus reabsorbed indirectly. This occurs 80% PCT, 10% TALH, 10% DCT/CD.
 - H^+ reforms H_2O which is excreted in the urine. Thus, overall *no H^+ is excreted in the PCT.*
- b. Secretion of H^+ from DCT: low capacity, high gradient (secretes 70mmol H^+ , limiting pH 4.4).
- Intercalated cells: $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$
 - H^+ secreted by *H/K-ATPase pump*
 - Lumen: $\text{H}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$ (filtered from glomerulus) $\rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
 - Cl^- passively secreted as HCO_3^- is reabsorbed.
 - Can concentrate urine to pH 4.4 (1000-fold H^+ concentration)
 - Pump activated by aldosterone $\rightarrow \uparrow \text{H}^+$ secretion and K reabsorption.
- c. Secretion of H^+ as titratable acid: H^+ excreted to filtered buffers in the urine. Measured by the amount of alkali required to titrate urine to pH 7.4. This allows secreted of extra H^+ after all HCO_3^- is reabsorbed.
- $\text{H}^+ + \text{HPO}_4^{2-} \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-$ (DCT)**
- H^+ is trapped by the phosphate buffer and unable to combine with HCO_3^- to form $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$.
 - Exhausted pH 4.4
- d. Secretion of NH_4^+ from PCT/DCT: accounts for 75% of excretion of metabolic acids in body (50mmol/day).
- $\text{H}^+ + \text{NH}_3 \leftrightarrow \text{NH}_4^+$**
- PCT/TALH/DCT: **glutamine $\rightarrow \text{NH}_4^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$**
 NH_4 secreted into lumen in exchange for Na, whilst HCO_3^- reabsorbed into blood.
 $\text{NH}_3 + \text{H}^+ \leftrightarrow \text{NH}_4^+$ (pKa = 9.2, thus most present as NH_4^+ in PCT)
 - Cycling of NH_4^+ : Reabsorption of ammonium on ALH \rightarrow medulla interstitium (facilitated by low urine pH). High acid load (low urine pH) $\rightarrow \uparrow \text{NH}_4^+$ transfer from interstitium \rightarrow lumen \rightarrow excretion in urine.
 - Older theory: NH_3 is soluble to cell membranes and diffuses into the lumen to absorb $\text{H}^+ \rightarrow$ thus H^+ secreted as ammonium.
 - HCO_3^- is also reabsorbed in this way.
 - During metabolic acidosis, the liver \uparrow production of glutamine $\rightarrow \uparrow$ available pool of ammonium.

1995 Explain how a metabolic alkalosis develops in an adult patient with a small bowel obstruction and nasogastric losses in excess of 1000ml per day for 5 days. Give a brief account of the physiological principles determining fluid replacement.

1. The body maintains HCO_3^- at a relatively stable level of 24mmol/L. It does so through:
 - a. Reabsorption of nearly all filtered bicarbonate
 - b. Excretion of fixed acid paired with regeneration of bicarbonate.
 If the plasma bicarbonate exceeds 24mmol/L, this is normally promptly excreted by rapid renal excretion of excess bicarbonate.

2. Maintenance of alkalosis: requires impairment of bicarbonate excretion.
 - a. Chloride depletion: the kidney reabsorbs anions with Na/K reabsorption to maintain electrical neutrality. The depletion of $\text{Cl}^- \rightarrow \uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ reabsorbed as this is the only other main ECF anion.
 - b. Potassium depletion: $\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ reabsorption in PCT/DCT in the presence of $\downarrow \text{K}^+$.
 - i. \uparrow aldosterone $\rightarrow \uparrow \text{Na}$ reabsorption, $\uparrow \text{H/K}$ excretion
 - ii. $\downarrow \text{K} \rightarrow$ cells exchange $\text{H/K} \rightarrow \downarrow \text{ECF H}^+$.

