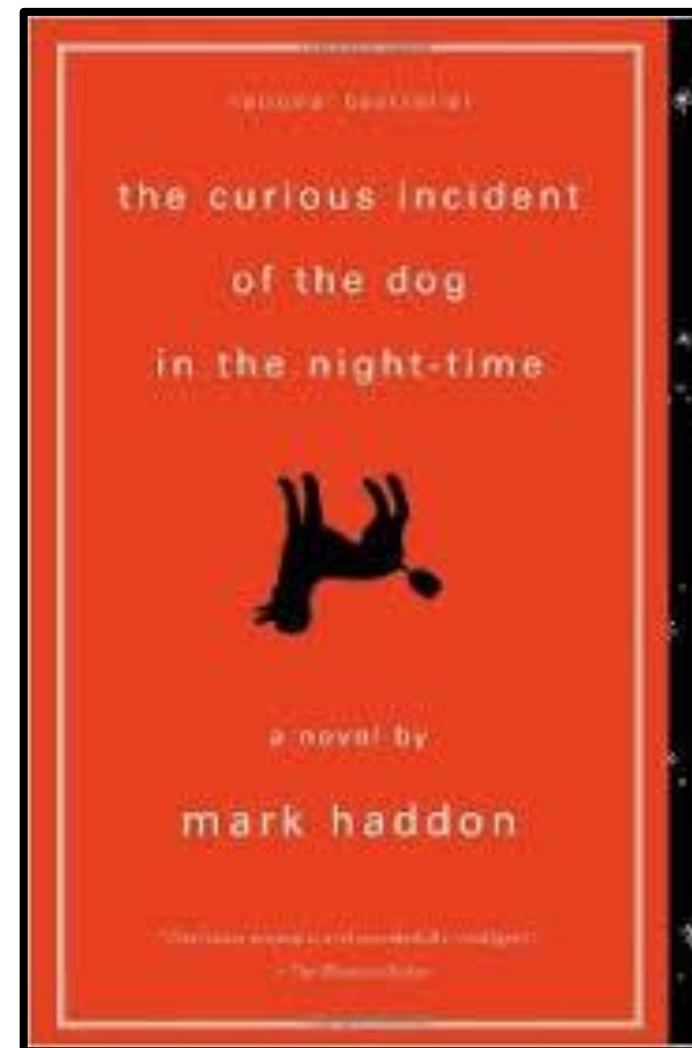
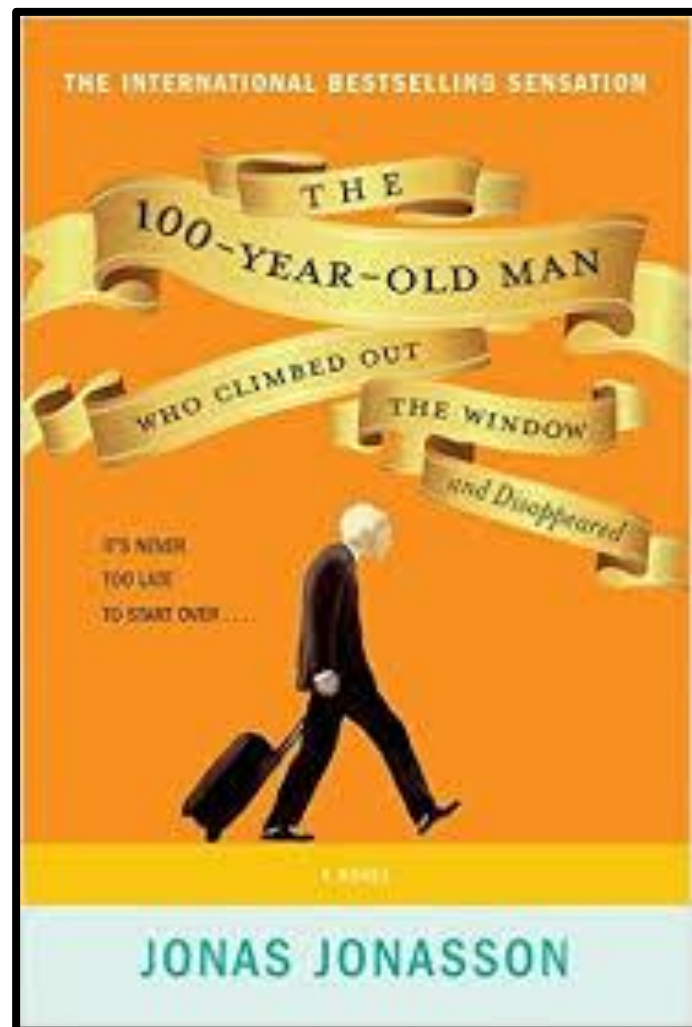


The Confusing Conundrum of Capillary Blood Specimen Collection and Analysis





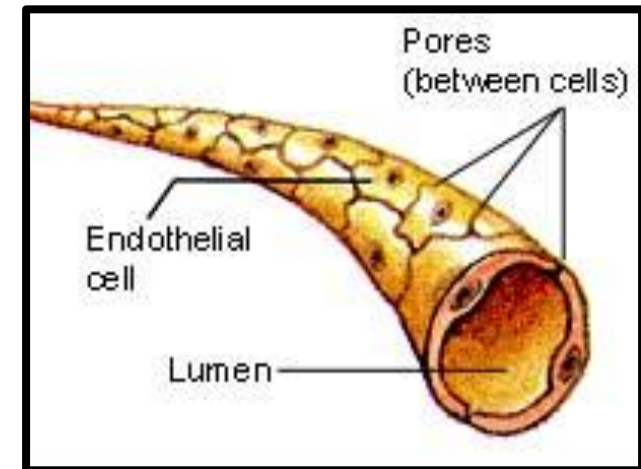
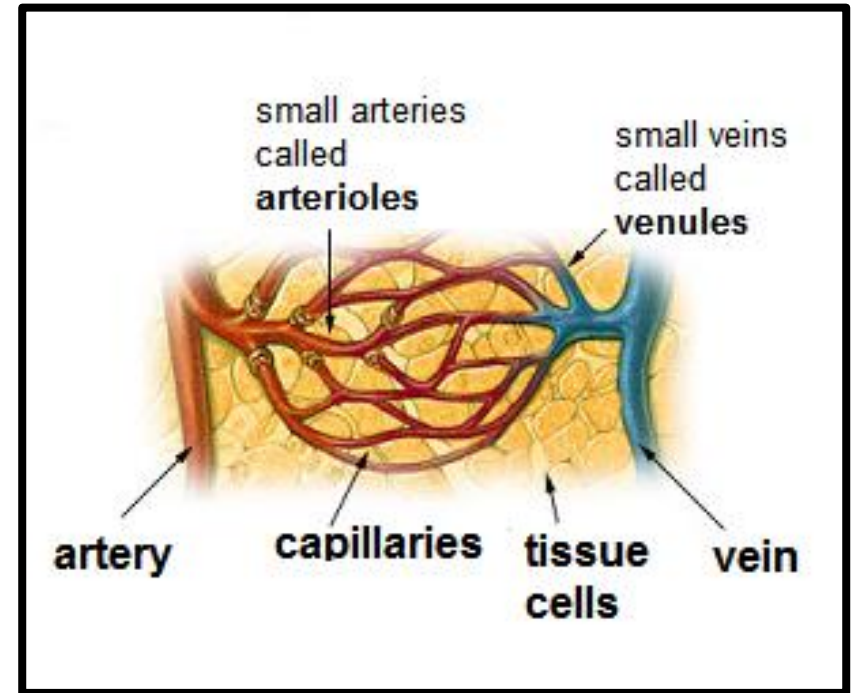
Disclosures

- Speaking Honoraria
 - Radiometer
 - Nova Biomedical
 - Draeger
- Research Support (Reagents, Instrumentation, Travel)
 - Nova Biomedical
 - Roche Diagnostics (Canada)
 - Radiometer
 - Instrumentation Laboratories (Canada)
- ALOL Biomedical Inc
 - Clinical Laboratory Consulting Business

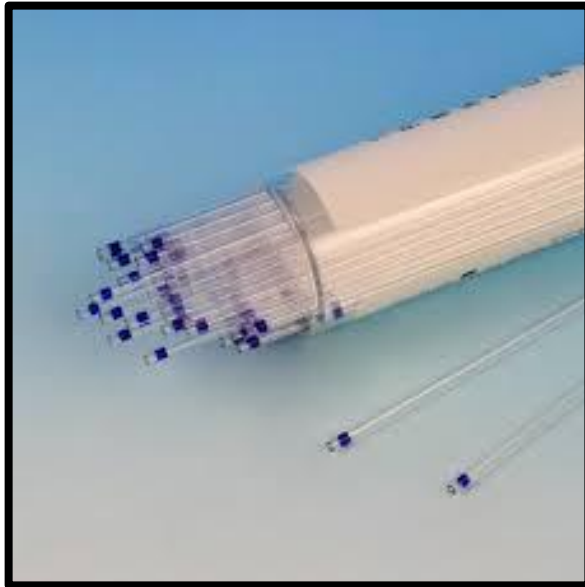


Capillary Confusion

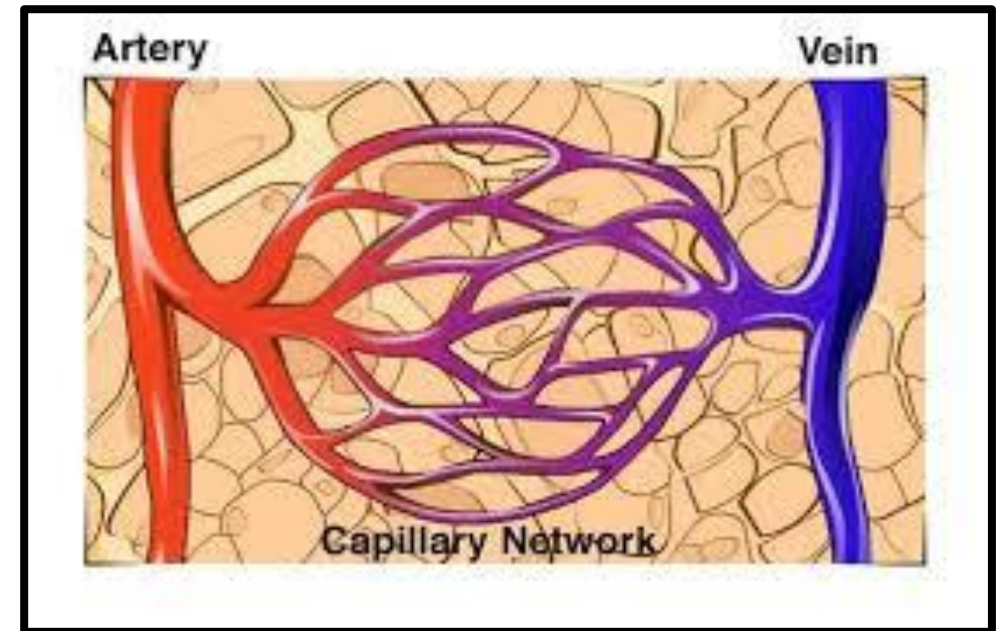
- Capillaries are the smallest blood vessel connecting arterioles and venules
- Capillary wall is a single cell thick which promotes the release of O_2 and nutrients and capture of CO_2 and waste
- Blood collected by skin puncture represents a mixture of arteriole, capillary and venule blood



Capillary Confusion



Micro-collection device



Why are capillary collections so important?

Why are capillary collections so important?



Volume of blood required for laboratory analysis

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- Coagulation testing ABSOLUTELY requires the 9 volume blood to 1 volume (3.2% sodium Citrate)

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- Current commercially available blood collection tubes come in 2 sizes

Volume of blood required for laboratory analysis

- Coagulation testing ABSOLUTELY requires the 9 volume blood to 1 volume (3.2% sodium Citrate)
- Current commercially available blood collection tubes come in 2 sizes
 - BIG!
 - WAY TOO BIG!!



1.8 ml



2.7 ml

What is the significance of collecting 1.8
or 2.7 ml blood volume?

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or 2.7 ml blood volume?



- Baby weight 2.5 Kg
- 80 ml whole blood/Kg

What is the significance of collecting 1.8
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Total Blood Volume (200 ml)

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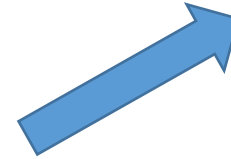
What is the significance of collecting 1.8 or 2.7 ml blood volume?



