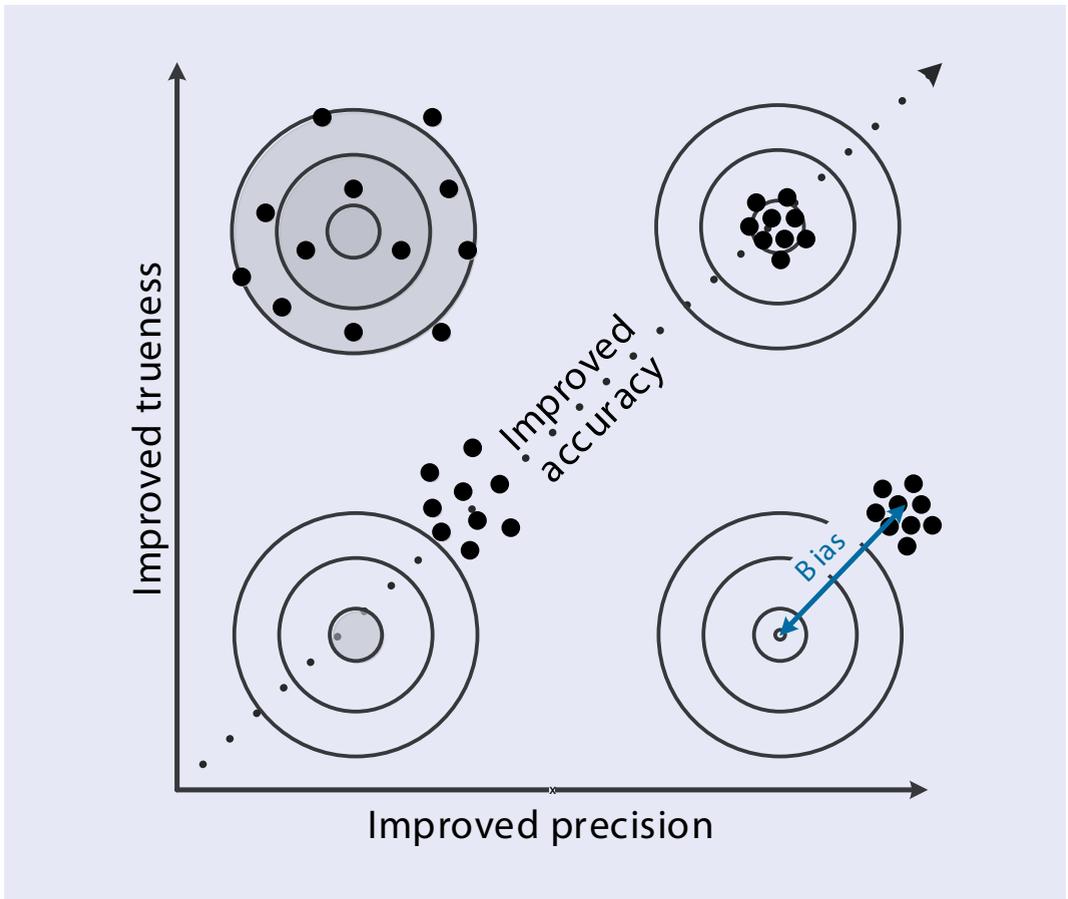


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Omslagsbild: Redrawn after a figure in: Stephen L R Ellison, Vicki J Barwick, Trevor J Duguid Farrant, *Practical Statistics for the Analytical Scientist : A Bench Guide : Edition 2, Royal Society of Chemistry, 2009, ISBN: 978-0-85404-131-2*

Ordförandespalt

Yngve Thomas Blikrud



Av og til må det være lov å tenke på noe annet enn laboratoriemedisin, selv hender det at jeg tenker litt på sjakk. I november 2016 tenkte jeg i grunnen ganske mye på sjakk. Den norske verdensmesteren Magnus Carlsen forsvarte nemlig sin VM-tittel ved å spille til sammen 16 sjakkpartier mot Sergej Karjakin, en fryktet motstander fra Russland, verdens sterkeste sjakknasjon. Det ble en meget jevn og spennende kamp, men Magnus Carlsen forsvarte tittelen og kan stadig kalle seg verdensmester. Hvorfor skriver jeg om dette i ordförandespalt i *Klinisk Biokjemi i Norden*? Jo, fordi en aldri så liten del av suksessen i dette verdensmesterskapet kan tilskrives et inspirerende eksempel på nordisk samarbeid i et laboratorium! La meg forklare hvordan.

I en slik kamp i sjakk mann mot mann over mange partier er nemlig forberedelsene meget viktige og omfattende. I mange måneder på forhånd gjør ikke spillerne noe annet enn å legge planer for matchen. De studerer motstanders tidligere partier og spillestil i detalj, forsøker å tenke seg særlig hvilke åpnings-systemer som motstanderen vil benytte, og ikke minst perfektionerer de sine egne yndlingssystemer. I åpningsfasen av et sjakkparti kan man nemlig håpe på å overraske motstanderen og ta styringen med nye og ukjente trekk som er gjennomtestet av mennesker og computere. Det er ikke enkelt å finne de beste svarene på slike forberedte varianter i praktisk spill mens klokken tiker ubønhørlig.

Før matchen var det nettopp Karjakins forberedelser som kanskje Carlsen fryktet mest. I forberedelsene sto Karjakin nemlig slett ikke alene. Ingen andre land har så mange sterke sjakkspillere som Russland. 9 av 16 verdensmestere i sjakk kommer fra nettopp Russland eller gamle Sovjetunionen. To ganger har Russland/Sovjetunionen stilt opp alene mot resten av verden i en match over 10 bord og vunnet. Med andre ord kunne Sergej Karjakin med letthet etablere et aldeles fryktinngytende sjakklaboratorium av mesterspillere til å hjelpe seg som ingen

annen enkeltnasjon kan matche, hvis han ville. Og det ville han.

Hvordan gikk det så for Magnus Carlsen i den skumle åpningsfasen, tråkket han feil i Karjakins minefelt av overraskelser? Langt ifra. Tvert imot var det Carlsen som tok styringen og førte det ene partiet etter det andre i de retningene han selv ville. Ikke en eneste gang fikk Karjakin spilt en av sine giftige forberedelser fra sjakklaboratoriet. Hvordan klarte Carlsen dette? Selvsagt mest fordi han er verdens beste sjakkspiller, men også fordi Carlsen heller ikke var alene før matchen. Også Magnus Carlsen hadde etablert et imponerende sjakklaboratorium til hjelp i forberedelsene. Og ikke minst fikk han hjelp av nordiske venner. Hans viktigste samarbeidspartner er nok Danmarks sterkeste spiller Peter Heine Nilsen. Men også Sveriges sterkeste sjakkspiller Nils Grandelius stilte opp for Magnus Carlsen. Flere medlemmer av Carlsens laboratorium er hemmelige, så vi vet ikke om flere nordiske land er representert. Men det er ikke utenkelig. Island har en imponerende sjakktradisjon med det største antall verdensklassespillere i verden sett i forhold til folketallet. Og Finlands beste spiller Tommi Nyback er en av de få spillere i verden som har slått Magnus Carlsen og stadig har positiv score mot ham.

Norden kan altså måle seg med de største nasjoner både med sine strålende enkelttalenter, men også gjennom et sterkt og fruktbart samarbeid. Nordiske eksepsjonelle sjakkatalenter har vi sett før. Faktisk i begge matchene mellom Russland/Sovjetunionen resten av verden var verdenslaget toppet av en nordisk spiller på første bord, i 1970 av Danmarks sjakkgeni Bent Larsen og i 1984 av Sveriges «uslåelige» Ulf Andersson.

