

CLINICAL BIOCHEMISTRY PRINCIPLES AND METHODS

Editors
H.Ch.Curtius
and Marc Roth

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Editors:

HANS-CHRISTOPH CURTIUS, Ph. D.

Dozent in Clinical Chemistry at the University of Zürich; Head, Division of Clinical Chemistry, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich.

MARC ROTH, Ph. D.

Docent in Clinical Chemistry at the University of Geneva; Director, Central Laboratory of Clinical Chemistry, Cantonal Hospital, Geneva.

Two volumes with 177 tables, 362 figures, 3 colored plates and 4463 references.

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Abbreviations

A	absorbance	I	ionic strength
Ac	acetyl-	i. d.	internal diameter
a. c.	alternating current	i. r.	infrared
a. m.	ante meridiem	K_m	Michaelis constant
ad lib.	ad libitum	L	configurational prefix
ADP	adenosine diphosphate	LAP	leucine amino peptidase
AMP	adenosine monophosphate	M^+	molecular ion
amu	atomic mass unit	<i>m</i> -	meta-
approx.	approximately	Me	methyl-
A_r or at. wt.	(relative) atomic weight	M_r or mol. wt.	relative molecular weight
atm	atmosphere	MS	mass spectrometry
ATP	adenosine triphosphate	m. p.	melting point
b. p.	boiling point	N, n	number
c	concentration	NAD, NADH	nicotine adenine dinucleotide (oxidized, resp. reduced form)
ca	circa	NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
cat. no	catalogue number	o-	ortho-
CM	carboxymethyl	p-	para-
conc.	concentration, concentrated	p. a.	pro analysi
c. p. m.	counts/min	p. m.	post meridiem
CSF	cerebrospinal fluid	p. p. m.	parts per million
<i>d</i>	relative density	Pi	inorganic phosphate
D	configurational prefix	POPOP, PPO	see chapter III B 1
d. c.	direct current	PTFE	poly(tetrafluoroethylene)
DEAE	diethylaminoethyl	PVC	polyvinyl chloride
dis.	disintegration	Ref.	reference
d. f.	degree of freedom	rev./min	revolutions per minute
DNP	2,4-dinitrophenyl-	R_f	ratio to front
d. p. m. or dis/min	disintegrations/min	R_t	retention time
DOC	deoxycorticosterone	S. D. or s	standard deviation
E_o	electrode potential, standard	S. E. M.	standard error of the mean
EC	Enzyme Code Number	S_f	flotation rate (in Svedberg units)
ECTEOLA	epichlorhydrin triethanol- amine	S_r	relative standard deviation (= coefficient of variation)
EDTA	ethylene diamine tetracetate	syn.	synonym
EI	electron impact	<i>t</i>	time
eV	electron volt	TLC	thin-layer chromatography
fructose 6-P	fructose 6-phosphate	TRIS, tris	tris-hydroxymethyl- aminomethane
<i>g</i>	acceleration of free fall	U	unit
GC	gas chromatography	u. v.	ultraviolet
GLC	gas-liquid chromatography	UDPG	uridine diphosphoglucose
glucose 6-P	glucose 6-phosphate	USP	United States Pharmacopoeia
Hb	hemoglobin	v/v	by volume
HV	high voltage	vol.	volume
		wt.	weight

Preface

In the evolution of medicine, a remarkable feature is the progressive influence of experimental sciences, in particular biochemistry and molecular biology. Function and malfunction of the human organism are for an important part determined by biochemical phenomena, and the interpretation of illness is greatly aided by data supplied by the laboratory.

Clinical biochemistry, which was formerly included as a minor branch in such fields as physiological chemistry or pathology, has experienced an enormous growth in the past 20 years. Its scope lies essentially in the analysis of chemical compounds in human fluids and tissues, for the purpose of aiding in the prevention, diagnosis and treatment of disease.

At present, one can distinguish between two main groups of compounds being submitted to analysis. The first includes substances such as glucose, urea, creatinine, total protein, cholesterol, sodium, calcium and amino-transferases. Variations in their blood level reflect a consequence rather than a cause of disease. Many of them occur in concentrations superior to 0.1 mmol/l and can be assayed by relatively simple methods.