3. Vomiting and nasogastric loss is an important clinical cause of metabolic acidosis through the loss of H^+ ions in the acid juice. Gastric juice pH 1.4 \rightarrow $[\text{H}^+]$ concentration 0.04mol/L. Thus, over 5 days 0.04mmol H^+ and Cl^- are lost. Thus, this causes a Hypochloraemic metabolic alkalosis.
 - a. Depletion of $\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ by bicarbonate buffering
 - b. Depletion of $\text{Cl}^- \rightarrow \uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ by renal reabsorption to maintain electrical neutrality.
 - c. Depletion of ECF volume $\rightarrow \uparrow$ fluid, Na reabsorption in kidney \rightarrow coupled to $\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ reabsorption.

4. Fluid replacement therapy: aimed at restoring H, Cl and volume.
 - a. Chloride replacement: the most important fluid therapy and allows correction even if H and fluid depletion are untreated. Usually this is given in the form of normal saline infusions which contain 150mmol Cl^- .
 - b. HCl infusion: can be given if rapid correction of acid-base status and Cl is required. This must be done through a central line in ICU.
 - i. Cl^- is rapidly replaced
 - ii. H^+ consumed excess HCO_3^- from the bicarbonate buffering system.
 - c. Carbonic anhydrase inhibitors: inhibits the conversion of $\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2 \rightarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ and H^+ in PCT \rightarrow inhibits reabsorption of HCO_3^- . Can be used where fluid overload is a problem.

EXTRA NOTES:

5. Effects of metabolic alkalosis:

System	Effect
CVS	\downarrow contractility arrhythmias
Resp	Impaired O_2 unloading (shift Hb- O_2 curve left) Compensatory hypoventilation \rightarrow atelectasis, hypoxaemia, V/Q mismatch
CNS	\downarrow CBF Confusion, mental obtundation
NMJ	NMJ excitability

6. Body response:

- a. Compensation: respiratory hypoventilation due to peripheral chemoreceptors → $\uparrow p\text{CO}_2$. This response is somewhat variable due to concomitant hypoxaemia, pain and pulmonary congestion.

$$\text{Expected } p\text{CO}_2 = 0.7 \times \text{HCO}_3^- + 20$$

Physiol-95A6 Describe the effects of intravenously administered sodium bicarbonate (8.4%) 100ml used in asystolic cardiac arrest in a 70 kg man.

1. A sodium bicarbonate infusion is commonly administered as part of ALS in cardiac arrest. The physiological handling of bicarbonate by the body has much to do with this.
2. 8.4% of 100mL sodium bicarbonate contains 8.4g of sodium bicarbonate in 100mLs water. As NaHCO_3 has MW 84g and it dissociates into $\text{Na}^+ + \text{HCO}_3^-$, the osmolality is 2 Osmoles (2000mosm) per kilogram and 200mosm in the solution.
3. The normal 70kg male has fluid distribution as follows:
 - a. TBW 42L (60% weight)
 - b. ICF 23L (55% TBW)
 - c. ECF 19L (45% TBW)
 - d. Interstitial fluid 8.4 L (20% TBW)
 - e. Plasma fluid 3.2L (7.5% TBW)
 - f. Other slowly exchangeable ECF (dense CT, TCF, bone water) 7.4L (17.5%)
4. Distribution: The high Na^+ content restricts distribution to the ECF

