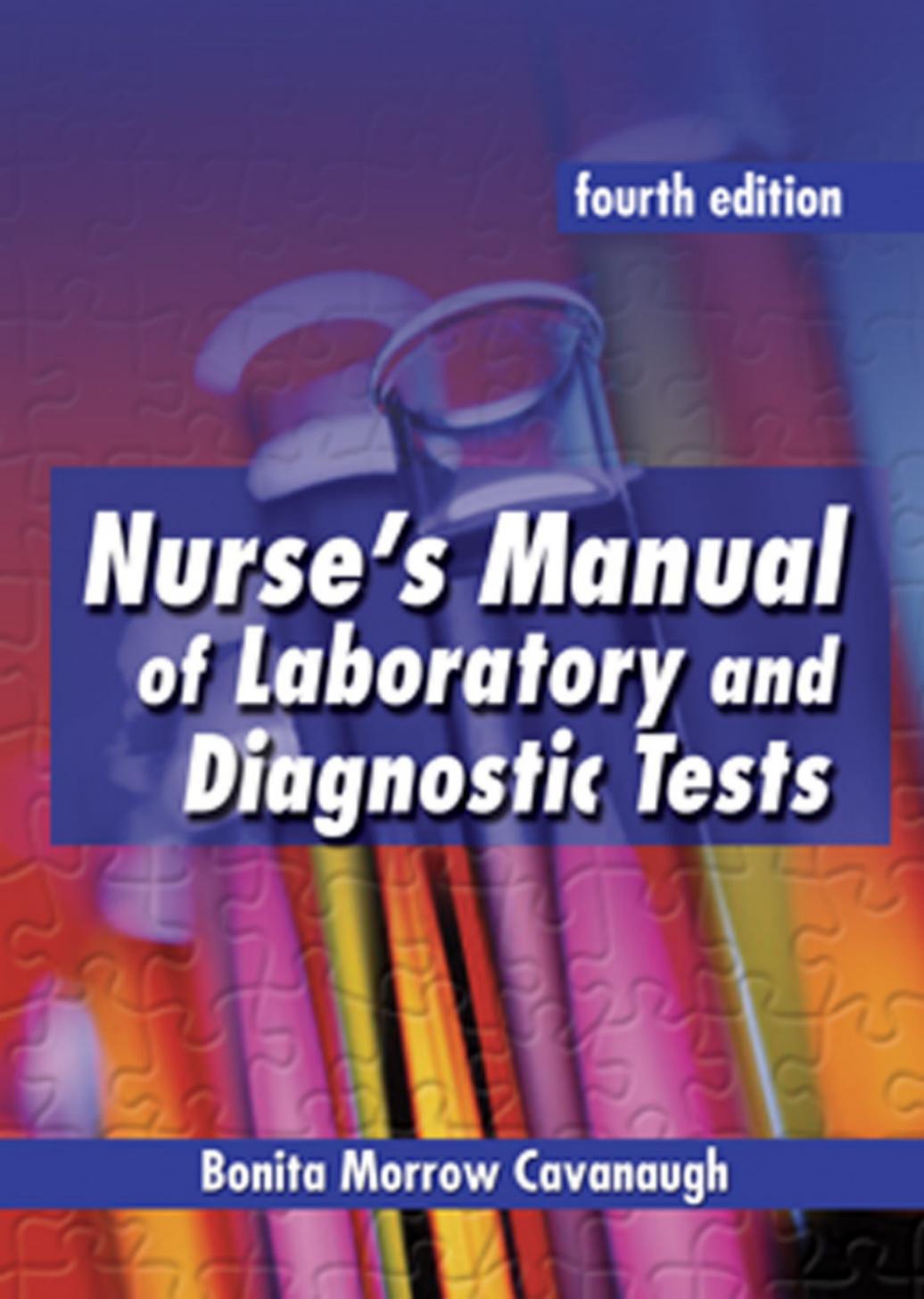


fourth edition



***Nurse's Manual
of Laboratory and
Diagnostic Tests***

Bonita Morrow Cavanaugh

Nurse's Manual of Laboratory and Diagnostic Tests

EDITION



Bonita Morrow Cavanaugh, PhD, RN

Clinical Nurse Specialist
Nursing Education
The Children's Hospital
Denver, Colorado

Clinical Faculty
University of Colorado
Health Sciences Center
School of Nursing
Denver, Colorado

Affiliate Professor
University of Northern Colorado
School of Nursing
Greeley, Colorado



F.A. Davis Company • Philadelphia

F. A. Davis Company
1915 Arch Street
Philadelphia, PA 19103
www.fadavis.com

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To Laurie O'Neil Good, the finest nurse I have ever known.