The development of suitable automatic equipment permits their analysis in large series.

Another group consists of substances intimately connected with the cause of an illness: hormones, vitamins, and often enzymes or other proteins. For example, the determination of the activity, in liver tissue, of an enzyme whose lack indicates an inherited metabolic disorder, or the estimation of a steroid hormone in a disturbance of its biosynthesis, can permit a direct insight into the state of the illness and, in addition, perhaps assist in explaining unknown metabolic processes. Such determinations are often of greater complexity, because minute amounts of substance (sometimes inferior to the nanomole) have to be specifically determined. High-precision instrumentation for physicochemical and biochemical analysis as well as qualified scientific personnel are required to solve the most difficult analytical problems.

Whether an assay is simple to perform or not, to scrupulously follow the instructions of a published technique and to employ a good instrument is not sufficient to warrant satisfactory results; in addition, the operator should be aware of the principles of the method he uses and be capable

of discerning sources of error. It is one of the aims of this book to provide the necessary information for a good understanding of the principles governing analytical procedures.

Good practice of clinical chemistry also requires an awareness of the diagnostic and therapeutic problems for the solution of which the clinician needs laboratory results. The size of this book has precluded a detailed discussion of this important aspect, but clinical commentaries and relevant literature references have been included whenever possible.

This book is written by authors representing various kinds of qualifications: chemists, biochemists, physicians, physicists and others. This variety just reflects what makes clinical biochemistry such a stimulating field, for diversity excludes dogmatism, favours exchange of ideas and promotes scientific progress. We hope that this work will prove useful to the many people who either work in the laboratory or depend on some way on its results. In addition, we feel that the subject coverage is such that it should offer a valuable help for the teaching in clinical chemistry.

It is of course not possible, in a book of this size, to present a detailed and complete description of all the recommended methods. One has often just cited easily available texts on techniques of well-known reliability, preferring to put more emphasis on newer techniques and areas on which little had been written hitherto. It was also almost unavoidable that some excellent methods escaped our attention, or were not mentioned because of lack of space. We kindly ask their authors for indulgence.

We owe our thanks to the authors who gave so much of their precious time to contribute to this work, to Drs. Brewer and Scott who translated some of the manuscripts, to our secretaries, Miss Loosen, Miss Raatikainen and Mrs. Zollet, for their excellent assistance, and to the publishers for their encouraging support.

Zürich and Geneva, Spring 1974

H.-CH. CURTIUS
MARC ROTH

Index of Contributors

- AAKVAAG, ASBJORN, M. D., Hormone and Isotope Laboratory, Aker Hospital, N-Oslo 5/Norway
- ANDERSON, NORMAN G., Ph. D., Molecular Anatomy Program, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37830/USA
- AURICCHIO, SALVATORE, M. D., Clinica Pediatrica, 2^o Facoltà di Medicina dell'Università, Via Pansini 5, I-80131 Napoli/Italy
- BEZZEGH, THOMAS, Ph. D., Kanton Thurgau Medical Center, CH-8596 Münsterlingen/Switzerland
- BIERENS DE HAAN, JACK E., Ph. D., Laboratoire Riotton SA, 16 Bd des Tranchées. CH-1206 Geneva/Switzerland
- BOHUON, CLAUDE J., Ph. D., Laboratory of Clinical Biology, Institut G. Roussey, F-94 Villejuif/France
- BORGSTRÖM, BENGT, M. D., University of Lund, Chemical Center, Box 740, S-22007 Lund/Sweden
- BRADY, ROSCOE O., M. D., Developmental and Metabolic Neurology Branch, National Institute of Neurological Diseases and Stroke, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland 20014/USA
- BRANDENBERGER, HANS, Ph. D., Chemical Department, Institute of Forensic Medicine, Zürichbergstr. 8, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland
- BREUER, H., Dr. rer. nat., Institut für Klinische Biochemie der Universität, D-53 Bonn 1, Venusberg/West Germany
- BRUBACHER, GEORG, Ph. D., Department of Vitamin and Nutritional Research, F. Hoffmann-La Roche & Co. Limited Company, CH-4002 Basle/Switzerland
- BURGER, ALBERT, M. D., Laboratoire d'Investigation Clinique, Hôpital Cantonal Universitaire, CH-1211 Geneva 4/Switzerland
- BURTIS, CARL A., Ph. D., Molecular Anatomy Program, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37830/USA
- CERIOTTI, GIOVANNI, M. D., Laboratorio Centrale, Ospedale Civile, I-35100 Padova/Italy
- CLERC, THOMAS J., Dr. sc. techn. Laboratorium für Organische Chemie, Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule, CH-8006 Zürich/Switzerland
- COMAR, DOMINIQUE, Dr. pharm., Service hospitalier Frédéric Joliot, Département de Biologie, C. E. A. Saclay BP 2, Gif sur Yvette/France
- CURTIS, HANS CHRISTOPH, Ph. D., Division of Clinical Chemistry, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland

- DEGENHART, HERMAN J., Ph. D., Department of Pediatrics, Erasmus University and Academic Hospital Rotterdam, Sophia Children's Hospital and Neonatal Unit, Gordelweg 160, Rotterdam/The Netherlands
- DETERMANN, HELMUT, Dr. rer. nat., Boehringer Mannheim GmbH, Biochemica Werk Tutzing, D-8132 Tutzing/West Germany
- DOSS, MANFRED O., M. D., Division of Clinical Biochemistry, Faculty of Medicine of the Philipps University, D-3550 Marburg a. d. Lahn/West Germany
- DUCKERT, FRANCOIS H., Ph. D., Laboratory of Coagulation and Fibrinolysis, Kantonsspital, CH-4004 Basle/Switzerland
- FELBER, JEAN-PIERRE, M. D., Division de Biochimie Clinique, Département de Médecine, Hôpital Cantonal Universitaire, CH-1011 Lausanne/Switzerland
- FREI, JÖRG, Ph. D., Laboratoire Central, Hôpital Cantonal Universitaire, CH-1011 Lausanne CHUV/Switzerland
- GERRITSEN, THEO, D. Sc., Waisman Center on Mental Retardation and Human Development, University of Wisconsin, Center for Health Sciences, Madison, Wisconsin 53706/USA
- GITZELMANN, RICHARD, M. D., Division of Metabolism, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland
- GREILING, HELMUT, M. D., Klinisch-Chemisches Zentrallaboratorium der Rhein.-Westf. Techn. Hochschule, Goethestr. 27/29, D-51Aachen/West Germany
- HEALY, MICHAEL J. R., B. A., Division of Computing and Statistics Clinical Research Centre, Watford Road, Harrow, Middlesex HA1 3 UJ/United Kingdom
- HERBERT, VICTOR D., M. D., J. D., Department of Pathology, Columbia University College of Physicians and Surgeons, New York City, and Department of Medicine, Veterans Administration Hospital, Bronx, New York City, New York 10468/USA
- HITZIG, Walter H., M. D., Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland
- HUCHO, FERDINAND, Dr. rer. nat., Fachbereich Biologie, Universität Konstanz, Postfach 733, D-775 Konstanz/West Germany
- HUIJING, FRANS, Ph. D., Department of Biochemistry, University of Miami, School of Medicine, Miami, Florida 33152/USA
- HULTMAN, ERIC, M. D., Department of Clinical Chemistry, Beckomberga Hospital, S-161 04 Bromma/Sweden
- ILLIG, RUTH, M. D., Radioimmunoassay Laboratory, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland

JAKO, JANOS, M.D., Postgraduate Medical School, 1st Department of Medicine, Budapest/Hungary

KESNER, LEO, Ph. D., Department of Biochemistry, State University of New York, Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn, New York 11203/USA

KING, J., Biochemistry Department/Royal Infirmary, Glasgow, G 4 OSF, Scotland

KING, T. P., The Rockefeller University, New York, N.Y. 10021/USA

KODICEK, E., C. B. E., M. D., Ph. D., F. I. Biol., F. R. S., Strangeways Research Laboratory, Wort's Causeway, Cambridge CB 1 4 RN/United Kingdom

LAWSON, D. E. M., Ph. D., Dunn Nutritional Laboratory, University of Cambridge and Medical Research Council, Milton Road, Cambridge CB 4 1 XJ/United Kingdom

LAWSON, ALEXANDER M., Ph. D., Division of Clinical Chemistry, Clinical Research Centre, Harrow, Middlesex HA 1 3 UJ/United Kingdom