La oss bruke de Nordiske triumfene på sjakkbrettet som inspirasjon til mer Nordisk samarbeid i medisinsk/klinisk biokjemi. I dette nummeret av KBN minner vi for eksempel om at NFKK i 2017 arrangerer sitt andre spesialiseringkurs for leger, «The 2nd Nordic Course in specialist training». Alle unge leger bør få det med seg! Og i pausene kan de jo spille noen sjakkpartier?



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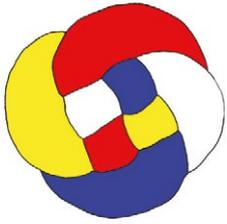


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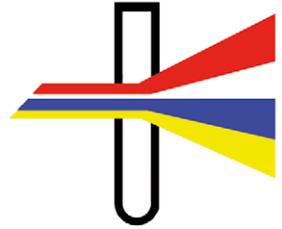
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Validation and verification in clinical chemistry

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Abstract

Measurement systems used in clinical chemistry are usually manufactured by international companies working according to in vitro directive (IVD) – regulations. This means that medical laboratories do not need to validate commercially available measurement systems, but are obliged to verify that their properties found during the producers validation can be reproduced in the users laboratories. Developments in healthcare and accreditation standards including ISO 15189 focus increasingly on customer needs which may call for the validation of entire conglomerates of laboratories and measurement systems catering for the needs for the same patient population. Such validation practices are, however, still in their infancy.

The purpose of the present paper is to offer practical details on the common practice of verification of single measurement systems and add perspectives on the validation of conglomerates of laboratories and measurement systems. Method validation across conglomerates of laboratories using verified commercially available measurement systems can only be performed by the laboratories – users themselves in their own circumstances. The use of patient samples in split- sample techniques is especially valuable in this contexts in order to avoid compatibility issues.

Introduction

Validation and verification of measurement methods are procedures aiming at establishing realistic expectations with the analyst and confidence with the end-user that the methods are fit for the intended purposes (1, 2).

Measurement systems already validated by their manufacturers need only to be *verified* by the end users in their own circumstances. Verification means

that the users study the bias and imprecision of the measurement system and compare their results with the ones observed by the manufacturers during their validation (1, 3-11).

The basic principles and procedures of validation are shared amongst all fields of bioanalysis with some differences in emphasis depending on the particular fields of work (12-14). In the early 1990s the U.S. Food and Drug Administration (FDA) initiated and supported conferences and harmonization work on bioanalytical method validation which in 2001 resulted in the guidelines “FDA Guidance for Industry – Bioanalytical Method Validation” (13, 15). This document is widely used as standard reference for validation of bioanalytical measurement methods in addition to the European EMA Guidelines on Validation of Bioanalytical Methods (16) and the Eurachem guide for method validation (17).

There are theoretically no limits to the extent of validation and verification procedures, but also substantial time- and economic constraints in practice. It is therefore crucial that verification and validation efforts are optimized in order to minimize their cost/benefit ratio.

Method verification

Single laboratory method validation is not needed when a measurement system is manufactured by a company or other responsible source which has performed proper method validation (18, 19) and is providing you with the detailed results of that validation. A study of the bias and imprecision of the new measurement system is needed, establishing whether you are able to reproduce in your own laboratory the data found by the company during method validation.

The most common instance of method verification is when old measurement systems are replaced by new. This is the example death with here.

Verifying bias and imprecision

Measurement *bias* is a quantitative concept - the “closeness of agreement between the average of an infinite number of replicate measured quantity values and a reference quantity value” (12). *Trueness* is the corresponding qualitative concept for bias.

Measurement *precision* is a qualitative concept - the “closeness between indications or measured quantity values obtained by replicate measurements on the same or similar objects under the specified conditions of measurement” (12). The quantitative expression of precision is *imprecision* - the standard deviation (SD) or the relative standard deviation (CV/ CV %) of a method.

Method A can be qualitatively expressed to be more or less precise than method B. But when you need to quantify precision, we measure its opposite - the imprecision - by repeated measurements of control- or patient samples.

Measurement *accuracy* is a qualitative concept describing the “closeness of agreement between a measured quantity value and a true quantity value of a measurand” (12). It encompasses both systematic and random error components.

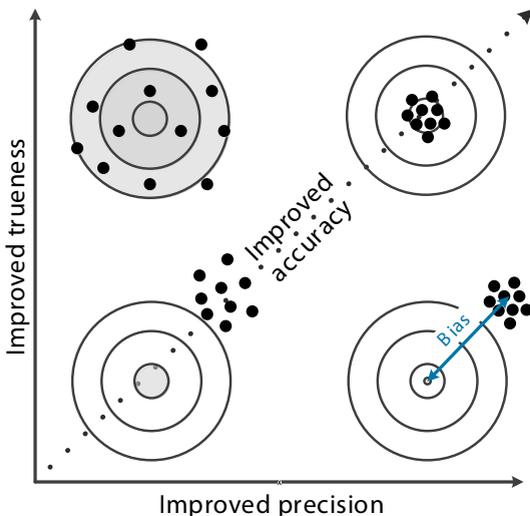


Figure 1: A graphical illustration (using target analogy) of the qualitative concepts precision and trueness and their combination accuracy. Bias is decreased by increased trueness and precision improved by decreasing imprecision. Accuracy can be improved by improving precision or trueness or both.

Verification practices have been established over time and are frequently influenced by accreditation- and certification authorities. There is by now a general agreement on what is required (1, 9-11) and supported by guidelines including CLSI EP15 (3) and EP9(20). The European IVD directive (19, 21) requires that the in vitro diagnostic device in the hands of its end users must achieve the performance stated by the manufacturer including analytical sensitivity, limits of detection, diagnostic sensitivity, analytical specificity, diagnostic specificity, accuracy, repeatability, reproducibility and control of known relevant interferences. In practice user verification is usually restricted to comparison of methods experiments to establish bias, replication experiments to establish imprecision and a linearity check to determine the reportable range and sometimes analysing reference samples to verify the reference interval.

Estimating bias

At least 20 natural patient samples having as wide concentration range as possible are commonly measured using both the method being replaced and the new method. Stable materials for internal quality control with known expected concentrations are also measured to estimate imprecision and preferably also appropriate reference materials as independent measures of bias. Larger number of samples than 20 may, however, be required if minute differences between the old and the new method need to be estimated.

The results of the measurements are summarized using bias- Bland-Altman plot and orthogonal/ Deming regression as described below.

Estimating imprecision

Suitable stable materials for internal quality control are measured at two concentration levels in at least 2 replicates for at least 5 consecutive days for estimating imprecision and for establishing initial control limits for the internal quality control procedures.

Summarizing the results

Orthogonal linear regression (22, 23), bias-plot (24, 25) and analysis of variance (26, 27) techniques are used to determine bias, imprecision, matrix effects etc. An example is given below of the results of the analysis of 20 patient samples using two measurement systems. SigmaPlot 12.5 (<https://systatsoftware.com/>) was used for the purpose in this manuscript, but Analyse-

it (<https://analyse-it.com>) SPSS (<http://www.ibm.com/analytics/us/en/technology/spss/>) and MS Excel (<https://www.microsoft.com>) are examples of highly appropriate alternatives.