- Baby weight 2.5 Kg
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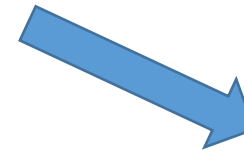


Total Blood Volume (200 ml)



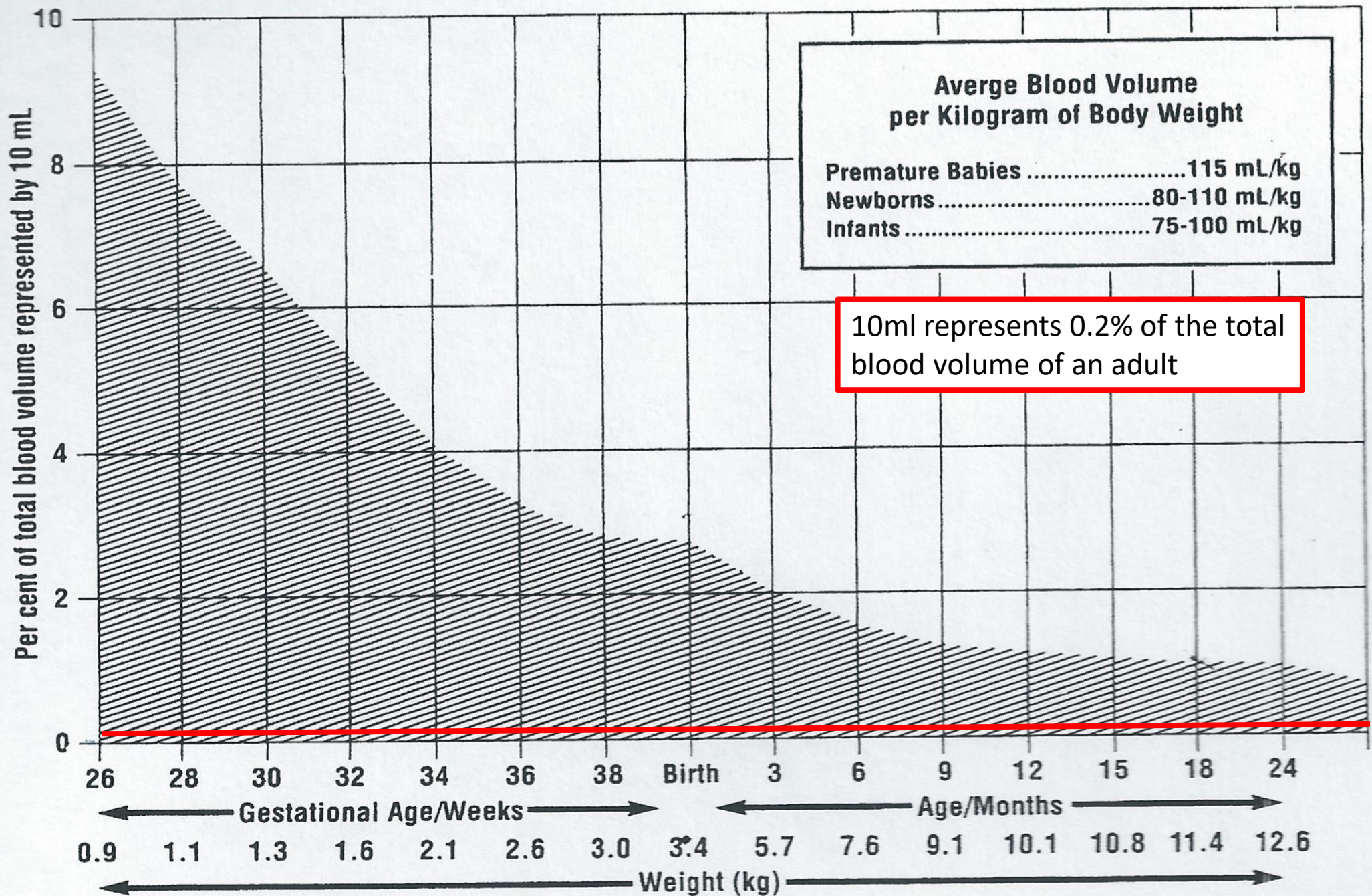
2.7ml collection

- 1.4% of total blood volume
- Adult 1.4% = 70 ml

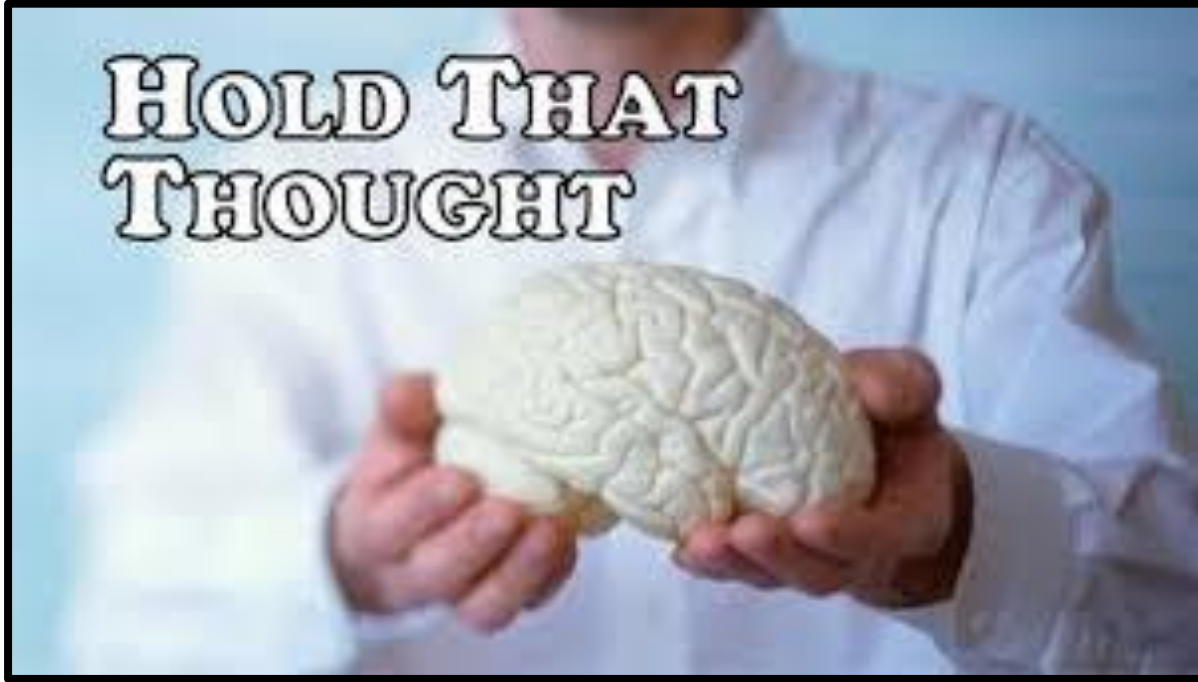


1.8ml collection

- 0.9% of total blood volume
- Adult 0.9% = 45 ml



**HOLD THAT
THOUGHT**



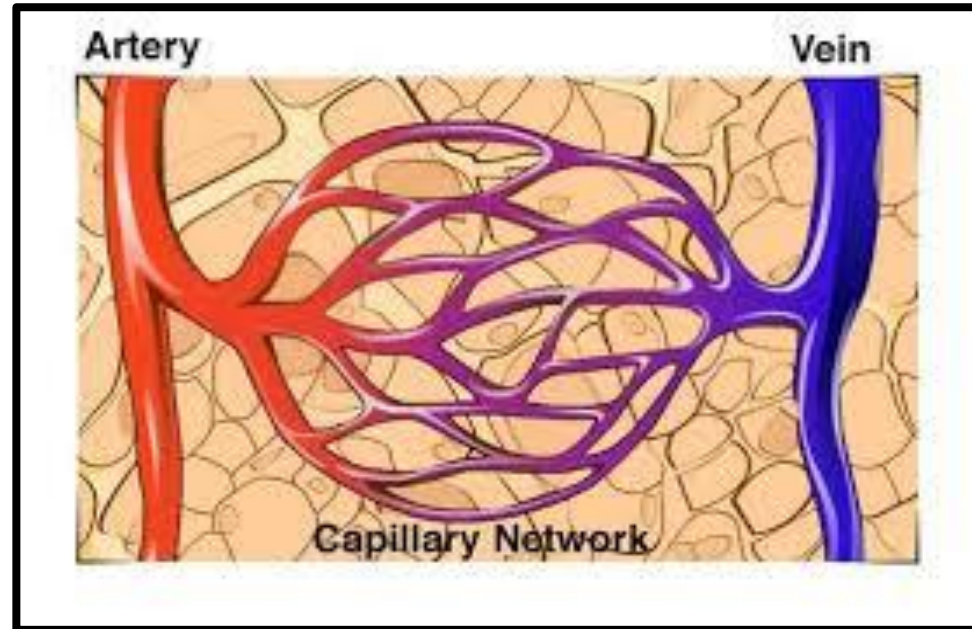
Objective #1

- To briefly review CLSI and WHO guidelines for collection of capillary blood specimens



Objective #2

- To describe the physiological differences in analyte concentrations in arterial, capillary and venous specimens



Objective #3

- To discuss pre-analytical errors associated with capillary specimen collection
 - Hemolysis
 - Clotted specimens



CLSI and WHO guidelines: Collection of capillary blood specimens



GP 42-A6 Procedures and Devices for the Collection of Diagnostic Capillary Blood Specimens. Approved Standard- 6th Edition, 2008

C46-A2 Blood Gas and pH Analysis and Related Measurements. Approved Standard- 2nd Edition, 2009



WHO guidelines on drawing blood: best practices in phlebotomy, Geneva, Switzerland, 2010

CLSI and WHO guidelines: Collection of capillary blood specimens

Review

Capillary blood sampling: national recommendations on behalf of the Croatian Society of Medical Biochemistry and Laboratory Medicine

Jasna Lenicek Krleza^{*1,2}, Adrijana Dorotic^{1,3}, Ana Grzunov^{1,2}, Miljenka Maradin^{1,4}

¹Croatian Society of Medical Biochemistry and Laboratory Medicine, Working Group for Capillary Blood Sampling, Zagreb, Croatia

²Children's Hospital Zagreb, Department of Laboratory Diagnostics, Zagreb, Croatia

³University Hospital for Infectious Diseases Dr. Fran Mihaljevic, Department of Medical Biochemistry and Haematology, Zagreb, Croatia

⁴General Hospital Karlovac, Department of Medical Biochemistry Laboratory, Karlovac, Croatia

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Abstract

Capillary blood sampling is a medical procedure aimed at assisting in patient diagnosis, management and treatment, and is increasingly used worldwide, in part because of the increasing availability of point-of-care testing. It is also frequently used to obtain small blood volumes for laboratory testing because it minimizes pain. The capillary blood sampling procedure can influence the quality of the sample as well as the accuracy of test results, highlighting the need for immediate, widespread standardization. A recent nationwide survey of policies and practices related to capillary blood sampling in medical laboratories in Croatia has shown that capillary sampling procedures are not standardized and that only a small proportion of Croatian laboratories comply with guidelines from the Clinical Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) or the World Health Organization (WHO). The aim of this document is to provide recommendations for capillary blood sampling. This document has been produced by the Working Group for Capillary Blood Sampling within the Croatian Society of Medical Biochemistry and Laboratory Medicine. Our recommendations are based on existing available standards and recommendations (WHO Best Practices in Phlebotomy, CLSI GP42-A6 and CLSI C46-A2), which have been modified based on local logistical, cultural, legal and regulatory requirements. We hope that these recommendations will be a useful contribution to the standardization of capillary blood sampling in Croatia.

Key words: recommendations; capillary blood; blood specimen collection; standardization; preanalytical phase

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Introduction

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Obtaining blood by skin puncture instead of venipuncture can be especially important in pediatric

patients in order to avoid the effects of blood volume reduction (2) and reduce the risk of anemia (3). Thus, 56% of all procedures in the neonatal unit are performed using capillary blood samples, making it the most frequent invasive procedure performed during the neonatal period (4,5). Skin puncture blood sampling is also recommended for adult patients with severe burns, those who are obese or older or anxious about sampling, those with a tendency toward thrombosis, those whose surface veins need to be spared for intravenous therapy, those with fragile or inaccessible veins, and those who self-test their blood, such as for glucose (3).

<http://dx.doi.org/10.11613/BM.2015.034>

Biochemia Medica 2015;25(3):335-58

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23 Core Recommendations

For each step in the skin puncture technique



GP 42-A6 Procedures and Devices for the Collection of Diagnostic Capillary Blood Specimens. Approved Standard- 6th Edition, 2008

C46-A2 Blood Gas and pH Analysis and Related Measurements. Approved Standard- 2nd Edition, 2009



WHO guidelines on drawing blood: best practices in phlebotomy, Geneva, Switzerland, 2010