LEUMANN, ERNST P., M. D., Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland

LEVIN, KLAS, M. D., Klin. kem. Central-laboratorium, Centrallasarettet, S-721 89 Västerås/Sweden

MAGRINI, GINO, Chem. Ing., Division de Biochimie Clinique, Département de Médecine, Hôpital Cantonal Universitaire, CH-1011 Lausanne/Switzerland

MANGOLD, HELMUT K., Dr. rer. nat., Bundesanstalt für Fettforschung, D-44 Münster (Westf.)/West Germany

MARTHALER, THOMAS M., M.D., Biostatistical Center of the Medical Faculty, University of Zürich, Plattenstraße 54, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland

MAYER, DIETER, Dr. rer. nat., Institut für Klinische Biochemie und Physiologische Chemie der Medizinischen Hochschule Hannover, Karl-Wiechert Allee 9, D-3000 Hannover/West Germany

MITCHELL, FREDERICK L., D. Sc.; Ph. D., F. R. I. C., F. R. C. Path., Division of Clinical Chemistry, Clinical Research Centre, Watford Road, Harrow, Middlesex HA 1 3UJ/United Kingdom

NIEDERWIESER, ALI, Dr. phil. II, Division of Clinical Chemistry, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland

NOCKE-FINCK, LIESELOTTE, M. D., Institut für Klinische Biochemie der Universität, D-53 Bonn 1, Venusberg/West Germany

PRETSCH, ERNÖ, Dr. sc. techn., Laboratorium für Organische Chemie, Eidgenössische Technische Hochschule, CH-8006 Zürich/Switzerland

- REITSMA, WEPKO D., M. D., Division of Clinical Endocrinology, Department of Internal Medicine, University Hospital, Groningen/The Netherlands
- RIEDER, HANS PETER, Ph. D., Forschungslaboratorium, Neurologische Universitätsklinik, CH-4051 Basle/Switzerland
- RISPENS, PIETER, M. D., Ph. D., Laboratory of Chemical Physiology, University of Groningen, Bloemsingel 1, Groningen/The Netherlands
- ROTH, Marc, Ph. D., Laboratoire Central, Hôpital Cantonal Universitaire, CH-1211 Geneva 4/Switzerland
- RUBINO, ARMIDO, M. D., Cattedra di Puericultura, 2^a Facoltà di Medicina dell'Università, Via Pansini 5, I-80131 Napoli/Italy
- SUND, HORST, Dr. rer. nat., Fachbereich Biologie, Universität Konstanz, Postfach 733, D-775 Konstanz/West Germany
- SCHRÖTER, WERNER, M. D., Universitäts-Kinderklinik, Humboldtallee 38, D-34 Göttingen/West Germany
- VERMEULEN, ALEX, M. D., Department of Internal Medicine, Section of Endocrinology, Akademisch Ziekenhuis, De Pintelaan 135, B-9000 Ghent/Belgium
- VÖLLMIN†, JÜRG ANDREAS, Ph. D., Division of Clinical Chemistry, Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland
- VUILLEUMIER, JEAN PAUL, Ph. D., Department of Vitamin and Nutritional Research, F. Hoffmann-La Roche and Co. Limited Company, CH-4002 Basle/Switzerland
- WELLS, WILLIAM W., Ph. D., Department of Biochemistry, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824/USA
- WINTERHALTER, KASPAR H., M. D., Friedrich Miescher Institut, POB 273, CH-4002 Basle/Switzerland
- WOLDRING, MARTINUS G., Ph. D., Central Isotope Laboratory, University Hospital, Groningen/The Netherlands
- ZACHMANN, MILO, M. D., Department of Pediatrics, University of Zürich, Kinderspital, CH-8032 Zürich/Switzerland
- VAN ZANTEN, ANNIE K., Central Isotope Laboratory, University Hospital, Groningen/The Netherlands
- ZIJLSTRA, WILLEM G., M. D., Ph. D., Laboratory of Chemical Physiology, University of Groningen, Bloemsingel 1, Groningen/The Netherlands

Quantities and Units

M. ROTH

The present development of science is marked by growing coherence among its multiple subdivisions. As knowledge increases, phenomena which were formerly considered to be entirely unrelated can be linked together by causal relationships. The understanding of physiology and medicine requires a knowledge of the more basic sciences like physics and biochemistry. This interdependence makes the development of a common way of expressing concepts and quantities highly desirable, and probably unavoidable.