Raw data

The raw data used in the current example are listed below

Method 1	Method 2
1,99	2,22
5,03	5,22
1,48	1,78
2,35	2,76
3,25	3,37
3,24	3,39
2,13	2,43
1,12	1,4
1,93	2,11
1,91	2,23
1,36	1,61
0,89	1,03
1,44	1,59
1,66	1,85
2,42	2,59
3,64	3,71
2,44	2,61
1,48	1,6
2,37	2,51
4,33	4,35

Bias plot = Bland-Altman plot

The main purpose of the bias/Bland-Altman graph is to facilitate the graphical interpretation of the data by showing an expanded view of the distribution of the differences between the measurement methods along the entire plotting space. An advantage of the bias/Bland-Altman graph compared to common linear regression is that it uses the entire space available in the graph to illustrate the differences found. In the ordinary linear regression depicted above, most of the space available for the graph is blank since the two methods normally show very similar results distributed along the equal line. The mean of the differences should also be calculated. Optionally the mean difference for each quartile of the data may be calculated to express proportional error and also the “limits of

agreement” for the difference data – the mean of the difference (bias) $\pm 1.96 \cdot$ standard deviation of the difference (24, 25, 28-30). In Figure 2, the confidence limits are also provided.

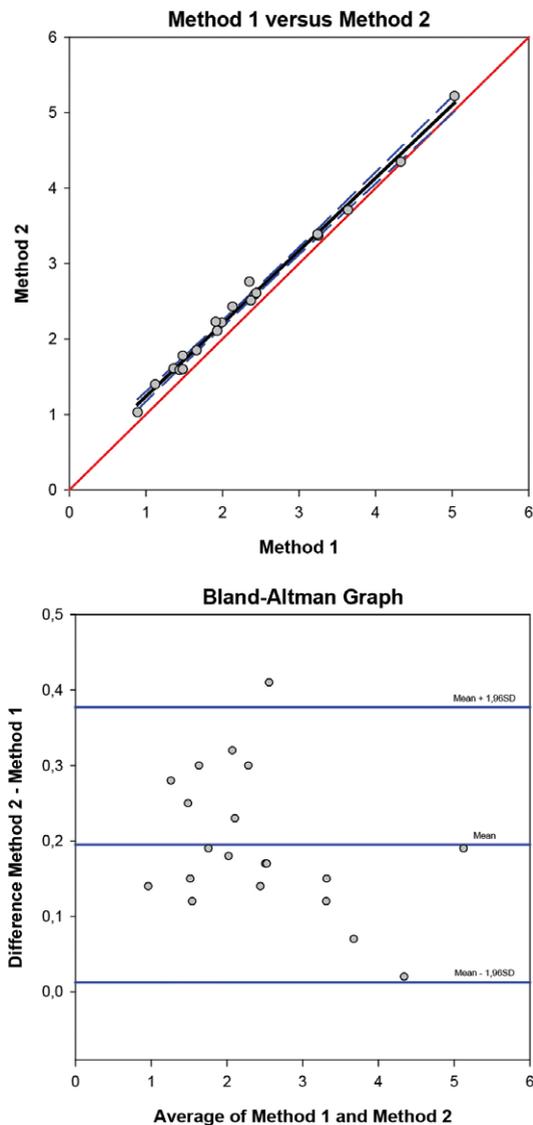


Figure 2: Bias/Bland-Altman plot (SigmaPlot 12.5) used for summarizing the bias when comparing two measurement methods. The upper graph is an ordinary linear regression which also depicts the equal line in red. The lower graph is the bias/Bland-Altman plot proper which shows the difference between the two measurement methods on the Y-axis and the average of the measurement results of the two methods depicted on the X-axis.

Orthogonal regression/Deming graph

In ordinal regression commonly available in statistical packages MS Excel etc., all the error are taken to be found in the data on the Y-axis (in the vertical direction) (Figure 3). The regression line is drawn in order to minimize the sum of squared distance from the data points to the regression line in the vertical direction. This method makes for convenient formulas for calculation, but is only fully appropriate in method comparison studies when the method plotted on the X-axis is substantially metrologically superior to the method plotted on the Y-axis, e.g. when comparing a routine method to isotope-dilution massspectrometry.

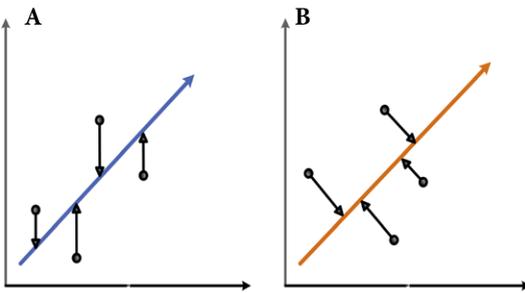


Figure 3: The basic principles of ordinary linear regression (A) compared to orthogonal/Deming regression (B). The sum of squared distances in the vertical direction is minimized in the ordinary linear regression (A) whereas the sum of the squared distances perpendicular to the regression line (B) is minimized in orthogonal/Deming regression.

When comparing an old method (plotted on the X-axis) with a new method (plotted on the Y-axis) there are ample reasons to suppose that the new method is at least as accurate as the old method. It is therefore reasonable to use orthogonal regression which supposes that the errors occur in both the old and in the new method.

Simple Deming

Regression

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Data Source: Data 1 in Metodjämförelse

X-data: 1-A

Y-data: 2-B

Standard deviation for each X-measurement: 1,0000
Standard deviation for each Y-measurement: 1,0000

Number of observations..... 20
Number missing0

Data correlation coefficient.....0,9967
Chi-square statistic.....0,0710
Reduced chi-square.....0,0039
Degrees of freedom..... 18

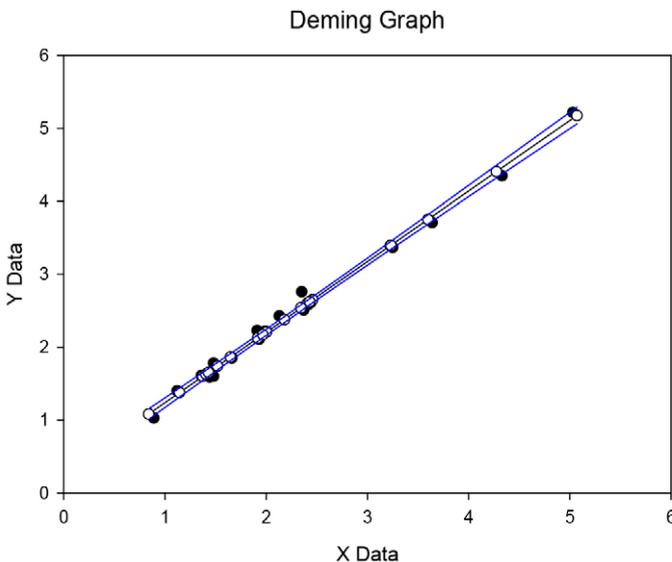


Figure 4: Orthogonal/Deming regression of the data in table 1 (solid dots) created by Sigma plot 12.5

	Coefficient	Std. Error	95% Conf-L	95% Conf-U
Intercept	0,2688	0,0473	0,1693	0,3682
Slope	0,9683	0,0186	0,9293	1,0072

The standard deviation for each observation is only known up to some common scaling factor. The standard errors for the parameters have been corrected by an estimate of this factor, the square root of the reduced chi-square.

Hypothesis Testing:

Test for slope = 0

F = 5295,9198 P = <,00001

Test for slope = 1

F = 2,8469 P = 0,1088

Table 2: The parameters of the orthogonal/Deming regression as calculated by SigmaPlot 12.5.