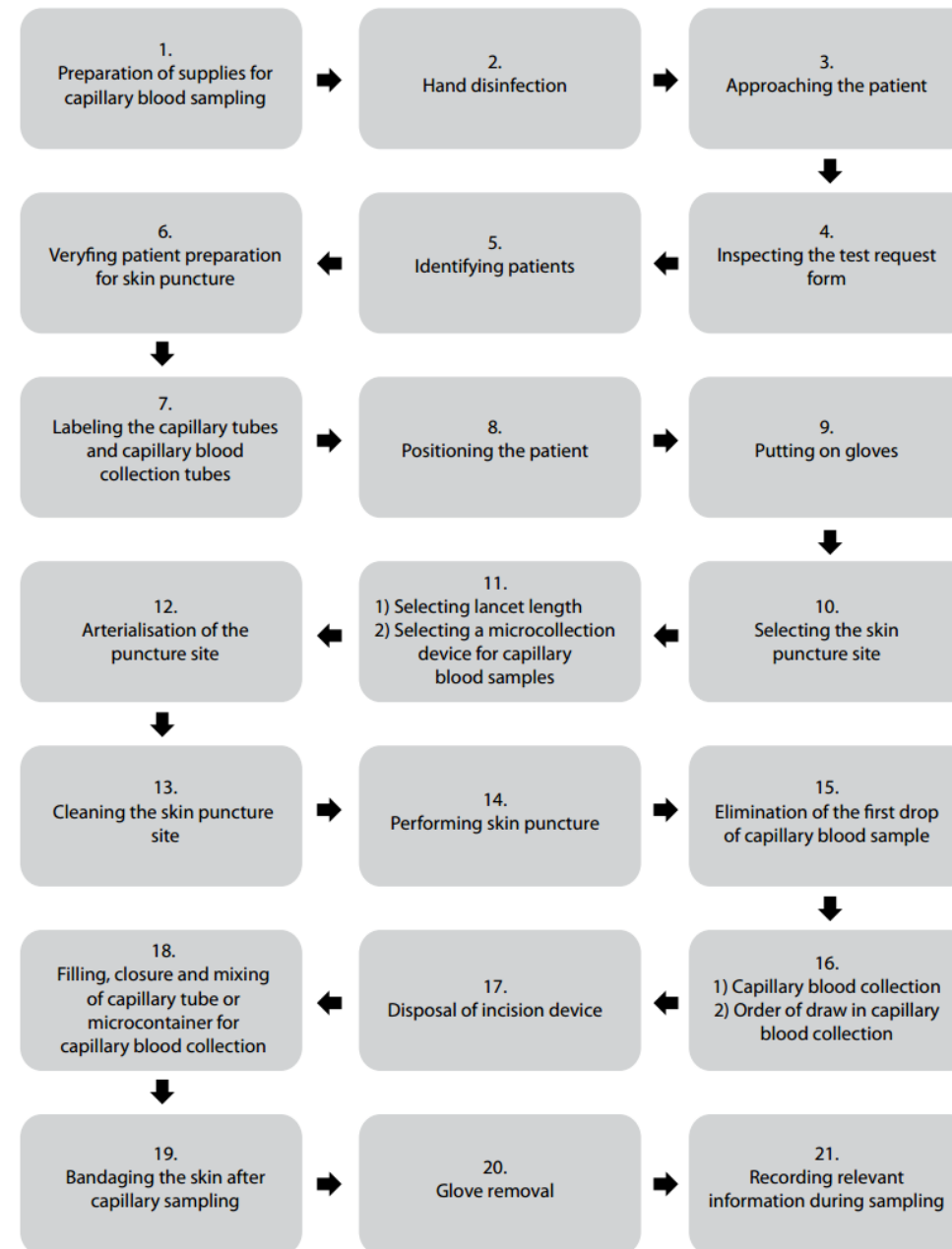


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

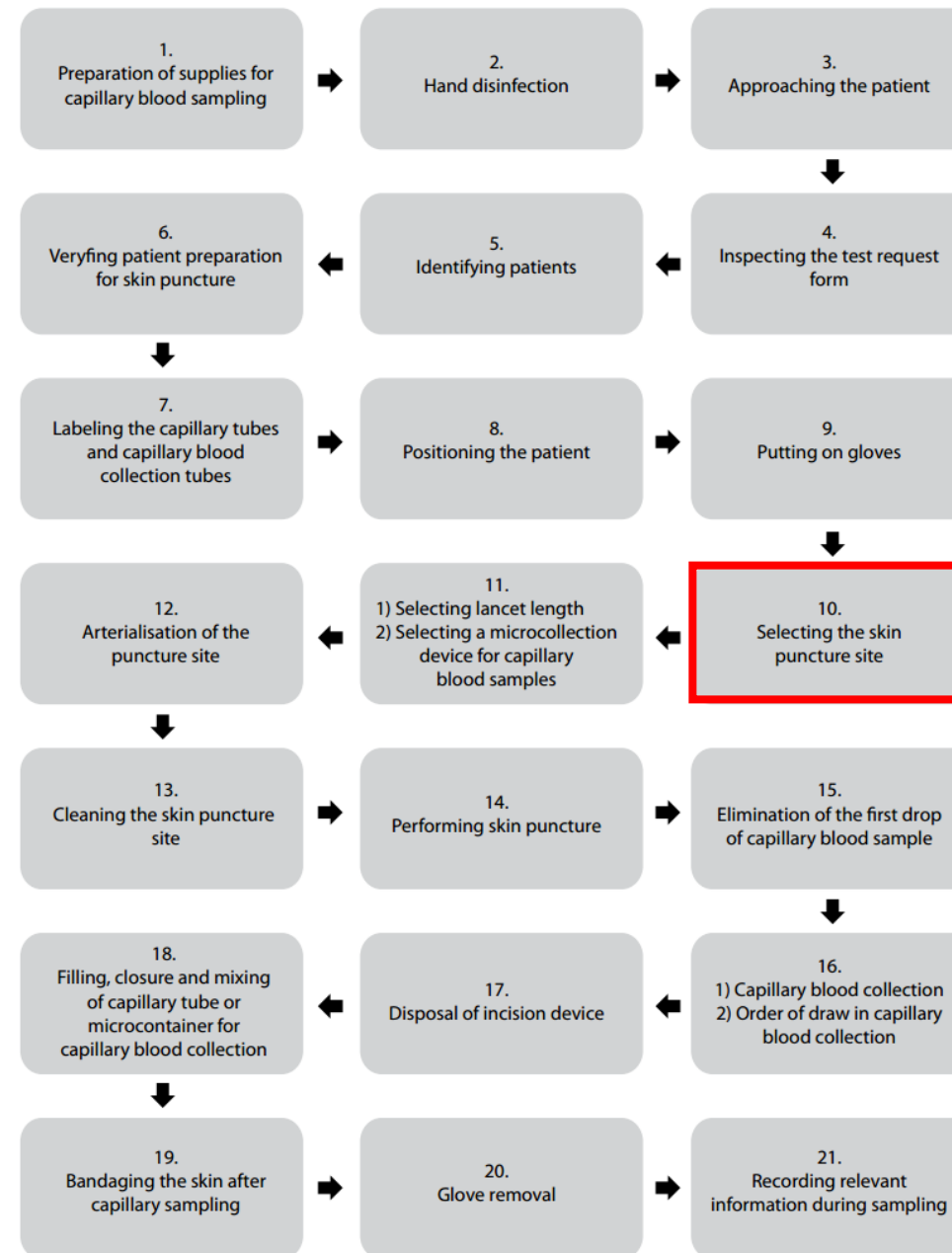


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

#10: Selecting the skin puncture site



Table 7.1 Conditions influencing the choice of heel or finger-prick

Condition	Heel-prick	Finger-prick
Age	Birth to about 6 months	Over 6 months
Weight	From 3–10 kg, approximately	Greater than 10 kg
Placement of lancet	On the medial or lateral plantar surface	On the side of the ball of the finger perpendicular to the lines of the fingerprint
Recommended finger	Not applicable	Second and third finger (i.e. middle and ring finger); avoid the thumb and index finger because of calluses, and avoid the little finger because the tissue is thin

#10: Selecting the skin puncture site



CLSI Guideline **Section 7.1 Infants**

(Section 7: Sites for Collecting Skin Puncture Blood)

- “punctures must not be performed on earlobes”

Krleza et al., 2015 Capillary blood sampling review

- Earlobe specimen has been used for lactate monitoring in sports medicine
- “Earlobe puncture is recommended for blood gas analysis and will be described in Croatian national recommendations for blood gas and acid base balance”

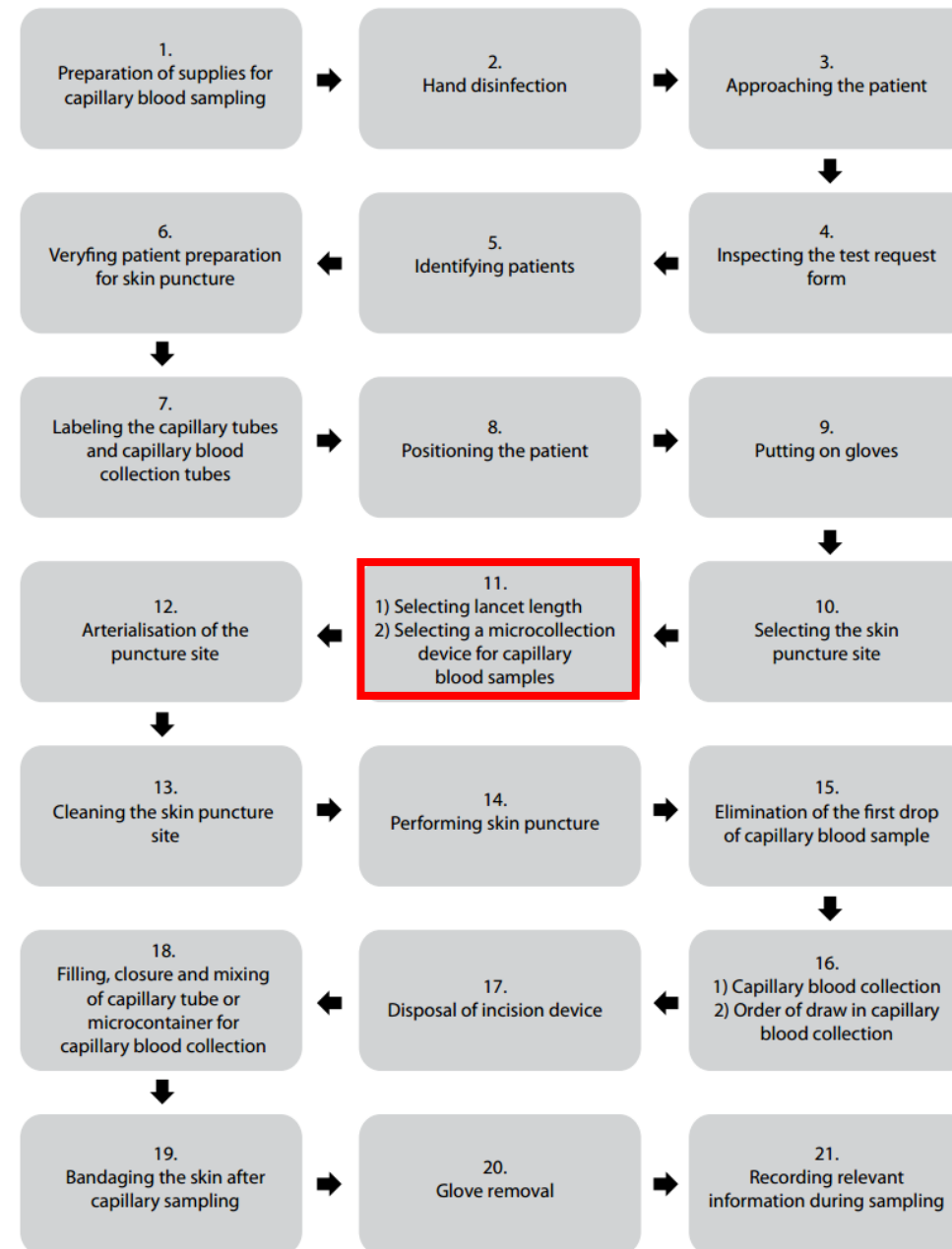
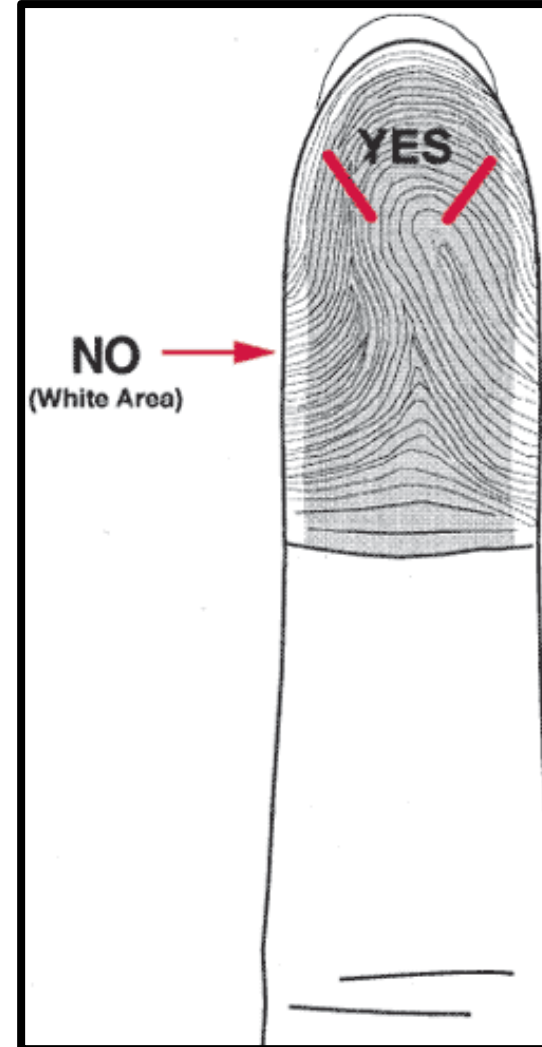


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

#11: Selecting Lancet Length



Puncture should be made across the fingerprint; not parallel to the fingerprint

#11: Selecting Lancet Length

	Recommended Puncture Site	Recommended Incision Depth up to
Premature neonates (up to 3 kg)	Heel	0.85 mm
Infants under 6 months of Age	Heel	2.0 mm
Child 6 months-8 years	Finger	1.5 mm
Child > 8 years Adults	Finger	2.4 mm

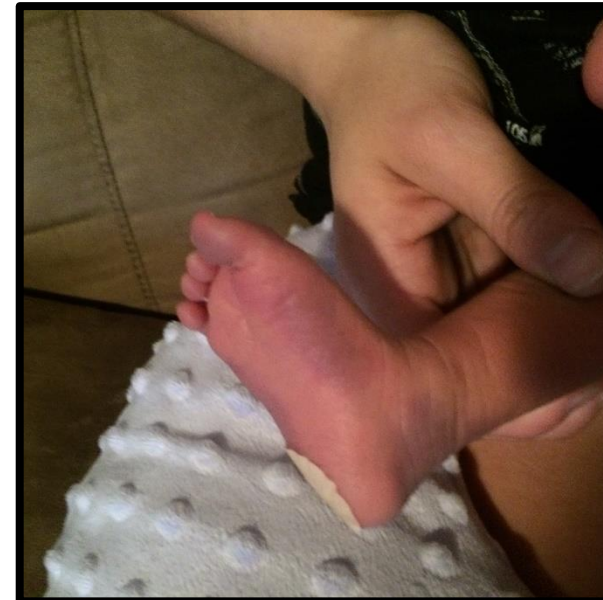
#11: Selecting Lancet Length

- Retractable incision devices are preferred
- Use a blade slightly shorter than recommended incision depth
 - “Pressure applied on the device during the puncture results in an incision slightly deeper than the nominal blade length”



#11: Selecting Lancet Length

- Avoid applying strong pressure on the incision device
 - Too much pressure can cause the puncture to be deeper than necessary
 - Risk of damaging bone or nerves