Clinical chemistry is in special position since it forms a link between biochemistry and clinical medicine. It is understandable that clinical chemists be especially concerned with the replacement of the arbitrary modes of expression in clinical medicine with rational ones from the logical and unambiguous language of the basic sciences.

In the last century, the results delivered by the medical laboratory were mostly qualitative, but they are now mainly quantitative. Unfortunately, the quantities have hitherto been expressed in a multitude of units, depending on habits, methods and individuals.

Concentrations are the common form of presentation, but for such an important constituent as urea, for example, no less than five modes of expression are currently used: mg/100 ml, mg/l, mg urea nitrogen per 100 ml, mg urea nitrogen per l, mmol/l.

International bodies such as the international Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) and the International Standards Organization (ISO) have been concerned with the problem of standardization of units and issued recommendations which are generally accepted in the basic sciences. Two clinical chemists, R. Dybkaer and K. Jørgensen, have carefully studied to which extent these recommendations could eventually be followed to improve the chaotic situation prevailing in clinical chemistry. They wrote their conclusions in the form of the book "Quantities and Units in Clinical Chemistry" (1), the essentials of which have now been approved by the international Federation of Clinical Chemistry (IFCC) and the clinical chemistry section of IUPAC.

The readers of this book are encouraged to use the new system of quantities and units. It was unfortunately not possible to convert the

manuscripts in all respects to the system, so that non-coherent quantities and units will still be found in this edition. We wish, however, to present here the principal features of the recommended system, because we are convinced that its advantages will lead to its wide acceptance in the future. For more details the reader is referred to the literature (1-3).

A basic concept is that amounts of substances should be expressed in moles instead of mass units. Disease involves biochemical reactions, which themselves involve molecules. Many physiological and pathological processes become much clearer if they are explained in molecular terms. For example, the degradation of hemoglobin produces one mole each of CO, Fe and biliverdin per mole heme. One mole of bilirubin is firmly bound by one mole of albumin, whereas one mole transferrin binds two moles of iron.

While the mole was formerly employed only for molecules, the new system extends its use to other formula units such as atoms, ions, and electrons. This permits one, for example, to add the mole concentrations of the ions to those of the undissociated molecules contained in a solution to obtain the osmolar concentration of the solution.

Tab. 1 lists the factors to convert molar amounts into mass amounts, and vice-versa, for a number of substances.

Another feature is the definition of basic kinds of quantities and base units and of their coherent combined (derived) forms. Tab. 2 shows a number of such expressions which may be used in clinical chemistry. Units may be preceded by prefixes denoting decimal factors; these are restricted to powers of 10 with exponents which are integer multiples of 3 (Tab. 3). An expression such as mg% is no longer acceptable and should be appropriately converted to mg/l or, if possible, mol/l. The correct units for μ and $m\mu$ are μm and nm respectively.

Care should be taken to avoid ambiguous mathematical or fractional expressions. More than one solidus (/) should never be used in the same expression unless parentheses are used. Thus, $\text{mol}/\text{min}/\text{l}$ is ambiguous while $\text{mol}/(\text{min} \times \text{l})$ is correct.

On the inside cover, a number of abbreviations used in this book are listed. They have been made to agree whenever possible with the recommendations of the IUPAC and IUB-IUPAC nomenclature commissions. Other abbreviations specific to particular subjects are defined in the corresponding chapters. They are not necessarily consistent with a system.

Symbols for elements may be followed by a right subscript to indicate the number of atoms in the molecule or ion, and by a right superscript to

denote the state of ionization. Examples: Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , Ca^{2+} , O_2 . To specify a nuclide, the mass number is placed in the left superscript position. Example: ^{14}C . The atomic number may be placed in the left subscript position. Example: ^6_6C .

Standardization of scientific expressions is a difficult task, as inadequate traditions are difficult to eradicate, and scientists may have different opinions on what is the best standard. Clarity and coherence are criteria which should help to define a better language for scientific communication.