Recalculating results

For the data above (tables 1 and 2) the slope of the Deming regression line is 0,9683 and the intercept on the Y-axis is 0,2688. This means that if you are measuring samples for a study which extends in time over the change of methods you will multiply the results performed with the new method by 0,9683 and add 0,2688 in order to transform all results to the same measurement level as the one which existed during the time period of the old method.

Provided you wish to transform the results of the old method to the results performed with the new method you subtract 0,2688 from the results of the old method and divide by 0,9683.

Commutability

Commutability is basically a characteristic of samples which expresses their ability to result in very similar measurement results using different measurement systems. More formally it is a property of a material/sample demonstrated by “the closeness of agreement between the relation among the measurement results for a stated quantity in this material, obtained according to two given measurement procedures, and the relation obtained among the measurement results for other specified materials”. (31). Natural patient samples are by definition commutable.

When comparing measurement methods during verification and validation, it is crucial to include natural patient samples as commutable materials in a very substantial part of the the procedures in order that the results ultimately measured in the patient samples are comparable.

Medical laboratories process very substantial number of patient samples and have usually material to spare that can be used for maintaining and increasing the quality of the measurement methods used in the laboratory. Medical laboratories therefore have through the availability of patient samples a very substantial advantage compared to the manufacturers of measurement systems and methods when it comes to the availability of patient samples in their quality processes.

Method validation

Method validation (13, 16, 17) is commonly thought of as a highly standardized single linear process, when it actually consists of several dimensions of repetitive sub-processes as depicted in figure 5.

In addition to the repetitive sub-processes for optimization, there are a number of principally different validation processes appropriate for the context that the method(s) will be used in as follows.

Single laboratory method validation

Single laboratory method validation is appropriate when one method is used for a specific purpose in one laboratory (13, 16, 17). This is the type of validation provided by manufacturers to end-users.

Full method validation

Full method validation in a conglomerate of laboratories includes, in addition to the procedures of single laboratory validation, a study of the fitness for purpose of measurement systems in a number of locations, several operators etc. including a study of the performance characteristics of the measurement systems over extended periods of time including the effects of lot-to-lot variations etc.

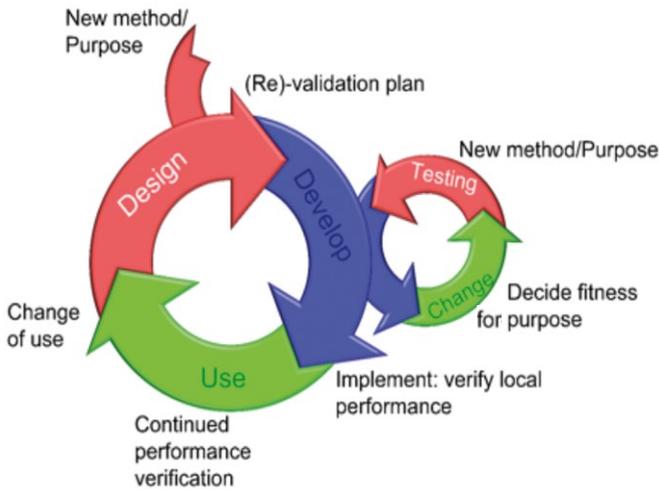


Figure 5: The sub-processes of method validation. Subsequent to receiving a proposal for a new method a process of method design, followed by method development takes place. The development process in itself is also an iterative process of testing and change (shown to the right) in order to optimize the fitness for purpose of the method. Continued performance testing during the use of the method in practical situations may show need for improvements that subsequently serve as input in a new design process which serves as bases for a new development cycle. Such new cycle is also warranted when the method is put to use in new circumstances. Redrawn figure. Copyright © 2007 LGC Limited – All Rights reserved. Material reproduced from ‘Method Validation: Principles and Practice’ seminar (September 2007) by permission of LGC Limited. No part of this material may be reproduced without LGC Limited’s express consent.

Full diagnostic validation

Full diagnostic validation is used for establishing the diagnostic properties of the method in health and disease (32-34). It is a major research undertaking demanding that the diagnosis in question is independently established by other methods than the one being tested. It is usually performed by a research team using a single measurement system in order to reduce measurement uncertainty. In contrast, when the method is used in real-life healthcare circumstances, sample from the same patient are likely to encounter several measurement systems with bias and imprecision profiles substantially different from the ones encountered during the original full diagnostic validation study. These properties are commonly more unfavourable regarding diagnostic properties.

Galen and Gambino (35) pioneered in establishing the statistical and epidemiological principles of full diagnostic method validation and showed that “common sense” interpretation of data prevalent in clinical medicine should be replaced by rational principles.

Recent excellent literature in the field includes the books by Pepe (36) and Zhou et al. (37).

The basis of characterizing diagnostic performance is to have a well-accepted gold standard for the diagnosis and estimating how well the diagnostic method being validated performs in relation to the gold standard method. Data are depicted in a classical 2x2 table (Figure 7) and the parameters/concepts depicted and defined in table 1 are calculated.

Diagnostic validation in conglomerates of laboratories
Diagnostic validation in conglomerates of laboratories investigates to what extent a conglomerate of measurement systems that samples from a patient are likely to encounter can reproduce the conditions that existed during the original full diagnostic validation. Included in the diagnostic validation are also estimates of the pre- and postanalytical errors which are encountered using systems for registering the incidence of non-conformance. The author is not aware of any reported full diagnostic validation of a conglom-

	Participants			
	With disease	Without disease		
Positive test	True positives	False positives (type I error)	Total positive	[PPV]
Negative test	False negatives (type II error)	True negatives	Total negative	[NPV]
	Total with disease	Total without disease		
	[Sensitivity]	[Specificity]		

Figure 6: A 2x2 table serving as basis for calculating sensitivity, specificity, predictive values and likelihood ratios (Table 1). PPV = positive predictive value, NPV=negative predictive value.

rate of laboratories, and is not aware of any guidelines or standards for the purpose. It is, however, evident that the sensitivity, specificity, predictive values etc. of measurement results produced by a conglomerate of laboratories may differ from those found during the original full diagnostic validation because the overall measurement uncertainty is larger. In practice conglomerates of laboratories therefore focus on minimizing bias amongst their measurement systems and their imprecision.

Full method validation depends on the healthcare and laboratory organizations

Healthcare laboratories are commonly organised into larger laboratory conglomerates encompassing several physical laboratories catering for diagnostic services for a defined population. This caters for important new opportunities for re-defining the concept of a “laboratory” to encompass all laboratories and measurement methods measuring the same measurand for a population of patients.

A single laboratory validation/verification is sufficient if the same measurement system is always used when analysing all samples from a population of patients (situation “B” in figure 7). However, only one measurement system used for measuring patient samples is seldom the case in clinical chemistry. Patients are commonly diagnosed and treatment combined with monitoring initiated at large University hospitals to be continued at a smaller hospital and one or two primary health-care physicians (Figure 7).