Wrap the heel in warm moist towel (hyperemic or vasodilatory creams)

- 40-45° C
- 3-5 min

Objective

- Increase the blood flow to the puncture site

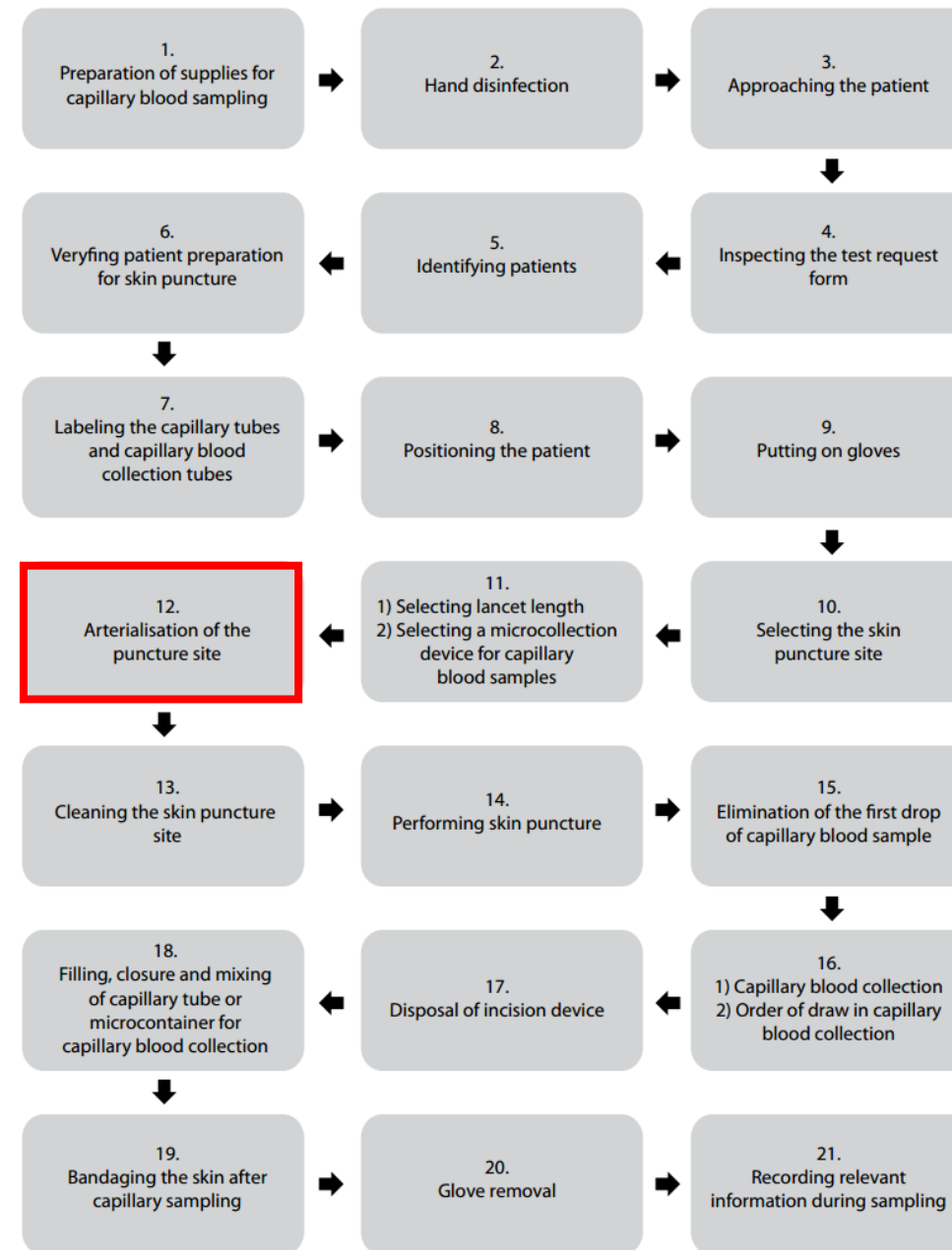
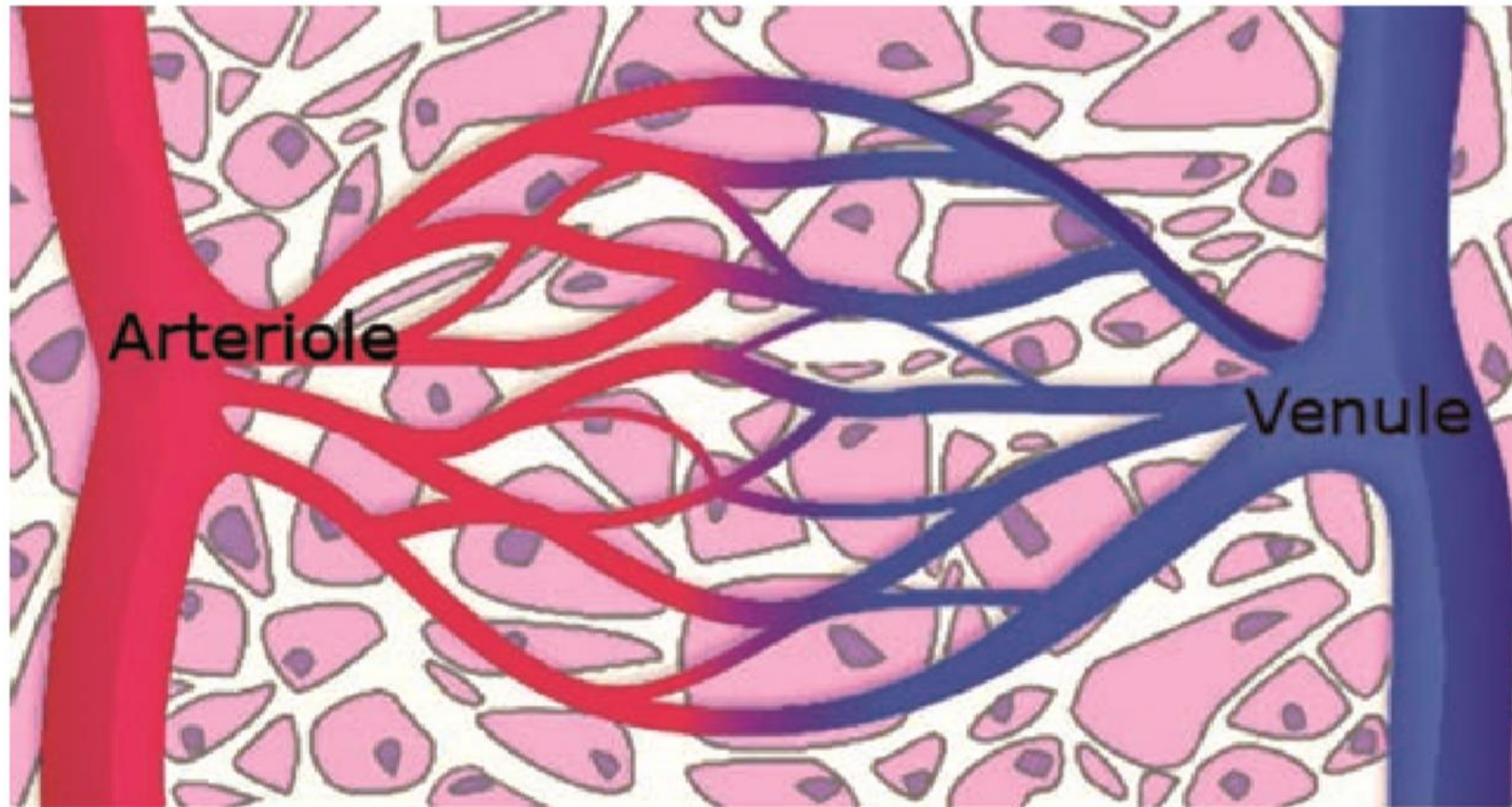


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

Outcome

- To obtain an adequate sample without the need to apply pressure to surrounding tissue

Figure 1: Capillary network



Arterial blood		AV Difference		Venous Blood	
pH	7.40	pH	0.02	pH	7.38
$p\text{CO}_2$	5.3 kPa	$p\text{CO}_2$	0.7	$p\text{CO}_2$	6.0
$p\text{O}_2$	13.0 kPa	$p\text{O}_2$	8.0	$p\text{O}_2$	5.0

Capillary-blood gases: To arterialize or not

By Chris Higgins

The gold-standard sample for blood-gas analysis is arterial blood obtained via an indwelling arterial catheter or by arterial puncture. For a number of reasons, capillary blood is an attractive substitute sample that is routinely used in some clinical settings. The purpose of this article is to examine the evidence that blood-gas parameter values (pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, and $p\text{O}_2$) obtained from a capillary-blood sample accurately reflect arterial blood. There is conflicting opinion that increasing local blood flow (by warming or application of vasodilating agent) prior to capillary-blood sampling is necessary for most accurate results and this controversial issue will be addressed. [Note: The unit of $p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{O}_2$ measurement used in this article is kPa — to convert kPa to mmHg divide by 0.133.]

Blood-gas analyzers measure blood pH, and the oxygen and carbon-dioxide tensions of blood ($p\text{CO}_2$ and $p\text{O}_2$). These measurements, along with parameters (bicarbonate, base excess, and so on) derived by calculation from these measurements, allow evaluation of acid-base status and adequacy of ventilation and oxygenation. Thus, blood-gas analysis is helpful for assessment and monitoring of patients suffering a range of metabolic disturbances and respiratory diseases, both acute and chronic. It is an important component of the physiological monitoring that critically ill patients, particularly those being mechanically ventilated, require.

The gold-standard sample for blood-gas analysis is arterial blood obtained anaerobically via an indwelling arterial catheter (most often sited at the radial artery in adults and the umbilical artery in neonates), or arterial puncture. In an intensive-care setting with blood-gas analysis, arterial blood is the most accurate because it is obtained from the arterial system. Placing an arterial catheter is a technically demanding and serious procedure, but it is the most accurate method for obtaining blood-gas samples. The most common puncture site is the radial artery in the wrist; alternative sites include the brachial artery in the arm and femoral artery in the groin. Although arterial puncture does not place patients at risk of the serious complications associated with arterial catheterization, it is potentially hazardous and certainly not risk free.³ Furthermore, it is a procedure that is reported by patients to be significantly more painful than venous

puncture.⁴ Specialist training in arterial puncture is essential for patient safety and comfort; and, in many countries, obtaining arterial blood is the almost exclusive preserve of medically qualified staff.

Capillary blood can be obtained by near-painless⁵ skin puncture using a lancet or automated incision device that punctures the skin to a depth of just 1 millimeter.^{6,18} It is the least-invasive and safest blood-collecting technique, and can be performed by all healthcare personnel after minimal training.⁹ The relative simplicity and safety profile of capillary-blood sampling and the necessity for only small volumes (100 μL to 150 μL) of blood for pH and gas analysis make capillary blood an attractive substitute for arterial blood, particularly among neonates and infants but also adults. The clinical value of capillary-blood gas results depends, however, on the extent to which pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, and $p\text{O}_2$ of capillary blood accurately reflect pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, and $p\text{O}_2$ of arterial blood.

Capillary and arterial blood: theoretical considerations

With a diameter of just 8 μm , capillaries are the smallest blood vessel. They are the connection between arterioles (the smallest artery) and venules (the smallest vein) and, thus, between the arterial and venous sides of the circulatory system. The capillary network (see Figure 1) is the site of nutrient and waste exchange between blood and tissue cells, made possible by the single-cell (1- μm) thickness of the capillary wall. Oxygenated arterial blood arriving via arterioles at the capillary network yields up its oxygen and other essential nutrients to tissue cells

polism are les and the , there is a work (from difference. ly 13 kPa, n venules, kPa.⁷ The order 0.02 vely.⁸ arterioles , and $p\text{O}_2$

of capillary blood would be roughly midway between arterial and venous values. That is, however, not the case because blood obtained by skin puncture is not actually pure capillary blood but a mixture of blood from punctured arterioles, capillaries, and venules (along with a small but variable contribution of interstitial fluid and intracellular fluid from damaged tissue cells).⁹ Due to the relative high pressure on the arterial side of

Continues on page 44

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Arterial Blood = Gold
Std Sample

“The clinical value of capillary-blood gas results depends, however, on the extent to which pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, and $p\text{O}_2$ of capillary blood accurately reflect pH, $p\text{CO}_2$, and $p\text{O}_2$ of arterial blood”

- Arterial $p\text{O}_2$ decreases so does the arterial capillary difference
- Arterial $p\text{O}_2$ increases so does the arterial capillary difference

Capillary pH was similar to Arterial pH

- <0.05 difference
- Clinically insignificant

Capillary $p\text{CO}_2$ was similar to Arterial $p\text{CO}_2$

- < 3-5 mmHg difference
- Clinically acceptable

Capillary $p\text{O}_2$ was different from Arterial $p\text{O}_2$

- 20 mmHg difference
- Clinically UNacceptable

#12: Arterialization

“There is really no substitute for arterial blood if accuracy of pO₂ measurement is important, for example, for the prescription of long-term oxygen therapy”

Higgins C. Capillary-blood gases: To arterialize or not. MLO.
November 2008:42-47