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- (3) Manual of Symbols and Terminology for Physicochemical Quantities and Units. Pure and Appl. Chemistry 21, 1 (1970).

Table 1

to convert mmoles to mg
 $\mu\text{moles to } \mu\text{g}$
 nmoles to ng
 pmoles to pg
 multiply by the relative
 molecular mass (M_r) given below.

to convert g to mmoles
 mg to μmoles
 $\mu\text{g to nmoles}$
 ng to pmoles
 multiply by $1000 \times$ the reciprocal
 molecular mass ($1000/M_r$) given below.

Substance	Formula	M_r	$1000/M_r$
Acetoacetic acid	$\text{C}_4\text{H}_6\text{O}_3$	102.1	9.80
Acetone	$\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}$	58.1	17.22
Adrenaline	$\text{C}_9\text{H}_{13}\text{NO}_3$	183.2	5.46
Alanine	$\text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{NO}_2$	89.1	11.22
Albumin		68000	0.0147
Aldosterone	$\text{C}_{21}\text{H}_{28}\text{O}_5$	360.4	2.77
p-Aminohippuric acid	$\text{C}_9\text{H}_{10}\text{N}_2\text{O}_3$	194.2	5.15
δ -Aminolevulinic acid	$\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{NO}_3$	131.1	7.63
Ammonia	NH_3	17.0	58.71
Angiotensin II (human)		1046	0.96
Arginine	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_4\text{O}_2$	174.2	5.74
Ascorbic acid	$\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_6$	176.1	5.68
Aspartic acid	$\text{C}_4\text{H}_7\text{NO}_4$	133.1	7.51
Bilirubin	$\text{C}_{33}\text{H}_{36}\text{N}_4\text{O}_6$	584.7	1.71
Bromosulphophthalein	$\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_8\text{Br}_4\text{Na}_2\text{O}_{10}\text{S}_3$	838.0	1.19
Calcium	Ca	40.1	24.95

Table 1 (Continued)

Substance	Formula	M_r	$1000/M_r$
Carbon monoxide	CO	28.0	35.70
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	44.0	22.72
Carotene	C ₄₀ H ₅₆	536.7	1.86
Cholesterol	C ₂₇ H ₄₆ O	386.7	2.59
Citric acid	C ₆ H ₈ O ₇	192.1	5.21
Copper	Cu	63.5	15.74
Coproporphyrin	C ₃₆ H ₃₈ N ₄ O ₈	654.7	1.53
Cortisol	C ₂₁ H ₃₀ O ₅	362.5	2.76
Creatine	C ₄ H ₉ N ₃ O ₂	131.1	7.63
Creatinine	C ₄ H ₇ N ₃ O	113.1	8.84
Cysteine	C ₃ H ₇ NO ₂ S	121.1	8.25
Estrone	C ₁₈ H ₂₂ O ₂	270.4	3.70
Fructose	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆	180.2	5.55
Galactose	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆	180.2	5.55
Glucose	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆	180.2	5.55
Glutamic acid	C ₅ H ₉ NO ₄	147.1	6.80
Glycerol	C ₃ H ₈ O ₃	92.1	10.86
Glycine	C ₂ H ₅ NO ₂	75.1	13.32
Hemoglobin		64500	0.0155
Histidine	C ₆ H ₉ N ₃ O ₂	155.2	6.44
β -Hydroxybutyric acid	C ₄ H ₈ O ₃	104.1	9.61
5-Hydroxyindole acetic acid	C ₁₀ H ₉ NO ₃	191.0	5.24
Hydroxyproline	C ₅ H ₉ NO ₃	131.1	7.63
Insulin (human)		5807	0.172
Iodine	I	126.9	7.88
Iron	Fe	55.8	17.91
Isoleucine	C ₆ H ₁₃ NO ₂	131.2	7.62
Lactic acid	C ₃ H ₆ O ₃	90.1	11.10
Lactose	C ₁₂ H ₂₂ O ₁₁	342.3	2.92
Leucine	C ₆ H ₁₃ NO ₂	131.2	7.62
Lysine	C ₆ H ₁₄ N ₂ O ₂	146.2	6.84
Magnesium	Mg	24.3	41.12
Methionine	C ₅ H ₁₁ NO ₂ S	149.2	6.70
Nitrogen	N	14.0	71.43
Noradrenaline	C ₈ H ₁₁ NO ₃	169.2	5.91
Phenolsulfonphthalein	C ₁₈ H ₁₄ O ₅ S	354.4	2.82
Phenylalanine	C ₉ H ₁₁ NO ₂	165.2	6.05
Phosphorus	P	31.0	32.29
Porphobilinogen	C ₁₀ H ₁₄ N ₂ O ₄	226.2	4.42
Pregnanediol	C ₂₁ H ₃₆ O ₂	320.5	3.12
Progesterone	C ₂₁ H ₃₀ O ₂	314.4	3.18
Proline	C ₅ H ₉ NO ₂	115.1	8.69
Pyruvic acid	C ₃ H ₇ O ₃	88.1	11.36