Summary

Verification of measurement methods already validated by manufacturers is amongst the most common activities in medical laboratories. A practical procedure for verification using at least 20 natural patient samples and measuring stable control samples during one week is presented here, sufficient for most situations. Measurement systems are used in a plethora of different situations where a sample for a patient may encounter several measurement systems over

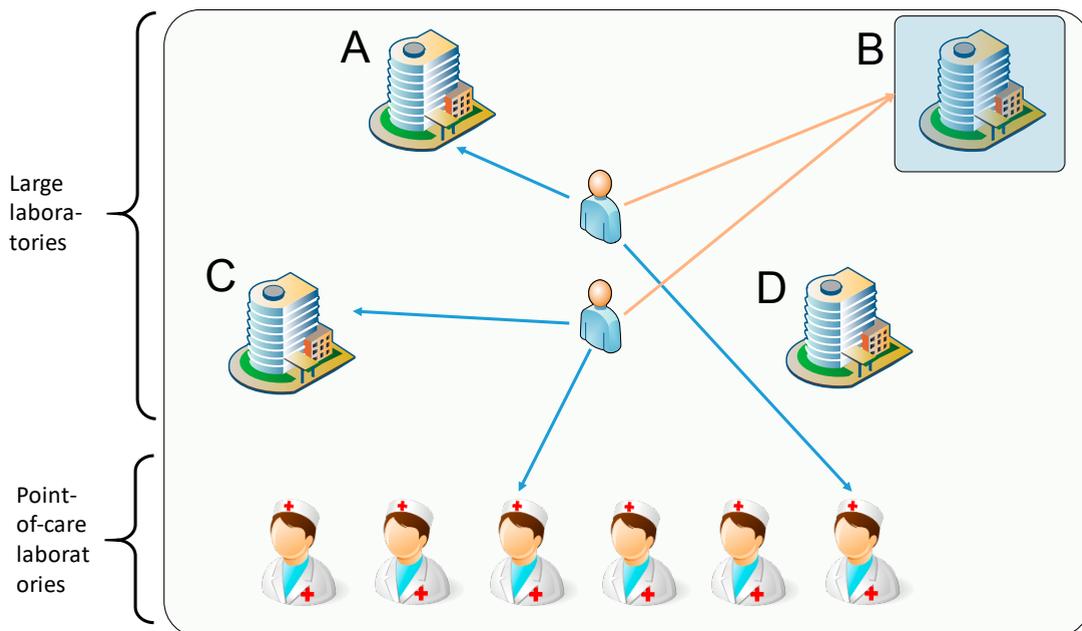


Figure 7: The consequences of a conglomerate of laboratories catering for a patient population compared to a single laboratory. Hospital laboratory B caters for all samples for measuring a certain analyte. Validation of the single laboratory method validation established by the manufacturer is in this case sufficient. In the case of other analytes measured in more than one hospital laboratory and point of care, there are ample reasons to validate the fitness for purpose for diagnosing and monitoring treatment effects of the conglomerate of laboratories.

time. Full diagnostic validation of the entire conglomerates of laboratories may become increasingly in demand as healthcare becomes increasingly aware of the need to make sure that the diagnostic properties including reference intervals and decision limits are optimal within conglomerates of laboratories. The use of patient samples in split-sample techniques is especially valuable in this contexts in order to avoid compatibility issues.

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Continuous quality control of the blood sampling procedure using a structured observation scheme

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First published in *Biochemia Medica* 2016;26(3):337-45.



Introduction

The ongoing vast automation of the laboratories helps reducing the number of errors related to the laboratory, but preanalytical errors remains a challenge, and studies has reported that up to 75% of laboratory errors occur in the preanalytical phase (1,2,3), where the blood sampling procedure is a pivotal area: It is well-known that phlebotomy errors can influence the diagnosis and also affect patient care in a harmful way (4,5), and recent reports on the un-harmonised training in European countries of the personnel performing phlebotomy (6) and the lack of adherence to guidelines by e.g. the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) (7) and the International Organization for Standardization (ISO) (8) is therefore alarming (9). The European Federation of Clinical Chemistry and Laboratory Medicine (EFLM) Working Group for the Preanalytical Phase (WG-PRE) has therefore recommended monitoring phlebotomy quality regularly in order to ensure the quality of the blood collection procedure (9). Quality control (QC) of phlebotomy is however challenging because errors associated with phlebotomy covers a variety of aspects such as patient/sample misidentification, prolonged use of tourniquet, inadequate patient preparation, low blood collection volume, and impeded healthcare worker safety (3). A

structured QC assessment of the blood sampling procedure is therefore needed: This will not only assure the blood sampling quality, but also enable documentation of the sampling quality, and last but not least assessment of untrained personnel will make it possible for the laboratory organization to ensure the blood sample quality for *all* samples arriving at the laboratory as requested in the ISO 15189:2012.

A continuous QC of the blood sampling procedure was introduced at our university hospital using a structured observation scheme as suggested by the EFLM WG-PRE (9). The hypotheses were that i) an observational QC would enable identification of some critical issues in the blood sampling procedure, and ii) implementation of corrective actions (education of the staff) would result in better adherence to the guidelines. The aim of our study was to assess the level of compliance with the local phlebotomy guideline, to investigate if the tool could help identifying necessary focus items, and finally to study whether continuous QC of the phlebotomy procedure over time would improve adherence to the phlebotomy guideline.

Materials and methods

The investigation was conducted at Odense University Hospital, Denmark, as an observational study in two phases: a pilot study and a follow-up study.

Pilot study

All staff members performing phlebotomy at Department of Clinical Biochemistry and Pharmacology, Odense University Hospital, Denmark, were observed. At Odense University Hospital the vast majority of blood samples are drawn by professionally trained laboratory technicians, an education that includes

specialised training in phlebotomy. Blood sampling takes place at either the outpatient phlebotomy ward or at the hospital wards, but are carried out by the same phlebotomist staff. Due to work rotation all phlebotomists were not observed the exact same number of times.

During a three-month period (September – November 2014) blood sampling was observed at the outpatient phlebotomy unit and at the hospital wards, respectively. Three blood collections by the same phlebotomist were observed at each session, and all observations were performed by the same trained staff specialist (Tine Lindberg Seemann) using a structured checklist.

The observation checklist for phlebotomy QC was constructed based on the scheme designed by the EFLM WG-PRE (9) and adjusted to local procedures resulting in an observation scheme containing 19 observation items (Figure 1). Observation item #2 concerning patient identification was mandatory to be correct, as it was assessed as potentially severely harmful. If patient identification was performed incorrect, the observer intervened immediately and assured correct identification. Otherwise, this was strictly an observational study without interruption by the observer. Results were recorded as yes/no for all phlebotomists in each setting and later calculated for the two settings, respectively.

Follow-up study

Based on the pilot study the observation scheme was optimised by removing four items that was all correctly performed in the pilot study and altering one item resulting in a new observation scheme containing 15 items (Figure 2). The follow-up study was performed during a three-month period (January – March 2016) by the same procedure as described for the pilot study except the alteration that only two blood samplings were observed at each session (for logistic reasons).

Statistical analysis

The results of the observational study are reported as percentage incorrect phlebotomies per item out of the total number of observations, reported for the phlebotomy ward and the hospital wards, respectively.

Differences between results at the two settings (the phlebotomy ward and the hospital wards) were analysed with Fisher's exact test. Also, changes in

observations between the pilot study and the follow-up study was analysed using Pearson's Chi-Square test. A p-value < 0.05 was considered significant; analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 6 (La Jolla, California, USA).

Results

Pilot study

A total of 126 phlebotomies, 59 at the phlebotomy ward and 67 at the hospital wards, were performed by 39 different phlebotomists. The errors are shown in Figure 3.

- At the phlebotomy ward, the most frequent error was performing hand hygiene contrary to the described procedure (item #3, 42%). Second-most



Foto: Henrik Alftan.