Love,
Bonnie



Preface

This book is designed to provide both students and practitioners of nursing with the information they need to care for individuals undergoing laboratory and diagnostic tests and procedures. The content is presented as a guiding reference for planning care, providing specific interventions, and evaluating outcomes of nursing care.

In this edition, the background information and description of the test or procedure are followed directly by the clinical applications data, starting with reference values, for each test or group of tests.

The introductory sections include the anatomic, physiological, and pathophysiological content necessary for a thorough understanding of the purpose of and indications for specific tests and procedures. The inclusion of this information makes this book unlike many other references on this subject matter. This feature enhances the integration of basic science knowledge with an understanding of and application to diagnostic testing. This is extremely helpful for nursing students in developing critical thinking and clinical judgment.

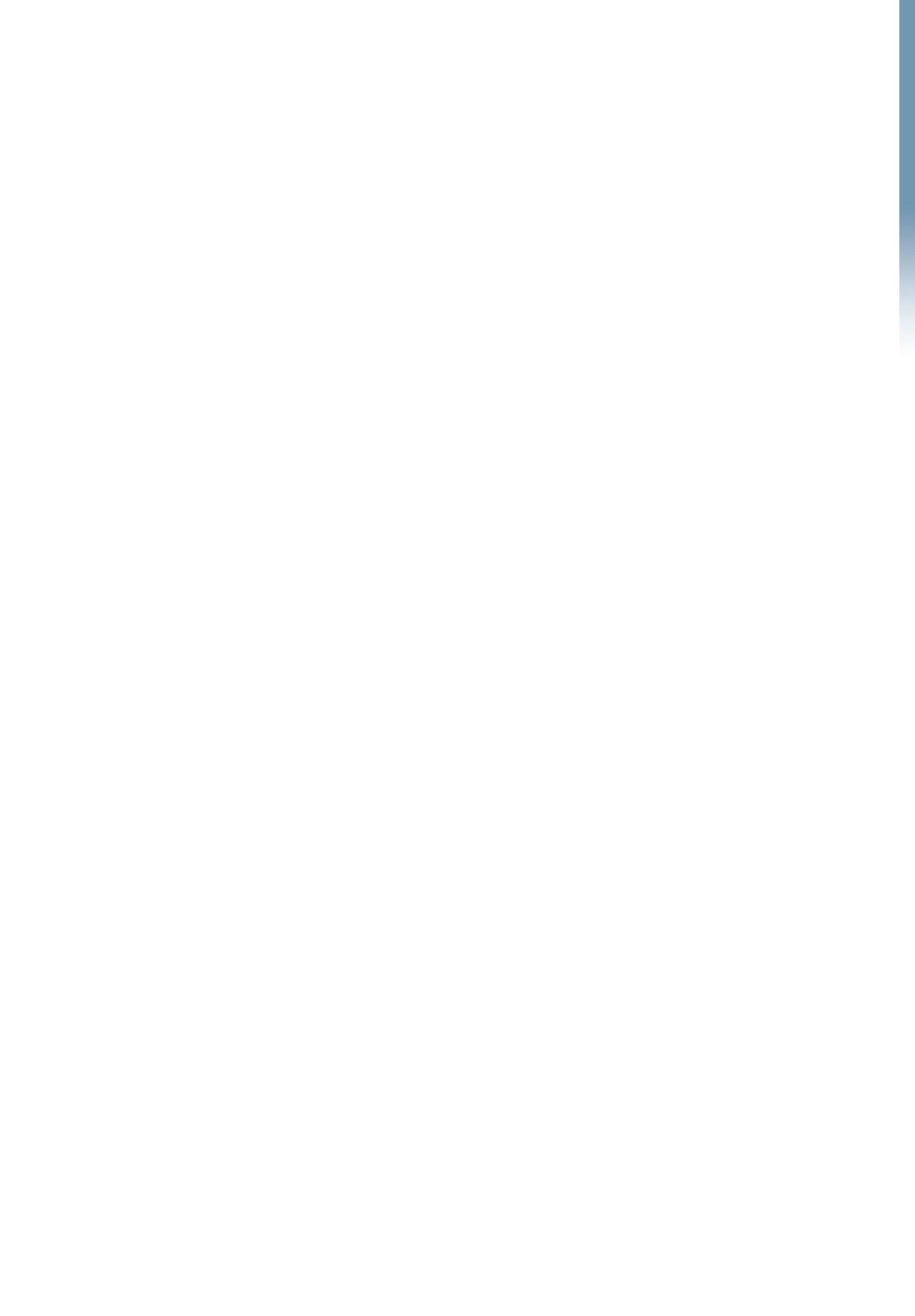
For each test or study within the respective sections, reference values, including variations related to age or gender, are provided. Critical values, where appropriate, are highlighted. Both conventional units and international units are provided. Readers are encouraged to be aware of some variation in laboratory values from agency to agency.