Table 1 (Continued)

Substance	Formula	M_r	$1000/M_r$
Serine	$C_3H_7NO_3$	105.1	9.52
Serotonin	$C_{10}H_{12}N_2O$	176.2	5.68
Testosterone	$C_{19}H_{28}O_2$	288.4	3.47
Threonine	$C_4H_9NO_3$	119.1	8.39
Thyroxine	$C_{15}H_{11}NO_4I_4$	776.9	1.29
Triiodothyronine	$C_{15}H_{12}NO_4I_3$	651.0	1.54
Triolein	$C_{57}H_{104}O_8$	885.4	1.13
Tryptophan	$C_{11}H_{12}N_2O_2$	204.2	4.90
Tyrosine	$C_9H_{11}NO_3$	181.2	5.52
Urea	CH_4N_2O	60.1	16.65
Uric acid	$C_5H_4N_4O_3$	168.1	5.95
Vitamin A	$C_{20}H_{30}O$	286.4	3.49
Vitamin B ₁₂	$C_{63}H_{88}N_{14}O_{14}PCo$	1355.4	0.737
Water	H_2O	18.0	55.51
Xylose	$C_5H_{10}O_5$	150.1	6.66

Table 2

List of Quantities and Units

Name	Quantity	Symbol	Name	Unit Symbol	Equivalent to
length		l	metre	m	
mass		m	gramme	g	10^{-3} kg
time		t	second	s	
electric current		I	ampere	A	
amount of substance			mole	mol	
volume		V	liter	l	10^{-3} m ³
force			newton	N	kg · m · s ⁻²
energy			joule	J	kg · m ² · s ⁻²
power			watt	W	kg · m ² · s ⁻³
electric charge			coulomb	C	A · s
electric potential difference			volt	V	kg · m ² · s ⁻³ · A ⁻¹
frequency			hertz	Hz	s ⁻¹
mass concentration		c		g/l	
mass fraction				g/kg	$\times 10^{-3}$
volume fraction				l/l	$\times 1$
substance concentration		c		mol/l	
number concentration			reciprocal liter	l ⁻¹	

Table 2 (Continued)

List of Quantities and Units

Name	Quantity	Symbol	Name	Unit Symbol	Equivalent to
molality				mol/kg	
mole fraction				mol/mol	$\times 1$
Celsius temperature			degree Celsius	$^{\circ}\text{C}$	
absolute temperature		T	kelvin	K	
pressure ¹		p	pascal	Pa	$\text{N} \cdot \text{m}^{-2}$
relative density ²		d			$\times 1$

¹ The same unit can be used for partial pressure defined as the product of the mole fraction of a gaseous component and the pressure of the gaseous mixture.

² Defined as the density (kg/l) of the object divided by the density of water under the same conditions.

Tab. 3. Prefixes denoting decimal factors.

Factor	Prefix	Symbol	l	m	Examples			V
10^{12}	tera	T						
10^9	giga	G						
10^6	mega	M						
10^3	kilo	k	km	kg	ks			MHz
1			m	g	s	A	l	Hz
10^{-3}	milli	m	mm	mg	ms	mA	ml	
10^{-6}	micro	μ	μm	μg	μs	μA	μl	
10^{-9}	nano	n	nm	ng	ns		nl	
10^{-12}	pico	p	pm	pg			pl	
10^{-15}	femto	f					fl	
10^{-18}	atto	a						

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