Dimension	Distribution
Osmolality	Total osmolality before = 285mosm/L $\text{Total osm after} = \frac{(285 \times 34.6 + 200)}{34.7} = \frac{290\text{mosm}}{\text{L}} (\uparrow 1.8\%)$ Plasma tonicity $\uparrow > 1\text{-}2\%$ \rightarrow activation of osmoreceptors \rightarrow release ADH \rightarrow \downarrow urine output.
Water	Hyperosmolality draws water out of ICF \rightarrow ECF by osmosis $\text{Total volume ECF} = \frac{285 \times 11.6 + 200}{290} = 12.1\text{L} (\uparrow 4\%)$
Sodium	Hypernatraemia occurs from administration of Na^+ , partly controlled by osmosis
Bicarbonate	HCO_3^- before = 24mmol/L x 11.6 = 278.4mosm HCO_3^- after = 378.4mosm $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$ after = 378.4/12.1 = 31.2mosm/L $\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ will cause metabolic alkalosis When $\text{HCO}_3^- > 27\text{mmol/L}$ \rightarrow rapid excretion in urine
K	H moves out of cells in exchange for K \rightarrow hypokalaemia This stabilises cardiac membrane by reducing resting membrane potential.
Oncotic Pressure	Decreases due to \uparrow ECF volume \rightarrow \downarrow water reabsorption in PCT (glomerulotubular imbalance) \rightarrow \uparrow urine flow.
pH	Assuming intubated patient with $\text{pCO}_2 = 40\text{mmHg}$ $\text{pH} = \text{pKa} + \log_{10} \frac{\text{HCO}_3^-}{0.03 \times \text{pCO}_2}$ pH = 7.51

MAKE-UP Describe the effects of intravenously administered 1N Hydrochloric Acid 100mls.

1. 1N Hydrochloric acid 100mLs contains 100mmol H⁺. This is sufficient to cause a metabolic acidosis. The body's defence involves buffering, compensation, and correction.
2. Effects on the body:
 - a. Shift of Hb-O₂ dissociation curve to the right → assists with O₂ unloading
 - b. Anion gap unchanged → Hyperchloraemic metabolic acidosis
 - c. No direct effects on CNs as metabolic acids do not cross BBB
 - d. Hyperkalaemia: exchange of H/K
3. Buffering:
 - a. Bicarbonate system: H⁺ + CO₃⁻ ⇌ H₂O + CO₂
 - b. Total bicarbonate load = 24 mmol/L x 19L = 456mmol
 - c. After acid infusion, [HCO₃⁻] = 356/19 = 18.7mmol/L

$$\text{pH} = \text{pKa} + \log_{10} \frac{\text{HCO}_3^-}{0.03 \times \text{pCO}_2}$$

$$\text{pH} = 7.29$$

- d. Hypocapnoea causes intracellular alkalosis → general depressant effect on cell activity
 - e. ↓pCO₂ → ↓H⁺ ECF near central chemoreceptors (CO₂ diffuses across BBB and produces H⁺ + HCO₃⁻) → inhibits ventilatory response initially. Bicarbonate slowly equilibrates across BBB into ECF → ↑H⁺ → removal of central inhibition after 12-24 hours.
4. Compensation: ↓pH will stimulate peripheral chemoreceptors to ↑ ventilation → ↓pCO₂ which returns HCO₃:pCO₂ ratio to normal. This returns pH towards normal. This response occurs within minutes but takes 12-24 hours to reach maximum value.

$$\text{Expected pCO}_2 = 1.5 \times \text{HCO}_3^- + 8$$

$$\text{pCO}_2 = 36\text{mmHg}$$

5. Correction:
 - a. Excretion of excess Cl⁻ → equivalent reabsorption of HCO₃⁻
 - b. Takes days

MAKE-UP: Rules for interpreting an ABG

1. Respiratory Acidosis:
 - a. Acute - $\uparrow 10\text{mmHg CO}_2 \rightarrow \uparrow 1\text{mmol HCO}_3^-$
 - b. Chronic - $\uparrow 10\text{mmHg CO}_2 \rightarrow \uparrow 4\text{mmol HCO}_3^-$

2. Respiratory Alkalosis:
 - a. Acute - $\downarrow 10\text{mmHg CO}_2 \rightarrow \downarrow 2\text{mmol HCO}_3^-$
 - b. Chronic - $\uparrow 10\text{mmHg CO}_2 \rightarrow \downarrow 5\text{mmol HCO}_3^-$

3. Metabolic Acidosis:
 - a. Expected $\text{CO}_2 = 1.5[\text{HCO}_3^-] + 8\text{mmHg}$

4. Metabolic Alkalosis:
 - a. Expected $\text{CO}_2 = 0.7[\text{HCO}_3^-] + 20\text{mmHg}$