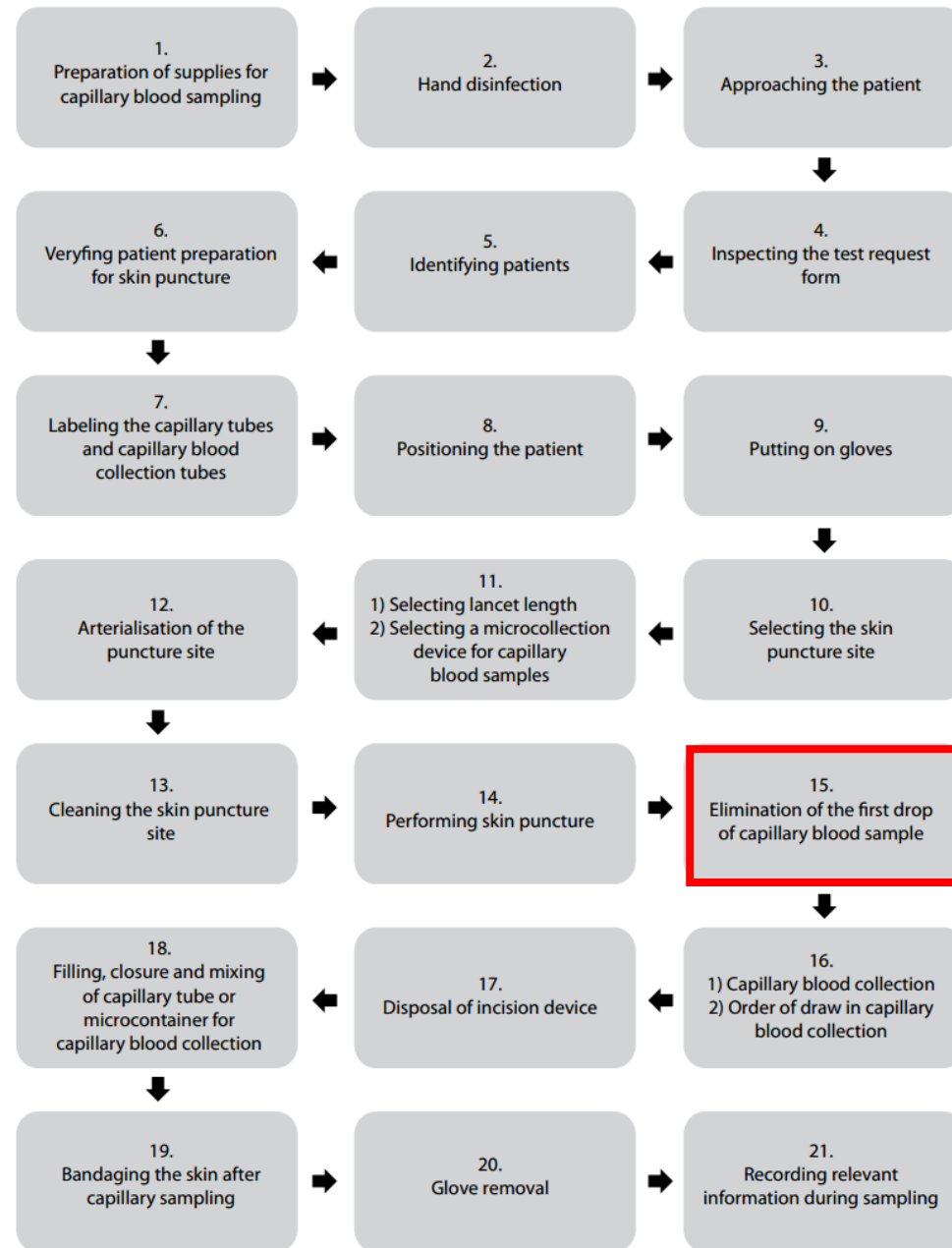


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

#15: Elimination of the first drop of capillary blood sampled



CLSI

“Wipe away the first drop of blood with a clean gauze pad (unless testing the first drop is required by the manufacturer of the point of care device)”

Primary Concern

First drop can contaminate the blood specimen due to excess tissue fluid

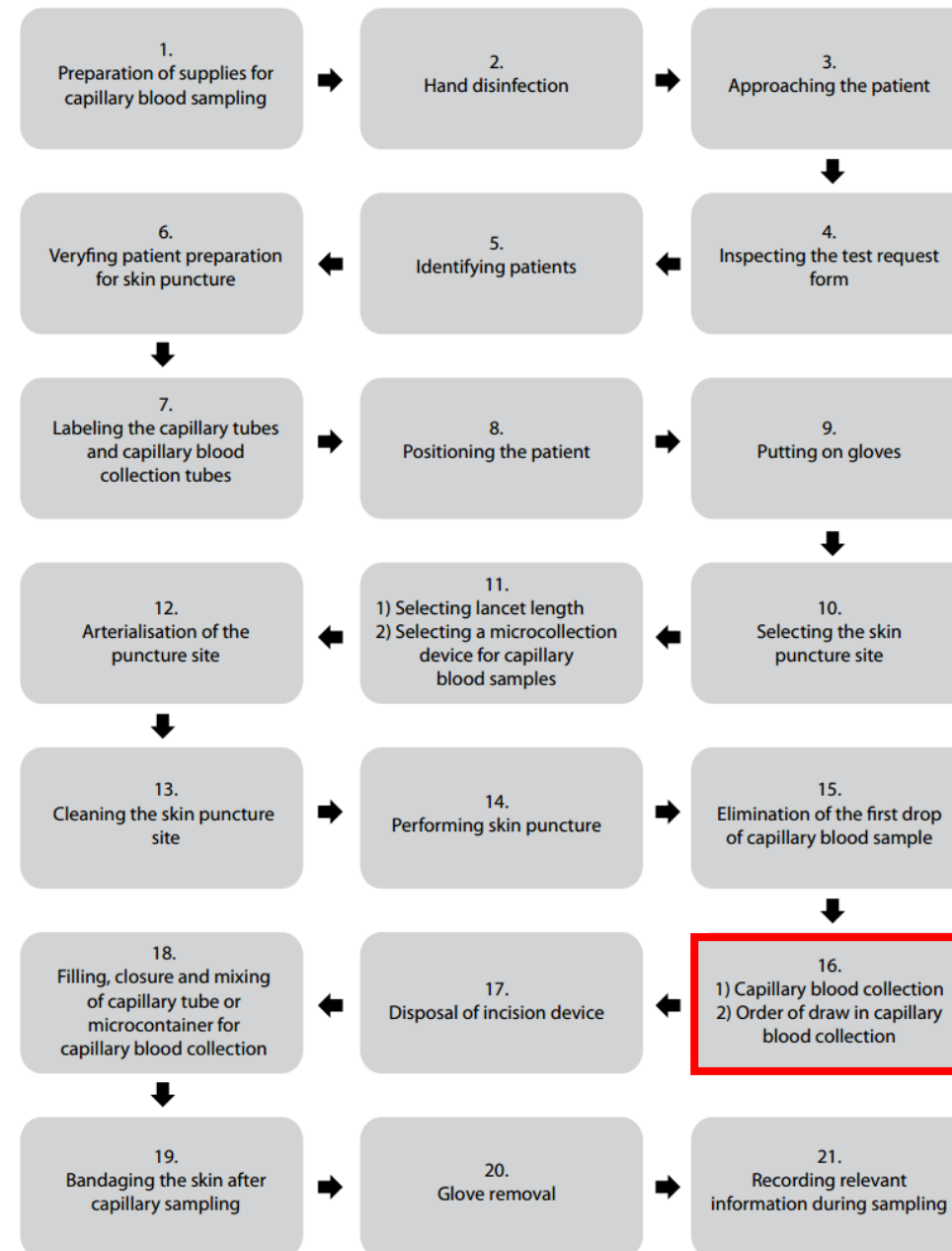


FIGURE 7. Steps in the skin puncture technique.

#16: Order of draw in Capillary blood collection



Collection Order

- Blood gas analysis
- EDTA samples
- Samples with other additives
- Samples for serum

Primary Concern

If more than two capillary specimens are needed....consider requesting a venipuncture (may provide more accurate results)

CLSI and WHO guidelines: Collection of capillary blood specimens

Review

Capillary blood sampling: national recommendations on behalf of the Croatian Society of Medical Biochemistry and Laboratory Medicine

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23 Core Recommendations

For each step in the skin puncture technique

Other Recommendations

Minimize the influence of limitations of capillary blood sampling

Differences in analyte concentrations between capillary and venous specimens



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C46-A2 Blood Gas and pH Analysis and Related Measurements. Approved Standard- 2nd Edition, 2009



WHO guidelines on drawing blood: best practices in phlebotomy, Geneva, Switzerland, 2010

#24: Patients for whom capillary blood sampling is not recommended



Edematous patients

Poor Peripheral Perfusion



Sign and Symptoms of Dehydration



- Dry or sticky mouth
- Lethargy
- Sunken eyes
- Weight loss
- Low or no urine input
- Dark yellow urine
- Poor skin turgor
- Delayed capillary refill
- Dizziness
- Confusion/changes in mental status
- Lack of tears/sweat
- Falls/difficulty walking
- Low blood pressure
- Rapid heart rate
- Abnormal labs/electrolytes

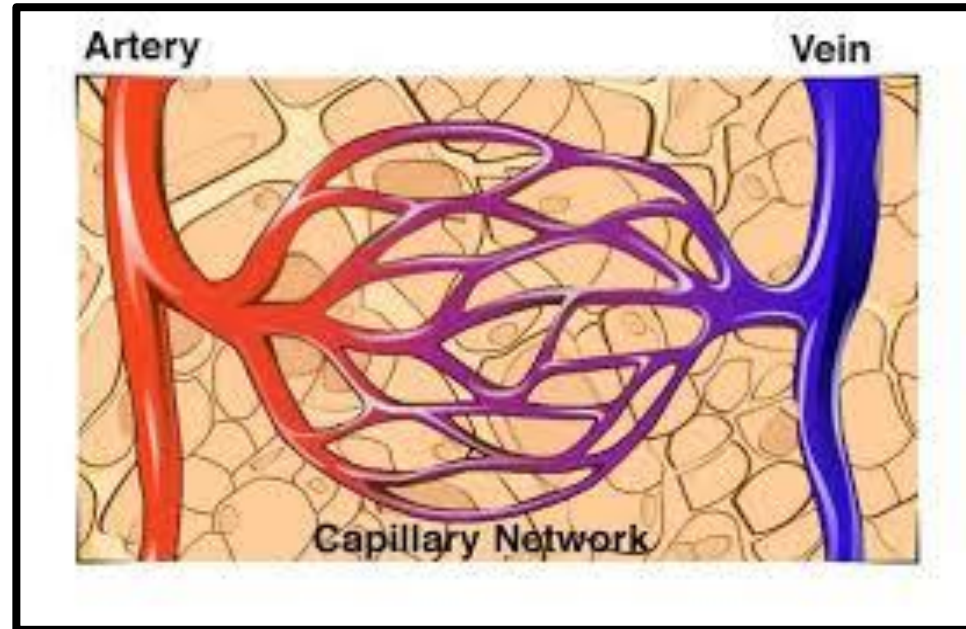
Objective 1 Conclusion

- CLSI and WHO guidelines for the collection of capillary blood specimens describe general procedures involved with obtaining capillary specimens.



Objective #2

- To describe the physiological differences in analyte concentrations in arterial, capillary and venous specimens



	Arterial	Central Venous	Peripheral Venous
ALT (U/L)	62	61	81
Albumin (g/dL)	3.6	3.7	3.9
ALP (U/L)	114	113	107
Amylase (U/L)	149	148	177
AST (U/L)	20	20	21
Calcium (mg/dL)	8.1	8.2	8.3
Chloride (mmol/L)	99	97	101
CK (U/L)	82	73	91
Creatinine (mg/dL)	1.4	1.3	1.2
GGT (U/L)	13	14	14
Potassium (mmol/L)	4	3.9	3.8
Sodium (mmol/L)	144	145	144
Total Protein (g/dL)	6.6	6.8	7.7
Urea (mg/dL)	32	31	25
Uric Acid (mg/dL)	8.1	8.1	7.9

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Tietz Textbook of
Clinical Chemistry, 3rd
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GGT (U/L)	13	14	14
Potassium (mmol/L)	4	3.9	3.8
Sodium (mmol/L)	144	145	144
Total Protein (g/dL)	6.6	6.8	7.7
Urea (mg/dL)	32	31	25
Uric Acid (mg/dL)	8.1	8.1	7.9

Tietz Textbook of
Clinical Chemistry, 3rd
Edition

Capillary Collection

- Capillaries are the smallest blood vessel connecting arterioles and venules
- Capillary wall is a single cell thick which promotes the release of O_2 and nutrients and capture of CO_2 and waste
- Blood collected by skin puncture represents a mixture of arteriole, capillary and venule blood