Quality control on blood sampling
Dept. of Clinical Biochemistry and Pharmacology
Odense University Hospital

Observer		
Date		
Phlebotomist		
Sample No	YES	NO
Item # 1 Is the requisition correctly filled out?		
Item # 2 Was the patient identified according to the CLSI guideline?		
Item # 3 Was the instruction for correct hand hygiene followed?		
Item # 4 Did the phlebotomist assure that the patient was properly prepared (e.g. fasting)?		
Item # 5 Was the tourniquet placed correctly?		
Item # 6 Did the phlebotomist select a suitable venipuncture site?		
Item # 7 Was an appropriate venipuncture device used (not a Safety-Lok™ Blood Collection Set)?		
Item # 8 Was the venipuncture site disinfected properly?		
Item # 9 Was the alcohol allowed to evaporate before the venipuncture?		
Item # 10 Did the venipuncture site remain untouched after disinfection?		
Item # 11 Did the phlebotomist assure that the fist was not clenched when blood flow began?		
Item # 12 Was the tourniquet released immediately after blood flow began?		
Item # 13 Was the correct order of draw followed?		
Item # 14 Were the blood tubes filled properly?		
Item # 15 Were all blood tubes mixed immediately after sampling?		
Item # 16 Was a cotton ball or gauze placed over the venipuncture site after sampling?		
Item # 17 Were syringes etc. disposed correctly immediately after sampling?		
Item # 18 Was the patient advised not to bend the arm?		
Item # 19 Were the tubes labelled in presence of the patient?		

Quality control on blood sampling
Dept. of Clinical Biochemistry and Pharmacology
Odense University Hospital

Observer		
Date		
Phlebotomist		
Sample No	YES	NO
Item # 1 Was the patient identified according to the CLSI guideline?		
Item # 2 Was the instruction for correct hand hygiene followed?		
Item # 3 Did the phlebotomist assure that the patient was properly prepared (e.g. fasting)?		
Item # 4 Was the tourniquet placed correctly?		
Item # 5 Was an appropriate venipuncture device used (not a Safety-Lok™ Blood Collection Set)?		
Item # 6 Was the venipuncture site disinfected properly?		
Item # 7 Was the alcohol allowed to evaporate before the venipuncture?		
Item # 8 Did the venipuncture site remain untouched after disinfection?		
Item # 9 Was the tourniquet released immediately after blood flow began?		
Item # 10 Was the correct order of draw followed?		
Item # 11 Were the blood tubes filled properly?		
Item # 12 Were all blood tubes mixed immediately after sampling?		
Item # 13 Was the venipuncture site inspected for bleeding before the patient left?		
Item # 14 Were syringes etc. disposed correctly immediately after sampling?		
Item # 15 Were the tubes labelled in presence of the patient?		

◀ **Figure 1.**
The questionnaire used in the pilot study.

▲ **Figure 2.**
The questionnaire used in the follow-up study.

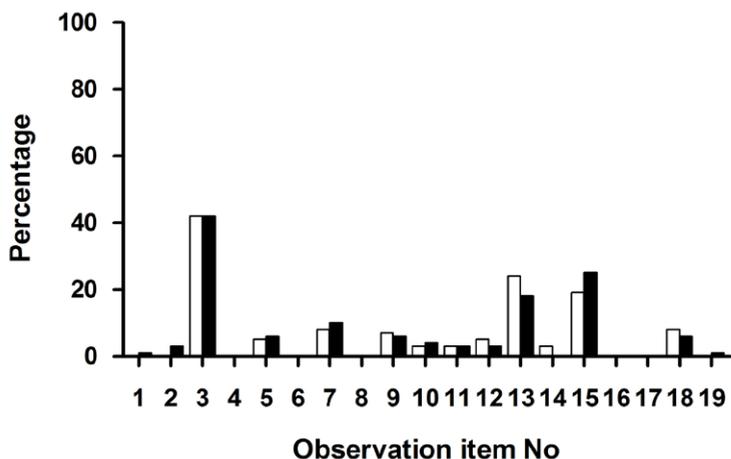


Figure 3.
Results from the pilot study.
The numbers on the abscissa refer to the observation items in Figure 1.
White bars: Blood sampling item conducted erroneously at the phlebotomy ward; black bars: Blood sampling item conducted erroneously at hospital wards.

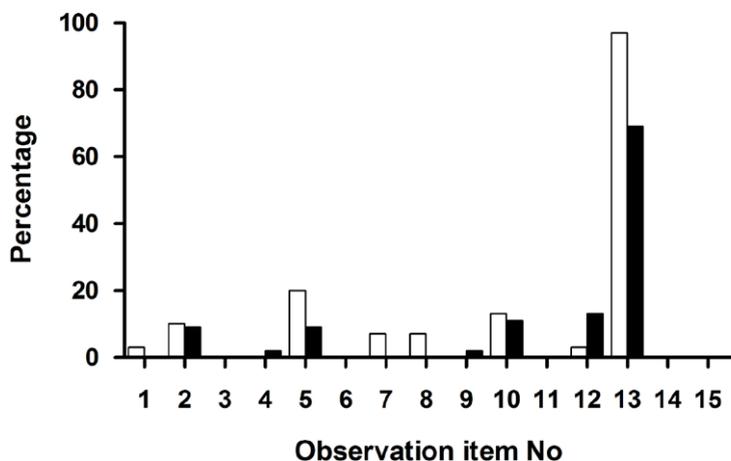


Figure 4.
Results from the follow-up study.
The numbers on the abscissa refer to the observation items in Figure 2.
White bars: Blood sampling item conducted erroneously at the phlebotomy ward; black bars: Blood sampling item conducted erroneously at hospital wards.

frequent was that 24% did not follow the correct order of draw (item #13), followed by improper mixing of samples by 19% (item #15).

- At the hospital wards, the most frequent error was also 42% performing hand hygiene erroneously (item #3), while the second-most frequent was the 25% that did not mix the samples properly after drawing blood (item #15). Finally, 18% did not follow the correct order of draw (item #13). An infrequent, but crucial error is the patient identification process, which was performed incorrect in two instances at the hospital wards.

Altogether, the three most frequent errors were identical at the two settings. Two of them did however differ significantly between the two phlebotomy settings,

as incorrect order of draw were more frequent at the phlebotomy ward ($p=0.04$), while mixing of tubes were more frequent at the hospital wards ($p=0.04$). No other errors differed significantly between settings.

Follow-up study

In the follow-up study, a total of 84 phlebotomies, 30 at the phlebotomy ward and 54 at the hospital ward, were performed by 34 different phlebotomists. The errors are shown in Figure 4.

- At the phlebotomy ward, the by far most frequent error was the new item #13, where only one out of thirty inspected the venipuncture site for bleeding before sending the patient off (Figure 4). The second-most frequent error was that 20% did not use the appropriate venipuncture device (item #5),

followed by item #10, where 13% did not use the correct order of draw. At one phlebotomy session, the patient identification process was not performed correct.

- At the hospital wards, the most frequent error was also the new item #13 with 69% not inspecting the venipuncture site correctly. The second-most frequent was item #12, where 13% did not mix the samples properly after drawing, followed by 11% that did not use the correct order of draw (item #10). The error frequencies that differed significantly between the two phlebotomy settings (phlebotomy ward and hospital ward) were items #13 ($p=0.01$), #12 ($p=0.02$), and #5 ($p=0.03$).

Differences between the pilot study and the follow-up study

The number of phlebotomies with improper hand hygiene were significantly lower in the follow-up study, namely 10% vs 42% (both settings) in the pilot study ($p<0.01$). Also, lack of tube mixing improved from 19% at the phlebotomy ward to 3% ($p<0.01$) and from 25% at the hospital wards to 13% ($p=0.01$). Finally, the number of erroneous order of draw declined significantly from 21% (mean for both settings) to 12% ($p=0.01$). Unfortunately, the number of samplings using the improper venipuncture device (according to the standard operating procedure) increased significantly from 8% to 20% at the phlebotomy ward ($p=0.01$), while remaining unaltered at the hospital wards.