For all tests, interfering factors are noted where appropriate. Contraindications and Nursing Alerts are included to provide information crucial to safe and reliable testing and nursing care.

Other features of this manual that contribute to its practical use are presentation of detailed content in tabular format when appropriate and the use of appendices to provide essential information applicable to most, if not all, tests and procedures.

Every effort has been made to include tests and procedures currently in use in practice settings. It is recognized that newer tests and procedures may have become available after this manuscript was prepared. Readers are encouraged to keep abreast of current literature and consult with laboratories and agencies in their area for new developments in the field of diagnostic tests.

BONITA MORROW CAVANAUGH



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B.M.C.



Consultants

Janice Brownlee, BScN, MAEd

Professor
Canadore College of Applied Arts and
Technology
North Bay, Ontario, Canada

Marie Colucci, BS, MS, EdD

Associate Professor
Riverside Community College
Riverside, California

Mary Jo Goolsby, MSN, ARNP, EdD

Instructor
Florida State University
Tallahassee, Florida

Shelby Hawk, RN, MSN

Instructor
Mid Michigan Community College
Harrison, Michigan

Priscilla Innocent, RN, MSN

Associate Professor
Indiana Wesleyan University
Marion, Indiana

Dr. Fran Keen, RN, DNSc

Associate Professor
University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

Dolores Philpot, BSMT, AND, MSN

Instructor
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee

Sylvan L. Settle, RN

Vocational Teacher
Tennessee Technology Center
Memphis, Tennessee

Joyce Taylor, RN, MSN, DSN, BA

Associate Professor
Henderson State University
Arkadelphia, Arkansas

Shelley M. Tiffin, ART (CSMLS), BMLSc

Bachelor of Medical Laboratory Science
Program
Department of Pathology and Laboratory
Medicine
University of British Columbia
Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada

Donna Yancey, BSN, MSN, DNS

Assistant Professor
Purdue University
West Lafayette, Indiana

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SECTION



Laboratory Tests

Hematology and Tests of Hematopoietic Function

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INTRODUCTION Blood constitutes 6 to 8 percent of total body weight. In terms of volume, women have 4.5 to 5.5 L of blood and men 5 to 6 L. In infants and children, blood volume is 50 to 75 mL/kg in girls and 52 to 83 mL/kg in boys. The principal functions of blood are the transport of oxygen, nutrients, and hormones to all tissues and the removal of metabolic wastes to the organs of excretion. Additional functions of blood are (1) regulation of temperature by transfer of heat to the skin for dissipation by radiation and convection, (2) regulation of the pH of body fluids through the buffer systems and facilitation of excretion of acids and bases, and (3) defense against infection by transportation of antibodies and other substances as needed.

Blood consists of a fluid portion, called plasma, and a solid portion that includes red blood cells (erythrocytes), white blood cells (leukocytes), and platelets (thrombocytes). Plasma makes up 45 to 60 percent of blood volume and is composed of water (90 percent), amino acids, proteins, carbohydrates, lipids, vitamins, hormones, electrolytes, and cellular wastes.¹ Of the “solid” or cellular portion of the blood, more than 99 percent consists of red blood cells. Leukocytes and thrombocytes, although functionally essential, occupy a relatively small portion of the total blood cell mass.²

Erythrocytes remain within the blood throughout their normal life span of 120 days, transporting oxygen in the hemoglobin component and carrying away carbon dioxide. Leukocytes, while they are in the blood, are merely in transit, because they perform their functions in body tissue. Platelets exert their effects at the walls of blood vessels, performing no known function in the bloodstream itself.³

Hematology is traditionally limited to the study of the cellular elements of the blood, the production of these elements, and the physiological derangements that affect their functions. Hematologists also are concerned with blood volume, the flow properties of blood, and the physical relationships of red cells and plasma. The numerous substances dissolved or suspended in plasma fall within the province of other laboratory disciplines.⁴

HEMATOPOIESIS

Hematopoiesis is the process of blood cell formation. In normal, healthy adults, blood cells are manufactured in the red marrow of relatively few bones, notably the sternum, ribs, vertebral bodies, pelvic bones, and proximal portions of the humerus and the femur. This production is in contrast to that taking place in the embryo, in which blood cells are derived from the yolk sac mesenchyme. As the fetus develops, the liver, the spleen, and the marrow cavities of nearly all bones become active hematopoietic sites (Fig. 1–1). In the newborn, hematopoiesis occurs primarily in the red marrow, which is found in most bones at that stage of development. Beginning at about age 5 years, the red marrow is gradually replaced by yellowish fat-storage cells (yellow marrow), which are inactive in the hematopoietic process. By adulthood, blood cell production normally occurs in only those bones that retain red marrow activity.⁵

Adult reticuloendothelial cells retain the potential for hematopoiesis, although in the healthy state reserve sites are not activated. Under conditions of hematopoietic stress in later life, the liver, the spleen, and an expanded bone marrow may resume the production of blood cells.