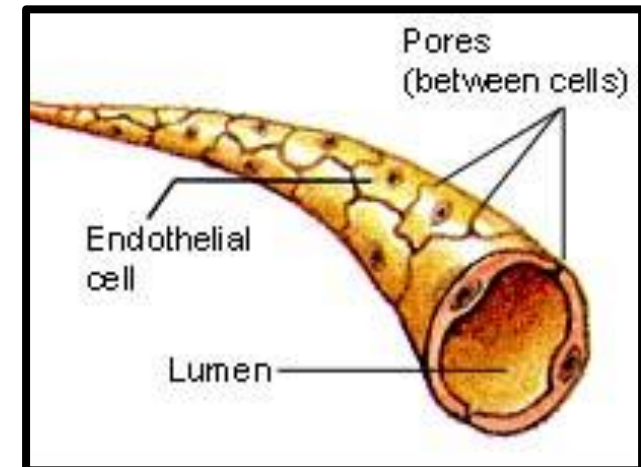
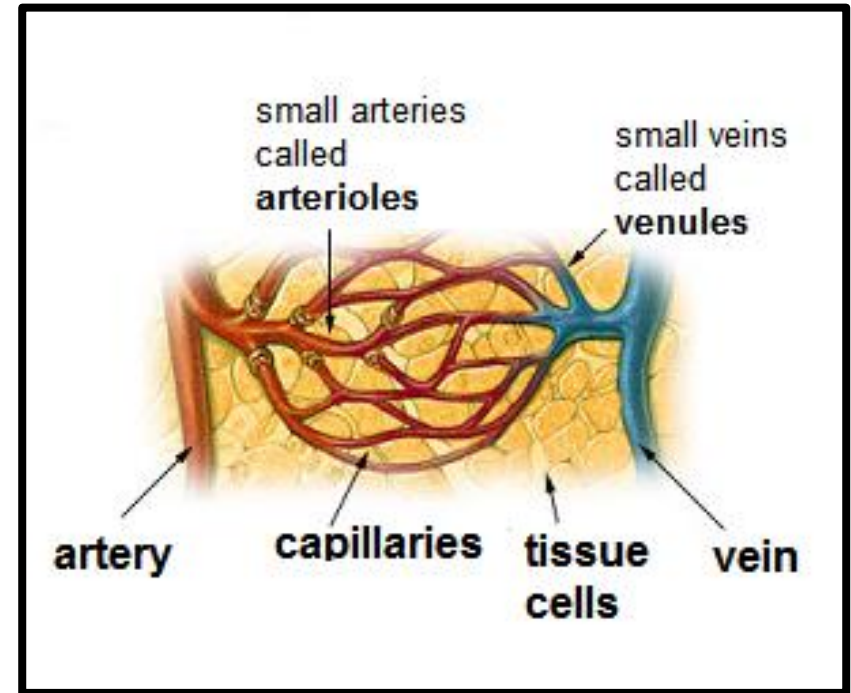
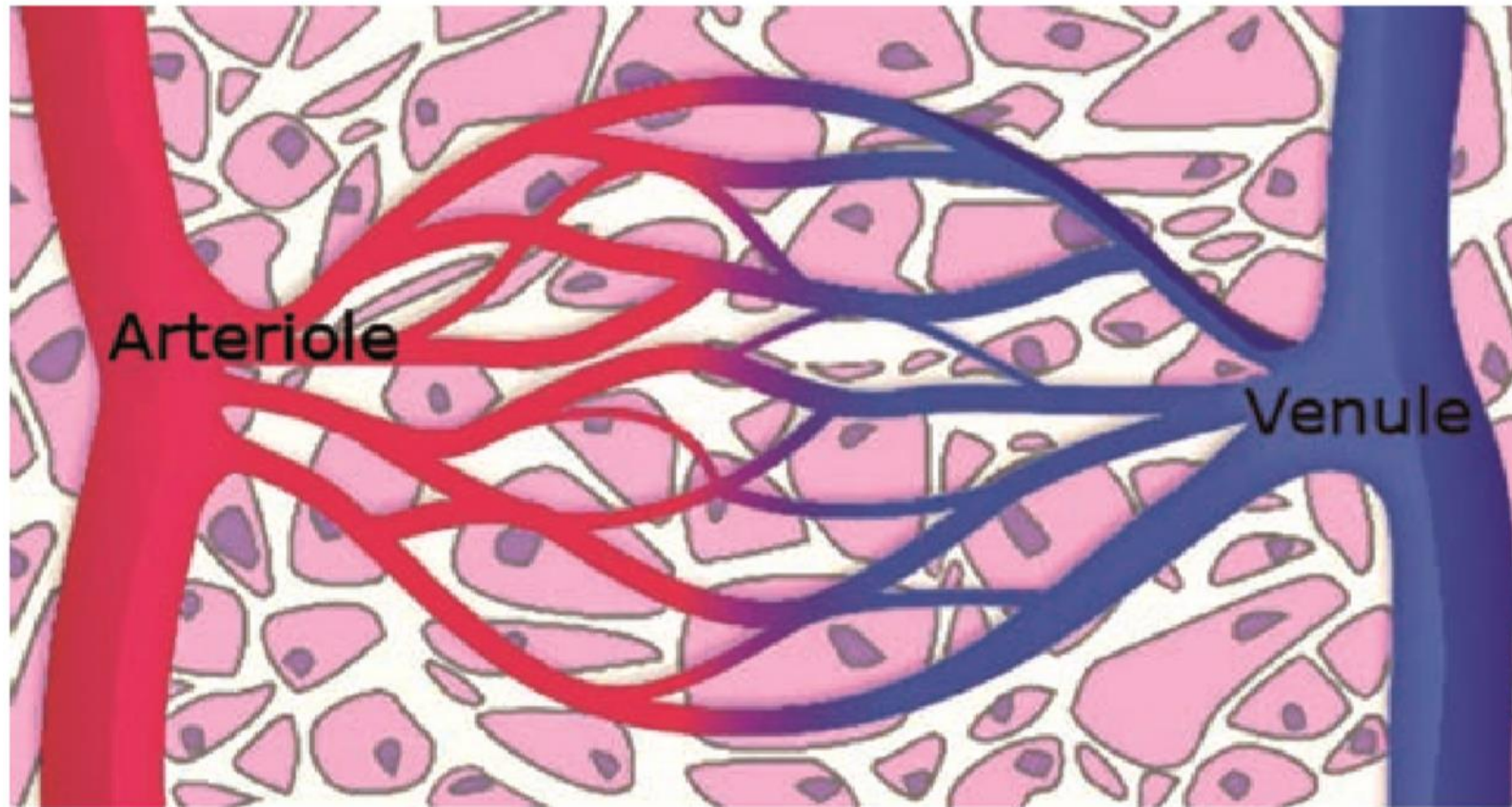


Figure 1: Capillary network

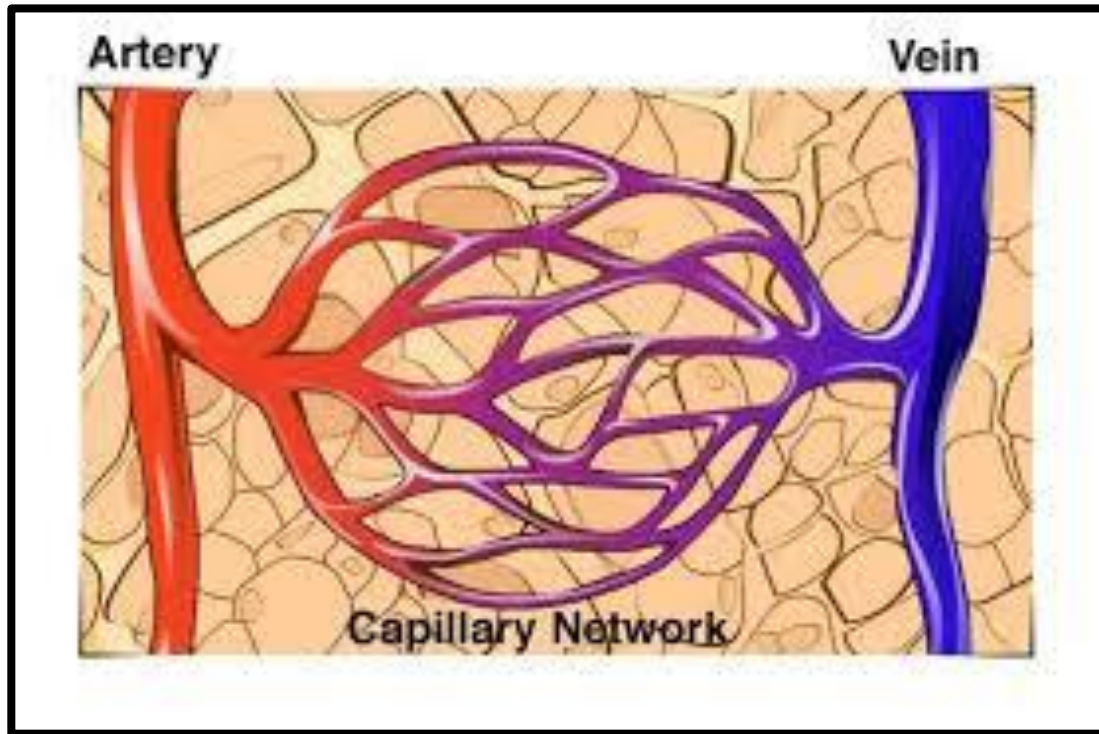


Arterial blood		AV Difference		Venous Blood	
pH	7.40	pH	0.02	pH	7.38
$p\text{CO}_2$	5.3 kPa	$p\text{CO}_2$	0.7	$p\text{CO}_2$	6.0
$p\text{O}_2$	13.0 kPa	$p\text{O}_2$	8.0	$p\text{O}_2$	5.0

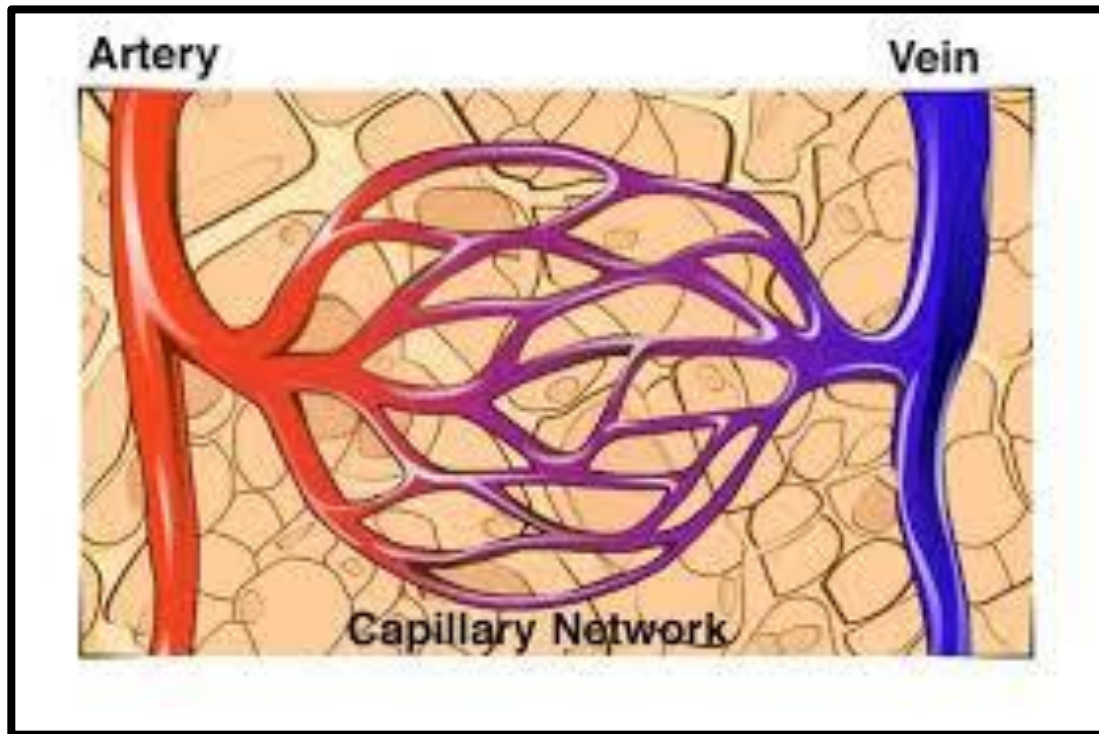
Objective 2: Analyte Concentration Differences between Capillary and Venous

Capillary Value Greater Than Venous Value (%)	No Difference Between Capillary and Venous Values	Capillary Value Less Than Venous Value (%)
Glucose 1.4%	Phosphorus	Bilirubin 5%
Potassium 0.9%	Urea	Calcium 4.6%
		Chloride 1.8%
		Sodium 2.3%
		Total Protein 3.3%