Discussion

This observational study describes a continuously used phlebotomy QC system based on the EFLM WG-PRE guideline (9), first during an implementation phase and later in a follow-up phase. The pilot study revealed a number of items in need of focused attention and increased staff teaching, while the follow-up study showed significant improvement for the three major issues found in the pilot study, namely hand hygiene, order of draw and mixing of samples. The QC therefore seems to enable the laboratory to focus on critical key issues, improve sampling quality, and to ensure documentation of the sampling QC.

In the pilot study, hand hygiene was performed erroneously in 42% of the phlebotomies performed at both settings, while the follow-up study showed that the error rate had declined significantly to 10%. In

comparison, the EFLM WG-PRE study revealed that 25.8% of the observed phlebotomies deviated from the procedure recommended by CLSI regarding hand hygiene (9). As the error frequency was the same at the phlebotomy ward and at the hospital ward, the major reason does not seem to have been availability of hand sanitizer, which one could have suspected, but rather missing alertness on the issue. Hand hygiene is traditionally regarded as the single most important infection prevention, and all control measures available must therefore be instituted to improve adherence to the guidelines on this issue. Routine hand hygiene audit by direct observation has been recommended in order to identify local problems and improve practice (10). This is however not specifically related to blood sampling, but rather to health care personnel in general and nurses in particular, where implementation of automated group monitoring has been shown to improve hand hygiene (11). Compatible with this we found a significant improvement using the continuous observational QC described here along with a dedicated focus on the issue.

Another frequent error was the order of draw, where 21% did not follow the correct procedure in the pilot study (24% at the phlebotomy ward and 18% at the hospital ward). There are no good explanation for the significantly higher proportion of incorrect draw-order at the phlebotomy clinic compared to the hospital wards ($p=0.03$) as one would expect it to be the opposite due to working conditions etc. However, the actual difference in numbers are quite low (14 vs 12 phlebotomies), so it could be a coincidental difference. After the issue was addressed specifically, the frequency of incorrect order of draw fell to 13% at the phlebotomy ward and 11% at the hospital ward. This is a little higher than the error frequency found in the EFLM study (9), where 8.1% did not follow the correct order of draw, and a new procedure has therefore recently been introduced, where the order of draw is shown at the labels following the requisition, which makes the correct order more evident. The importance of a specific order of draw as recommended in the CLSI guideline H3-A6 (7) has often been questioned, and some studies has indicated that incorrect order of draw under ideal phlebotomy conditions does not cause contamination if a closed blood collection system is used (12,13). It is however evident that a significant frequency of sample contamination does occur (14,15), and as this study shows ideal phlebot-

omy conditions are not always present. It is therefore generally recommended to follow the order of draw as stated in the CLSI guideline H3-A6, which is also the procedure at our laboratory.

The third-most frequent error was improper mixing of the samples: 19% did not perform this appropriately at the phlebotomy ward, while the number was 25% at the hospital ward. In comparison, the error frequency in the EFLM study for this item was 30.4% (9). The significant difference between the phlebotomy settings could indicate that the working conditions at the phlebotomy ward are more aligned with proper laboratory standards, whereas sampling at the hospital wards often are performed under more tumultuous conditions. The blood sampling QC offers a possibility to document a possible critical impact on the sampling procedure and the following analysis result. Therefore, the fact that blood sampling conditions are challenging at the hospital wards can be documented in order to obtain optimal working conditions for the phlebotomists. Studies have shown that especially for coagulation testing mixing of the sample is crucial (16), and a recent study showed that 24% of the rejected tests during a year was due to a clotted specimen (17). Results of coagulation testing are often needed fast, and improper mixing must therefore be avoided, e.g. by using an automated roller mixer, which can be transported to the hospital wards (18). In the follow-up study, the error frequency had declined to 3% at the phlebotomy ward and to 13% at the hospital wards. Again, a clear focus on a specific procedure needing improvement appears to have been prosperous, but still there is room for improvement at the hospital wards.

None of these three most frequent errors were in the red zone described in the EFLM study as having the highest combination of impact and probability (9). An error in the red zone is however the patient identification process, which according to the CLSI H3-A6 is crucial, and it relies entirely on the phlebotomist to ensure that the phlebotomy is actually performed on the individual designated on the request form (7). Patient identification was performed incorrect in two instances in the pilot study and once in the follow-up study. In comparison, the frequency of patient identification error was as high as 16.1% in the EFLM study (9), being more frequent among outpatients than at the hospital wards. No matter what, this type of error is unacceptable and must be avoided at all cost.

Recently, harmonisation of the patient identification procedure was suggested by the EFLM WG-PRE in order to prevent patient identity mix-up (19), and hopefully such harmonized procedures will improve patient safety in the future.

A new item was introduced in the follow-up study, namely proper inspection of the venipuncture site to assure that bleeding indeed had stopped. The study showed that this was an important issue to include as it was almost neglected at the phlebotomy ward (only correctly performed in one out of 30 phlebotomies), and also very critical at the hospital wards (an error frequency of 69%). This strongly emphasizes that the observation scheme must evolve continuously to exploit new areas, where focus is needed. With renewed focus on this small item, it will hopefully be possible to show improvement in the error frequency for this issue also.

The follow-up study showed that continued focus on critical key issues do result in significant improvements for the three major issues found in the pilot study. It is however not enough to identify and deal with such issues, it is also necessary to maintain focus on the phlebotomy process and future alterations in this pivotal procedure. This study was not designed to demonstrate the possibility of such “maintenance value” using a QC system, but it is our strong believe that it is capable of maintaining the focus on the phlebotomy procedure as it is seen for other QC systems used by the laboratory every day. More importantly, the QC system will also be an important asset outside the laboratory: In the health care system, increasing fiscal demands and a need of faster turn-around times are inevitable, which has increased the interest in having other professionals than trained phlebotomists to perform blood sampling. A likely future scenario is therefore an increased number of decentralised blood samplings (e.g. by doctors or nurses at the hospital wards). From a laboratory point-of-view it will be essential to ascertain the phlebotomy quality, which will be possible through a blood sampling QC.

In conclusion, continuous QC of the blood sampling procedure using a structured observation scheme was feasible and useful. It revealed a number of items that were not conducted compliant with the phlebotomy guideline. Also, it supported significant improvements in the adherence to the recommended phlebotomy procedures and facilitated documentation of the phlebotomy quality.

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STRIDA-projektet dokumenterar det ökande problemet med nättdroger

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Drogtestning utnyttjas inom flera områden i samhället som en viktig objektiv metod för kontroll av alkohol- och narkotikaanvändning och för uppföljning av behandlingsinsatser. Laboratorieanalyser av narkotika inriktas huvudsakligen på ett fåtal enskilda substanser eller substansgrupper – amfetaminer, bensodiazepiner, cannabis, kokain och opiater – vilka länge varit de vanligast förekommande missbruksmedlen och som alla är narkotikaklassade (1). Under senare år har dock utbudet av narkotiska substanser ökat kraftigt, genom försäljning av nya, oklassade strukturvarianter av traditionella droger ("designerdroger") via öppen Internethandel. De nya substanserna är ofta dåligt dokumenterade ur toxicitetshänseende och inte kliniskt testade, vilket har orsakat problem i sjukvården genom ett ökande antal allvarliga förgiftningsfall och dödsfall (2). Vilka nya substanser som är inblandade förblir dock ofta okänt, eftersom de inte omfattas av den rutinmässiga drogtestningen (3).