All blood cells are believed to be derived from the pluripotential stem cell,⁶ an immature cell with the

capability of becoming an erythrocyte, a leukocyte, or a thrombocyte. In the adult, stem cells in hematopoietic sites undergo a series of divisions and maturational changes to form the mature cells found in the blood (Fig. 1–2). As they achieve the “blast” stage, stem cells are committed to becoming a specific type of blood cell. This theory also explains the origin of the several types of white blood cells (neutrophils, monocytes, eosinophils, basophils, and lymphocytes). As the cells mature, they lose their ability to reproduce and cannot further divide to replace themselves. Thus, there is a need for continuous hematopoietic activity to replenish worn-out or damaged blood cells.

Erythropoiesis, the production of red blood cells (RBCs), and *leukopoiesis*, the production of white blood cells (WBCs), are components of the hematopoietic process. Erythropoiesis maintains a population of approximately 25×10^{12} circulating RBCs, or an average of 5 million erythrocytes per cubic millimeter of blood. The production rate is about 2 million cells per second, or 35 trillion cells per day. With maximum stimulation, this rate can be increased sixfold to eightfold, or one volume per day equivalent to the cells contained in 0.5 pt of whole blood.

The level of tissue oxygenation regulates the production of RBCs; that is, erythropoiesis occurs in response to tissue hypoxia. Hypoxia does not,

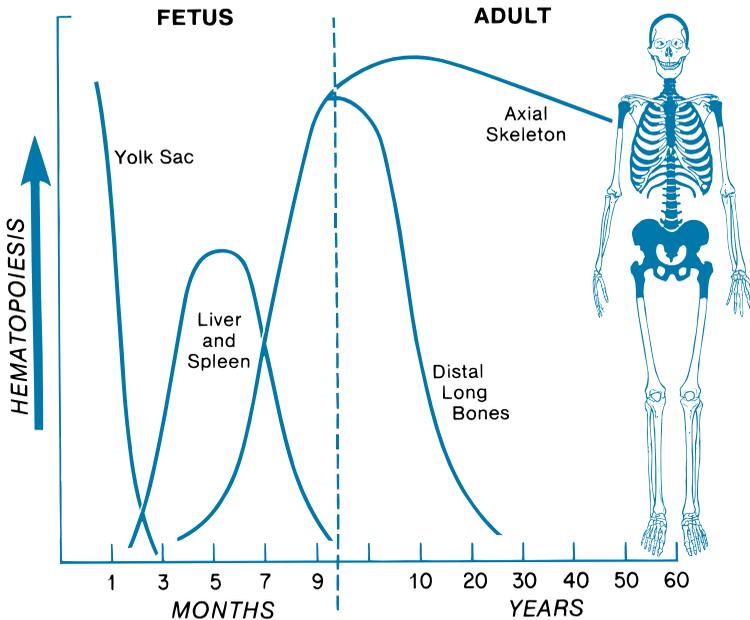


Figure 1–1. Location of active marrow growth in the fetus and adult. (From Hillman, RS, and Finch, CA: Red Cell Manual, ed 7. FA Davis, Philadelphia, 1996, p 2, with permission.)

however, directly stimulate the bone marrow. Instead, RBC production occurs in response to *erythropoietin*, precursors of which are found primarily in the kidney and to a lesser extent in the liver. When the renal oxygen level falls, an enzyme, renal erythropoietic factor, is secreted. This enzyme reacts with a plasma protein to form erythropoietin, which subsequently stimulates the bone marrow to produce more RBCs. Specifically, erythropoietin (1) accelerates production, differentiation, and maturation

of erythrocytes; (2) reduces the time required for cells to enter the circulation, thereby increasing the number of circulating immature erythrocytes such as reticulocytes (see Fig. 1–2); and (3) facilitates the incorporation of iron into RBCs. When the number of produced erythrocytes meets the body's tissue oxygenation needs, erythropoietin release and RBC production are reduced. Table 1–1 lists causes of tissue hypoxia that may stimulate the release of erythropoietin.

TABLE 1-1 • Causes of Tissue Hypoxia That May Stimulate Erythropoietin Release

Acute blood loss
Impaired oxygen–carbon dioxide exchange in the lungs
Low hemoglobin levels
Impaired binding of oxygen to hemoglobin
Impaired release of oxygen from hemoglobin
Excessive hemolysis of erythrocytes due to hypersplenism or hemolytic disorders of antibody, bacterial, or chemical origin
Certain anemias in which abnormal red blood cells are produced (e.g., hereditary spherocytosis)
Compromised blood flow to the kidneys