Introduction to Clinical Chemistry

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Objective.

 To introduce the students to the principles of clinical chemistry or chemical pathology.

Format of the lecture.

- 1. Concept of chemical pathology.
- 2. Aspects of Biochemistry
- 3. Laboratory investigations for biochemical disorders.
- 4. Steady state and compartmental analysis
- 5. Nature of clinical specimens for chemical pathology.
- 6. Normal range.

Clinical chemistry

- Chemical pathology:
- The study of the changes that occur in disease in:
- 1. Chemical constitution and
- 2. Biochemical mechanisms
- > of the body.

Biochemical disorders and chemicals*

- Primary
- Secondary

- Apply:
- 1. Physiology and
- 2. Biochemistry
- to understand the cause and nature of disease*.
- Analysis of body fluids and tissues for chemicals to aid the diagnosis and treatment of diseases.

Biochemistry:

- The study of the Structure, Composition, and Chemical reactions of substances in living systems.
- Areas covered:
- i. How living things obtain energy from food.
- ii. Chemical basis of heredity.
- iii. What fundamental changes occur in disease.

Incorporates:

- Molecular biology; immunochemistry; neurochemistry; and bioinorganic, bioorganic, and biophysical chemistry.
- Biochemistry also involves pharmacology, physiology, microbiology, and clinical chemistry

Laboratory investigations for Biochemical disorders/diseases.

Factors to consider in clinical chemistry:

- 1. State of patient when requesting investigations.
- 2. Reasons for requesting investigations.

State of patient.

- Requested in:
- 1. Resting state
- 2. Stressed state

Resting state.

- In general, biochemical investigations of function first performed in the resting state as the patient presents clinically.
- This applies whether the function is of:
- 1. Excretory organ such as the kidney or
- Secretory organ such as the pancreas, adrenal glands.

- Gross changes detected by such investigations.
- Minor abnormality may well be covered by compensatory mechanisms.

Stressed state.

- For investigation of minimal changes.
- Often necessary to test the function when stressed.
- Sometimes helpful in determining the physiological level of an abnormality.

Types of **stress** test:

- a) Extreme load of a normal metabolite e.g ammonium chloride to test the ability of the kidneys to acidify urine.
- b) Measure the **reserve ability** of a target organ to **respond** to a hormonal stimulus.

Reasons for requesting investigations.

- Either for:
- I. Selected tests.
- II. Screening tests.

Selected tests.

- Investigating a patient logical sequence as follows:
- I. Decide what information is needed.
- Choose the test(s) most likely to provide the information.
- III. Use the analytical procedure that best combines speed and quality.
- IV. Correlate the result(s) with the existing information.
- V. Decide whether *further* tests are needed.

- Laboratory investigations selected will give information of the following specific questions of individual patients:
- I. Anything wrong?
- II. What's wrong?
- III. How badly wrong?
- IV. What else is wrong?

Anything wrong?':

- Biochemical investigation being used as the extension of a clinical examination to determine the presence or absence of an abnormality.
- Biochemical test more sensitive than clinical approach.

What's wrong?'.

- A general clinical abnormality identified, but the specific diagnosis unknown.
- A discriminating biochemical test (or preferably and more usually a particular combination of tests) chosen.
- Different pattern of results in each of the several diseases of possible diagnosis.

'How badly wrong?'

- The specific diagnosis established.
- Necessary to use a biochemical test to assess progression or regression (monitoring)
- More sensitive than clinical observation.

'What else is wrong?'

A biochemical test used to detect:

- 1. Complication of the disease or
- An expected or unexpected side-effect of treatment, before it becomes evident clinically.

Screening tests.

- Biochemical screening tests of two types:
- I. Population screening
- II. Admission screening

Population screening.

- Testing a whole apparent healthy population for a particular disease.
- Disease present at *low* frequency.
- Disease detected at a subclinical phase by a specific biochemical test.

Admission screening.

- Testing all:
- 1. Hospital in-patient admissions,
- 2. Out-patient referrals,
- 3. 'Check-ups' in a clinic.
- Large number (10-20) of biochemical variables on plasma at the same time.
- Done irrespective of patients' presenting condition.

Steady-state.

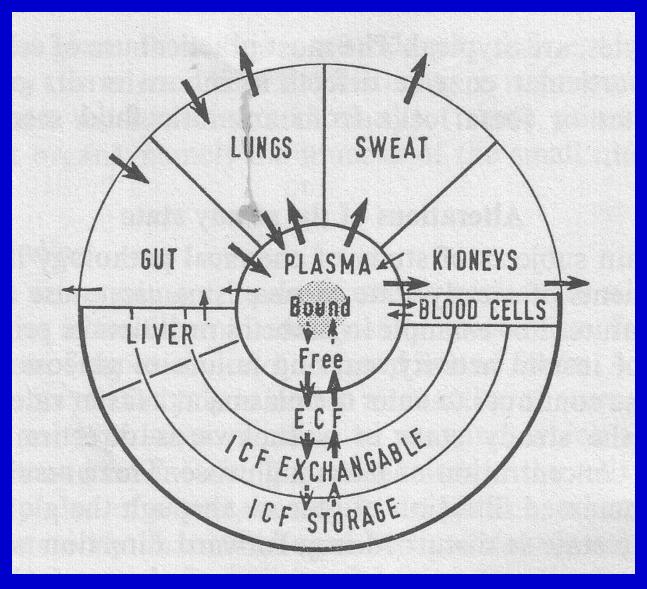
- The body considered as a set of open steadystate systems.
- Composition varies regularly and irregularly.
- With factors meals, exercise, and circadian rhythms.
- A steady state a situation in which all state variables in the body are constant in spite of ongoing processes that strive to change them.