Differences between Arterial, Capillary and Venous Glucose Concentrations

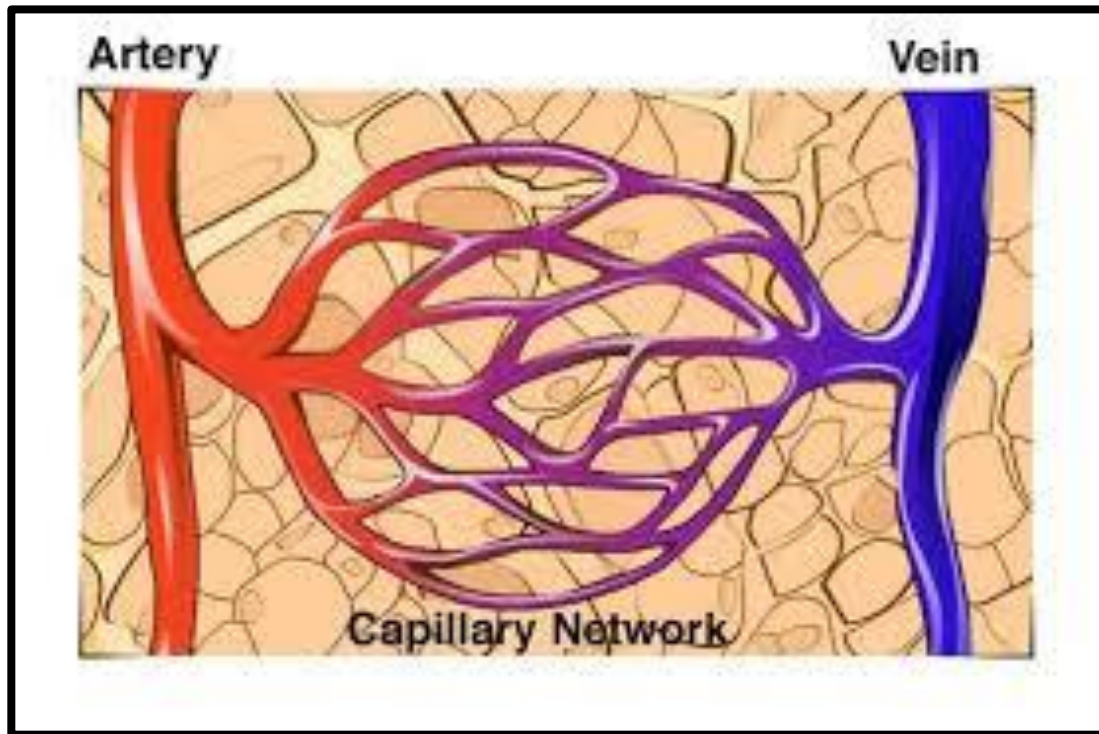


Differences between Arterial, Capillary and Venous Glucose Concentrations



- Arterial Glucose \sim Capillary Glucose
- Capillary Glucose $>$ Venous Glucose

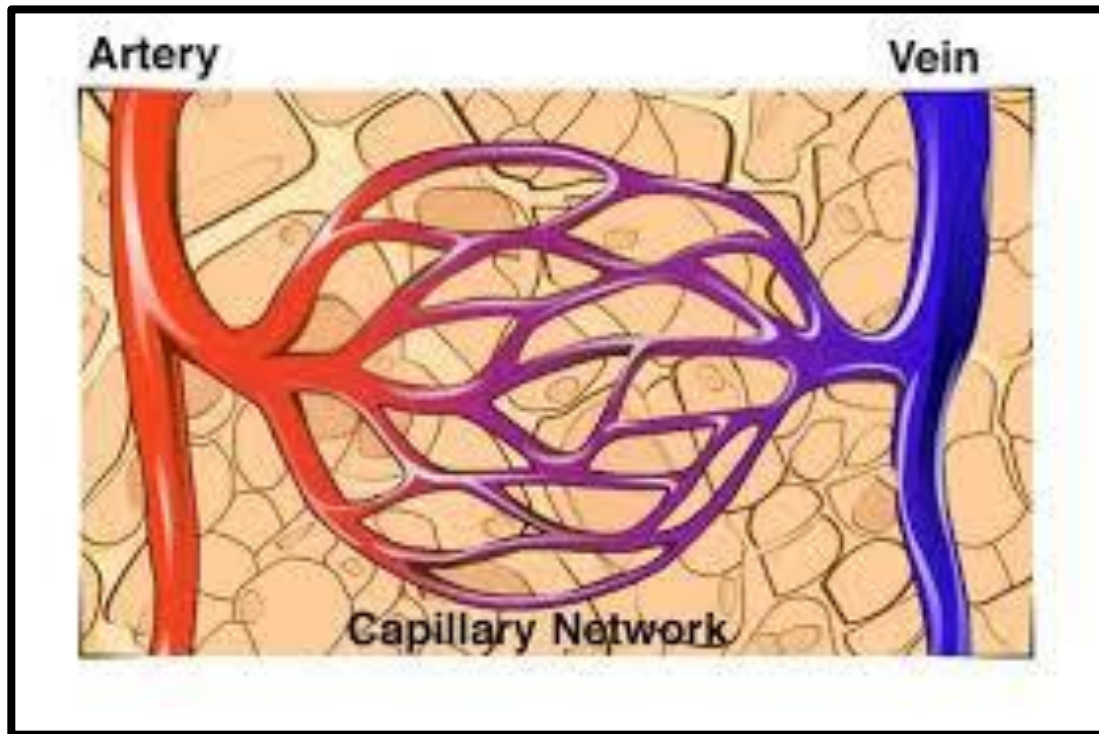
Differences between Arterial, Capillary and Venous Glucose Concentrations



- Arterial Glucose \sim Capillary Glucose
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Venous glucose = capillary glucose
(fasting specimens)

Differences between Arterial, Capillary and Venous Glucose Concentrations



- Arterial Glucose \sim Capillary Glucose
- Capillary Glucose $>$ Venous Glucose

Venous glucose = capillary glucose
(fasting specimens)

Capillary glucose can be up to 20 – 25% higher than venous glucose

- After a meal
- Glucose load
- Glucose clamping studies

Objective 2 Conclusions

- Significant (clinically) variation may exist in analyte concentrations between arterial, capillary and venous specimens.
- To assist with clinical interpretation of results obtained using a capillary specimen, reference intervals specific for capillary blood specimens are advisable.



Objective #3

- To discuss pre-analytical errors associated with capillary specimen collection
 - Hemolysis
 - Clotted specimens



What is hemolysis?



Analyte Concentrations in RBCs and Plasma

Sodium: 16 mmol/L
Chloride: 52 mmol/L
Potassium: 100 mmol/L

LDH: 58,000 U/L
AST: 500 U/L
ALT: 150 U/L

Sodium: 140 mmol/L

Chloride: 104 mmol/L

Potassium: 4.4 mmol/L

LDH: 360 U/L

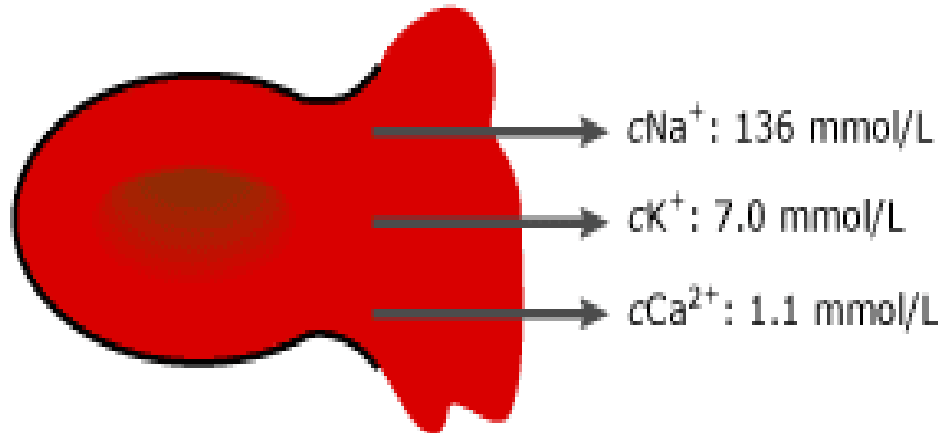
AST: 25 U/L

ALT: 30 U/L

“Release of K^+ from as few as 0.5% of erythrocytes can increase K^+ values by 0.5 mmol/L”

– Tietz Textbook of Clinical Chemistry, 3rd Edition

mix of intra- and extra
cellular compartments



How do we currently detect hemolysis?

- Visual inspection of plasma
- Problems:
 - time consuming (requires centrifugation)
 - manual qualitative assessment
 - between observer variability



How do we currently detect hemolysis?

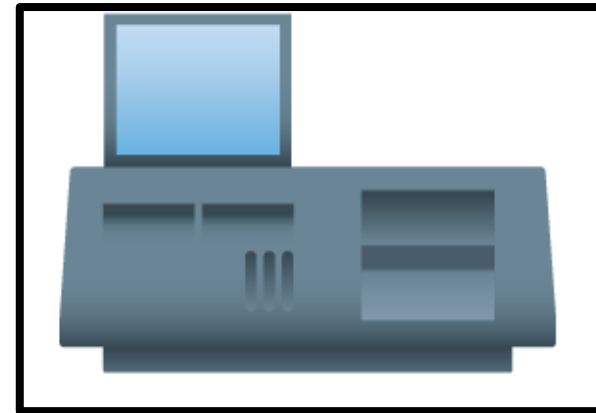
- Hemolysis Index (Automated Clinical Chemistry Systems)
- Spectrophotometric assessment
 - Blanked bichromatic measurements
 - 405 nm and 700nm
- Problems:
 - Some time consumed



Can we detect hemolysis in a whole blood specimen?



- Not yet!



What are the rates of hemolysis?



Hemolysis in Serum Samples Drawn in the Emergency Department

Edward R. Burns, Noriko Yoshikawa

Department of Pathology, Albert Einstein College of Medicine and Montefiore Medical Center, New York, NY.

4,021 patients (ED = 2,992 Med Ward = 1,029)

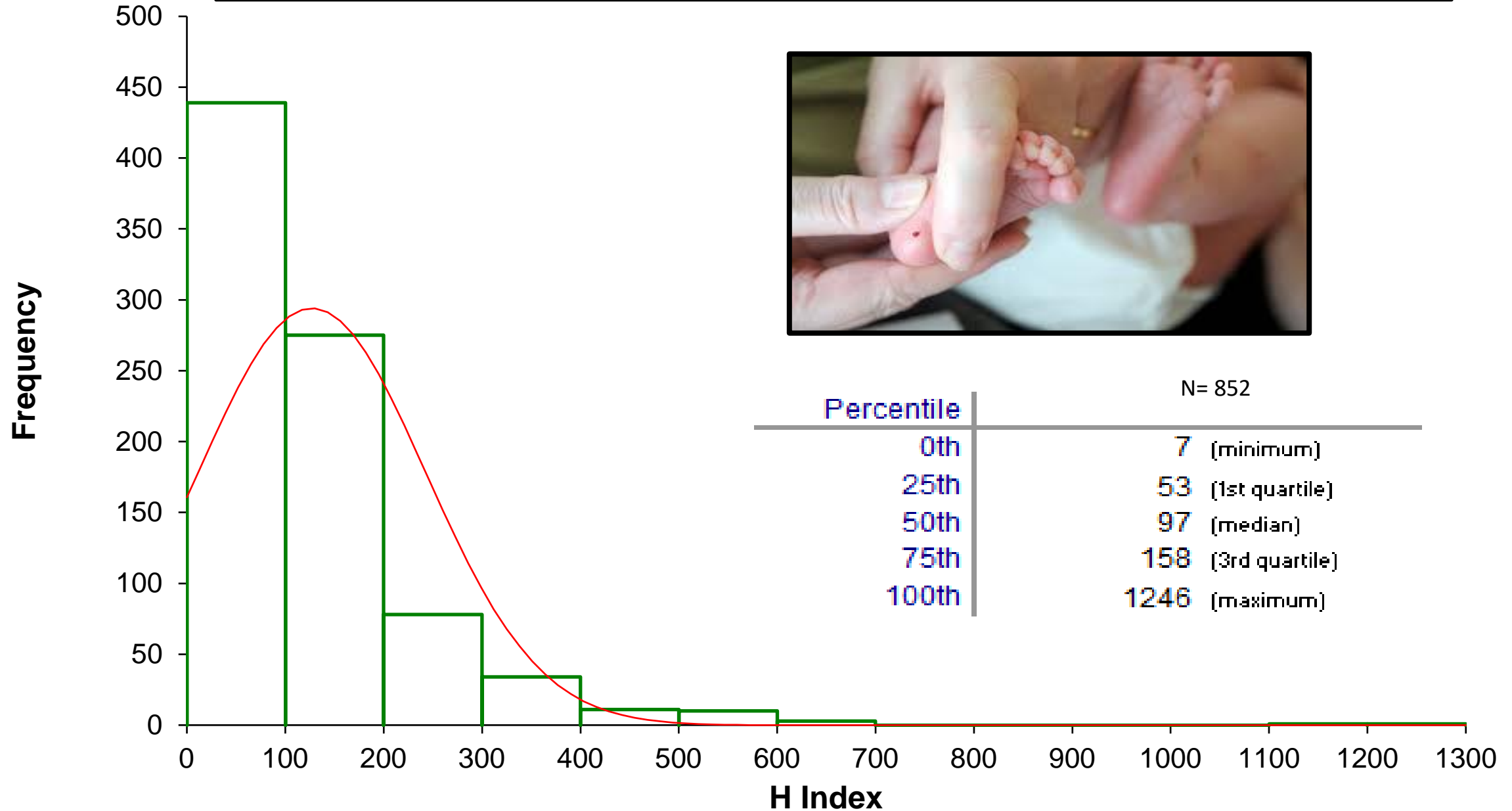
Both collected by Laboratory Phlebotomists

Rates of hemolysis: 12.4% in ED

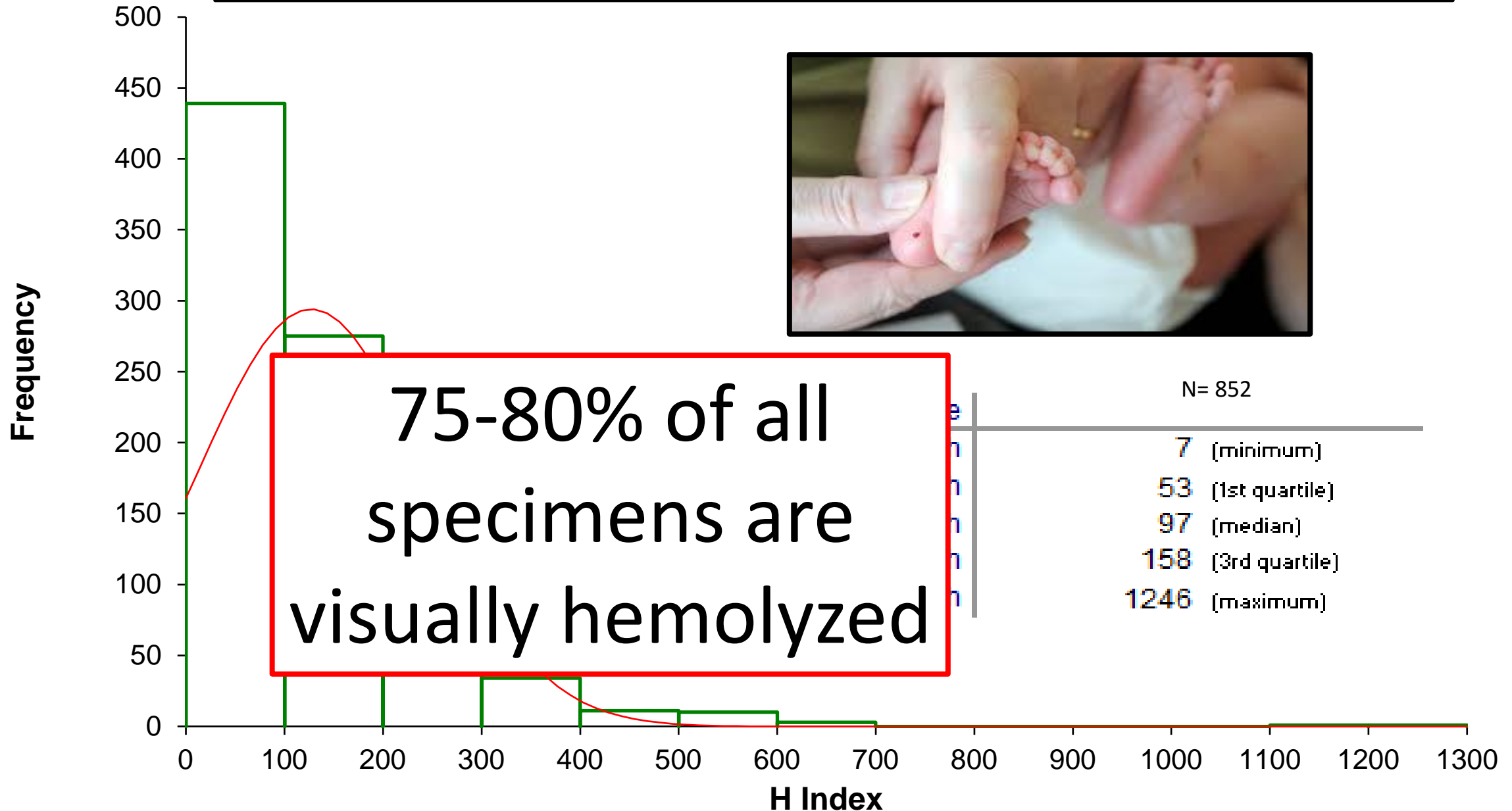
1.6% in a Medical Ward



Distribution of H Index (NICU, Well Baby Nursery)



Distribution of H Index (NICU, Well Baby Nursery)



Will hemolysis affect clinical lab
test results?