- Entire system to be at steady state, i.e. for all state variables of a system to be constant, there must be a flow through in the system.
- The body compartments:
- 1. Plasma (main).
- 2. interstitial fluid (<u>(extracellular)</u>
- 3. Intracellular fluids,
- 4. Transcellular fluids such as lymph or intestinal contents.

- Each compartment different and slightly variable composition, and movement between the compartments is not necessarily free.
- The GIT -main site of intake and excretion, both of itself and because of the bile derived from the liver cells.
- The lungs -sites of intake and of excretion.

- The kidneys site of excretion and to a certain extent of synthesis.
- The sweat glands -only a site of excretion
- The plasma compartment exchanges its components with the blood cells and through the interstitial fluid with body cells.

A generalized picture of the exchanges between the exterior, the plasma, the extracellular fluid (ECF), and the intracellular fluid (ICF) that maintain the composition of the body compartments



Compartmental analysis

- Basis for chemical pathology
- 1. Plasma concentration.
- Measurement of only the *plasma* concentration of a body component in a disease **not** enough:
- a) A limited view of the *disturbed* rates of *flow* of the component between the body compartments,
- b) Limited view of any *changes* in the *size* of the compartmental pool.

Plasma concentration of a component in a sample analysed is:

the *Ratio*, at a given point in time, between its *total* content in the plasma compartment, and the *total volume* of the plasma compartment assuming *even* distribution.

- 2. Measurement of the actual secretion or production rate, usually of a hormone, difficult.
- 3. An alternative approach measure *intake* and *output* (urinary and/or faecal) of the *component* under study by a balance technique.

4. Measurement of *urinary excretion* of a substance: indicator of the *excretion rate* or *production rate* of that substance or of its *precursor*.

Mechanism of change in compartment*.

- Plasma concentration of a constituent remains unchanged as long as inward and outward flow are equal.
- Plasma conc rises when the rate of entry of the component exceeds the rate of disposal, provided that there is no_diminution of plasma water.

- Rise goes on until if possible a new steady state set up in which inward and outward flow are again equal.
- Reverse arguments apply to a fall in a concentration in plasma.

Types of tests in clinical chemistry.

- General or routine chemistry tests- commonly ordered blood chemistries (e.g., liver and kidney function tests).
- 2. Special chemistry elaborate techniques such as electrophoresis manual testing methods.
- 3. Clinical endocrinology- the study of hormones, and diagnosis of endocrine disorders.

- 4. Toxicology- the study of drugs of abuse.
- **5.** Therapeutic drug monitoring measurement of therapeutic medications blood levels to optimize dosage.
- 6. Urinalysis- chemical analysis of urine for a range of diseases,
- 7. Analysis of other fluids (e.g Cerebral Spinal Fluid, effusions such as peritoneal, synovial, pleural, and pericardial).
- 8. Stool examination— GIT and other biochemical disorders

Types of clinical specimens for clinical chemistry.

- 1. Blood (Plasma)
- Fluid in body cavities (Peritonium, Pleura, Pericardium, Cerebral Spinal fluid)
- Synovial fluid
- 3. Saliva
- 4. Urine
- 5. Stool
- 6. Various types of **solid tissue**, including specific cell types

Normal range and interpretation of clinical chemistry results.

- Reference range
- Defn: A set of values established as normal minimums and maximums for a given chemical in a body fluid.
- For any analysed body constituent, convenient but artificial concept.

- e.g:-Normal range for plasma sodium is 136-148 mmol/l means strict boundary between normal and abnormal.
- All normal subjects ('normal'- healthy general population) -plasma sodium values within that range,
- Abnormal to have a plasma sodium <136 or >148
- NR applied to all chemicals in all body fluids.

Factors affecting Normal range:

1. Methodology.

- Virtually for all substances analysed, no method either absolutely precise and reproducible, or absolutely accurate and specific.
- In Interpretation of possible clinical significance of changes in results: consideration of variability due to the method important.

2. Physiological (non-pathological) variations:

- a) Time of day
- b) Menstrual cycle,
- c) Recumbency (lying down),
- d) General diet,
- e) Specific meals.
- f) The existence of seasonal variations uncertain.

3. Racial.

Due to:

- Partly nutritional,
- Partly environmental (including endemic diseases),
- Possibly Genetic.
- 4. Age
- 5. Sex

Age & sex

 Main causes of variation in the normal range in a healthy population.

Age.

- Plasma concentrations usually tend to *rise* with age, probably due to **diminution** of renal clearance.
- > Except for albumin and iron.

Sex.

- In general, plasma conc in men are higher than in women.
- Difference is hormone-mediated, tends to disappear after menopause.
- Except for chloride, phosphate, & proteinbound iodine,

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