Effect of Hemolysis of Blood Gases and Electrolytes



pH (-.2%); *pO₂ (-4.9%); sO₂ (-4.9%); COHb (-11%); *Ca²⁺ (-7%)
*pCO₂ (+4.1%); HCO³⁻ (+1.4%); *K⁺ (+152%)

* Clinically Meaningful Bias

Clinical Lab Tests that are Influenced by Hemolysis

Degree of change in analyte	Test result increased by hemolysis	Test result decreased by hemolysis	Test result increased or decreased by hemolysis
Slight change	Phosphate, Total Protein, Albumin, Magnesium, Calcium, Alkaline Phosphatase (ALP)	Haptoglobin, Bilirubin	
Noticeable change	ALT, CK, Iron, Coagulation tests	Thyroxine (T4)	
Significant change	Potassium (K+), Lactate Dehydrogenase (LD), AST	Troponin T	HGB, RBC, MCHC, Platelet Count



Objective #3

- To discuss pre-analytical errors associated with capillary specimen collection
 - Hemolysis
 - Clotted specimens

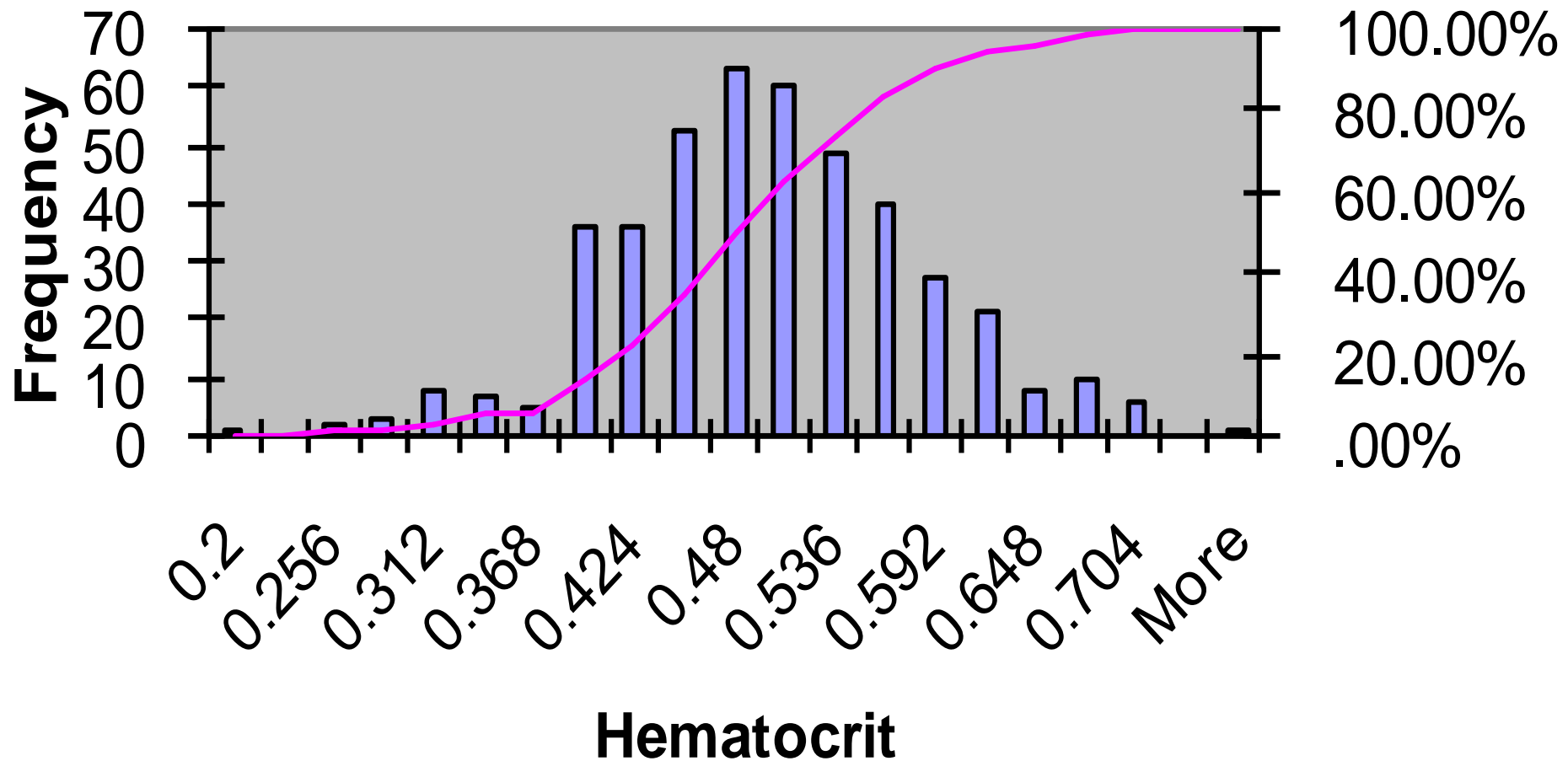


Sample Handling



- Mixing necessary to dissolve heparin
- Necessary to achieve uniform distribution of RBCs
 - Hemoglobin measurement

Hematocrit in 434 In-patients <7d, October 2007, RRL



Effects of Blood Clots on Electrochemical Sensors in Systems for Critical Care and Point-of-Care Testing.

P. D'Orazio, M. Erdosy, J. Cervera, S. Mansouri, H. Visnick, L. Boone
Instrumentation Laboratory, Lexington, MA

Abstract

Systems for whole blood analysis in critical care and point-of-care (POC) settings are frequently affected by the presence of blood clots in the sample. Partially coagulated blood may result from pre-analytical error or certain pathophysiological conditions. Miniaturized sensors and fluidic pathways, especially in systems for POC testing, increase the likelihood of trapping blood clots on sensors and interfering with sample analysis, often without knowledge of the user. The GEM® Premier™ 3000 critical care analyzer (Instrumentation Laboratory) measures pH, PCO_2 , PO_2 , Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{++} , glucose, lactate and hematocrit in 150 mL of whole blood. Electrochemical sensors are incorporated in a disposable measurement cartridge for analysis of 75, 150, 300, 450 or 600 samples over a three-week period. Recently, Intelligent Quality Management (iQM™) has been added to the system. iQM is an active, real-time, quality-control system which includes checks for the presence of blood clots on sensors using failure-pattern recognition. Upon detecting a blood clot on a sensor, the system automatically begins corrective action, including vigorous rinsing of the sensor surface. If the clot is not immediately removed, the sensor becomes disabled and results for that channel suppressed until the system verifies removal of the clot. To demonstrate the importance of iQM in flagging errors due to clots, we evaluated the magnitude of errors produced by clots on sensors for blood gases, pH, and electrolytes. Clots were purposely formed by adding thrombogenic compounds to blood samples collected from healthy volunteers. Samples were analyzed on several GEM Premier 3000 instruments with iQM until a particular sensor was disabled. Then, blood samples without clots were analyzed both on the system with the disabled sensor and on a control system. Raw signals from the disabled sensor were retrieved and used to calculate what the reported result would have been, had the sensor not been disabled and the result reported while a clot was present on the sensor. Bias was calculated by comparison to the control instrument, and measured against total allowable error using CLIA 88 limits. The sensors with the largest clot-related errors were pH,

PCO_2 and PO_2 . For pH, 50% of the samples (range: 7.0 – 7.4); for PCO_2 , 59% of the samples (range: 25 – 106 mmHg); and for PO_2 , 89% of the samples (range: 26 – 46 mmHg) exceeded the allowable error. In the case of PCO_2 and PO_2 , the magnitude and direction of the error indicate that the presence of clots interferes with diffusion of analyte across the outer sensor membrane, resulting in sluggish response. For pH, the direction and magnitude of the error are more complex. The presence of a clot not only causes sluggish response, but also appears to shift the local pH at the sensor in the alkaline direction. We conclude that the iQM system for the GEM Premier 3000 is effective in avoiding erroneous results due to the presence of blood clots on sensors, especially for pH and blood gases, the most important critical care analytes.

Introduction

Systems for whole blood analysis in critical care and POC settings are affected by the presence of blood clots in samples. Many traditional laboratory-based systems for critical-care analysis have built-in “clot catchers” to prevent clots from entering the systems fluidics. Clots which are not stopped by the clot catcher, or if a clot catcher is not present, may block fluidic lines and disable the system. The result is system down-time while the lines are removed and cleared by the user. Clots which are stopped by the clot catcher also result in increased maintenance while the clot catcher is replaced or cleaned. Miniaturized sensors and fluidics in unit-use and multi-use, cartridge-based systems for POC applications are particularly problematic in the presence of clots because often no user-performed maintenance is possible. If a clot causes cartridge fluidic problems, the cartridge must be discarded and replaced, a time-consuming and costly process. In addition to increased maintenance, system down-time, and expense, there is risk of incorrect reporting of analytical results if a clot becomes trapped on the surface of a sensor and the system has no mechanism for detecting or removing the clot. In this case, the clot may interfere with normal functioning of the sensor and the system may continue to report incorrect results

Clots may block the sample pathway of blood gas analyzers

Examined the magnitude of errors produced by clots on sensors for blood gases, pH and electrolytes

Sensors with largest clot related errors

- pH (50%)
- pCO_2 (59%)
- pO_2 (89%)

Exceeded total allowable error using CLIA 88 limits

Magnitude & direction of the error with pCO_2 & pO_2 showed that clots interfere with the diffusion of analyte across the outer sensor membrane (sluggish response)

NICU and PICU Cancellations



- 181,498 INR test orders (Saskatoon Health Region)
- 8,158 cancellations (4.5%)
- NICU - 313 INR test orders; 34 cancelled (10.9%)
- PICU – 657 INR test orders; 41 cancelled (6.2%)

Specimen collection issues
(hemolysis, clotted and NSQ)

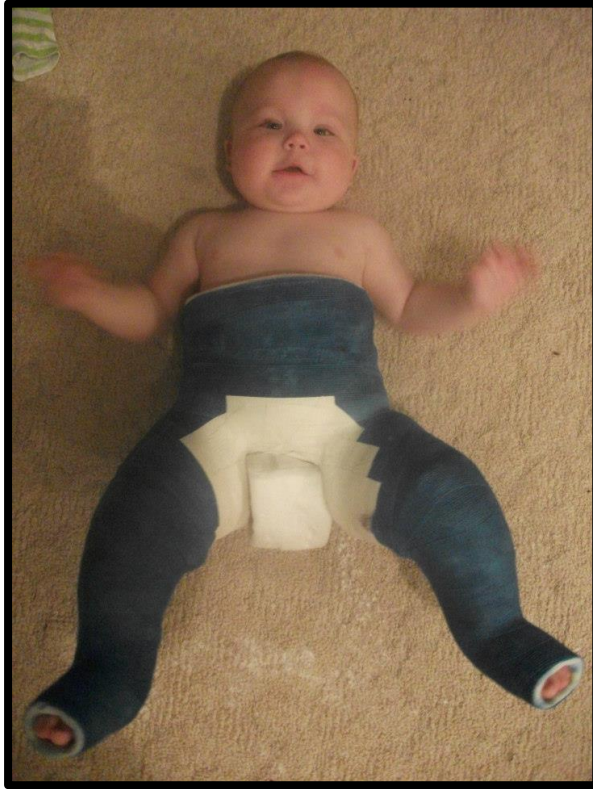
- NICU - 23/34 (67.6%)
- PICU - 29/41 (70.7%)

Objective 3 Conclusion

Pre-analytical errors such as hemolysis and clotting and represent significant challenges for the successful collection and transport for capillary blood specimens.



Capillary Collection Conundrum



Hip dysplasia
Osteogenesis Imperfecta



Internal Debate



Conclusions

- CLSI and WHO guidelines for the collection of capillary blood specimens describe general procedures involved with obtaining capillary specimens
- Significant (clinically) variation may exist in analyte concentrations between arterial, capillary and venous specimens.
- To assist with clinical interpretation of results obtained using a capillary specimen, reference intervals specific for capillary blood specimens are advisable.

Conclusions

- Pre-analytical errors such as hemolysis and clotting represent significant challenges for the successful collection and transport for capillary blood specimens.



**Thank you
for your
time!**

**Any
Questions?**