"Nya psykoaktiva substanser", eller nättdroger

Designerdroger är inget nytt fenomen utan har förekommit tidigare, exempelvis i USA där olika fentanylanaloger orsakade många dödsfall från slutet av 1970-talet. Den nu pågående förekomsten av designerdroger, eller "nya psykoaktiva substanser" (NPS) som de numera kallas med ett gemensamt namn, startade i slutet av 2008 då örtblandningar avsedda för rökning (rökmixar) med produktnamnet "Spice", som gav cannabisliknande symtom utan att innehålla tetrahydrocannabinol, visade sig vara tillsatta med syntetiska cannabinoider (4). En sådan grupp av cannabinoider kallas JWH, efter initialerna på den kemist som ursprungligen utvecklade dem som läkemedelskandidater.

De först identifierade syntetiska cannabinoiderna utreddes och reglerades snart som narkotika, vilket i Sverige måste ske individuellt för varje substans, men Spice-produkterna ersattes då med andra, oklassade strukturvarianter vilket möjliggjorde fortsatt öppen Internethandel av "legala" droger (4). Denna katt- och rättalek har fortsatt sedan dess, och enbart i JWH-gruppen finns det fler än 450 olika strukturvarianter att välja mellan. Förutom cannabinoider har även andra psykoaktiva substansgrupper introducerats som NPS, inledningsvis i första hand olika stimulantia (exempelvis katinoner) och hallucinogener, men senare även dissociativa droger, bensodiazepiner och opioider. Sedan 2009 har sammanlagt fler än 500 nya, unika droger och hundratals försäljningshemsidor rapporterats i Europa, enligt information från EU:s narkotikakontrollorgan EMCDDA (5).

Spice har kommit att användas synonymt för alla former av rökmixar tillsatta med syntetiska cannabinoider. Andra vanliga namn på NPS är Internetdroger eller nättdroger, eftersom de ofta försäljs genom Internethandel.

STRIDA-projektet

I början av 2010 startade Karolinska Universitetslaboratoriet, Karolinska Institutet och Giftinformationscentralen (GIC) ett "Samverkansprojekt kring toxicitetsutredning och riskbedömning av Internetdroger baserat på laboratorieanalyser" (STRIDA) i syfte att samla information om förekomst, farlighet och metabolism av NPS, samt sprida kunskap om detta oroväckande drogfenomen (6). Ett annat viktigt mål var att utveckla analysmetoder för NPS, vilka saknades för de flesta nya substanser. STRIDA var en utvidgning av ett pågående projekt om växt- och svampdroger (7).

I STRIDA-projektet insamlas och analyseras blod- och urinprover från patienter med akuta förgift-

ningssymtom som misstänks vara orsakade av NPS. Projektet inkluderar fall från landets akutmottagningar och intensivvårdsavdelningar, efter inledande konsultation med GIC, och drogtestningen är kostnadsfri. Klinisk information från analytiskt bekräftade NPS-förgiftningar sammanställs sedan för utvärdering av substansernas symtombilder och farlighet (8, 9).

Analys av nätdroger

Drogtestning av narkotika sker traditionellt i två steg, först en preliminär sållningsanalys ("screening") som ofta utförs med ospecifika immunokemiska metoder, och sedan, vid ett positivt screeningresultat, en bekräftande specifik kvantitativ analys ("verifikation") med masspektrometri (MS). Detta analysförfarande är välutvecklat för de traditionella missbruksmedlen men saknades för NPS (1).

Under utvecklingen av analysrutiner för NPS inom STRIDA-projektet visade det sig visserligen att några immunokemiska rutinmetoder för klassiska drogsustanser ibland kunde utnyttjas även för preliminär screening av NPS (10, 11), eftersom antikropparna inte klarade av att skilja på de ofta snarlika kemiska strukturerna (korsreaktion). Rutinen för verifikationsanalys med en multimetod baserad på vätskekromatografi kopplat till tandem-MS (LC-MS/MS) blev dock snabbt ohållbar (12), beroende på det stora antalet substanser som löpande måste introduceras och valideras. Under 2014 och 2015 rapporterades årligen ungefär 100 nya substanser i Europa, det vill säga i genomsnitt två i veckan (5). Lösningen blev att istället övergå till en multiscreeningmetod baserad på högupplösande MS (LC-HRMS) (13) eller, för substanser med identisk exakt massa och snarlika retentionstid och för verifikation, LC-HRMS/MS.

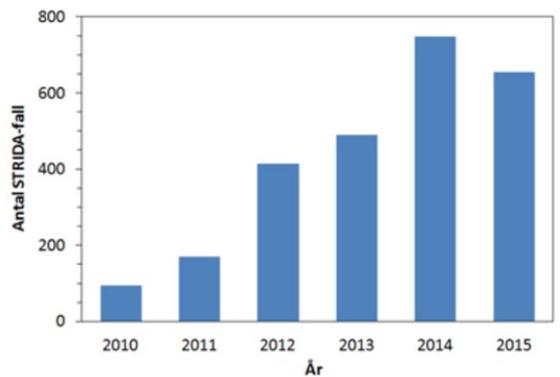
I dagsläget omfattas totalt fler än 300 olika missbrukssustanser (NPS, klassiska droger, växt- och svampdroger, läkemedel, eller deras metaboliter) av analyser i STRIDA-projektet. De nyutvecklade analysmetoderna för NPS har även kommit till nytta för rutinmässig drogtestning, exempelvis inom beroendevården där användning av nya missbruksmedel utgör ett växande problem.

Resultat från STRIDA-projektet

Från starten 2010 till och med 2015 har drygt 2600 förgiftningsfall som misstänkts involvera NPS från akutmottagningar i hela landet inkluderats i

STRIDA-projektet. Antalet fall ökade stadigt under de första åren till en högsta årsiffra på 749 under 2014 (Figur 1), vilket alltså motsvarar i genomsnitt två allvarliga förgiftningar varje dag i Sverige. Det ska påpekas att färre än hälften av samtliga telefonkonsultationer från sjukvården till GIC blir STRIDA-fall, eftersom det också krävs att blod- och urinprover skickas in för drogtestning. Det verkliga antalet allvarliga NPS-förgiftningar har följaktligen förmodligen varit minst det dubbla. Den höga årsiffran för 2014 beror sannolikt på att det under hösten det året inträffade ett stort antal allvarliga förgiftningar med nya, högpotenta syntetiska cannabinoider, till exempel MDMB-CHMICA, 5F-CUMYL-PINACA och FUB-AKB48, vilket resulterade i allmänt ökat fokus på NPS-problemet.

Åldersspannet på patienterna i STRIDA-projektet under hela tidsperioden var 8-71 (median 24) år, varav närmare 60% var 25 år eller yngre. Tre fjärdedelar av patienterna var män. I ungefär 80% av alla blod- och urinprover har en eller flera NPS och/eller traditionella drogsustanser påvisats. Av nya substanser har hundratals syntetiska varianter tillhörande de psykoaktiva kemiska klasserna hittats. Förutom redan nämnda cannabinoider har speciellt förekomsten av opioider på NPS-marknaden skapat stora hälsoproblem, eftersom denna substansgrupp, med typiska och livsfarliga överdossymtom som andningsdepression och medvetandesänkning, är starkt förknippad med drogrelaterad dödlighet (14).



Figur 1. Årlig statistik över antalet misstänkta allvarliga förgiftningsfall med nya psykoaktiva substanser ("nätdroger") från akutmottagningar och intensivvårdsavdelningar i Sverige vilka har analyserats i STRIDA-projektet.

En sådan NPS-opioid är MT-45, en läkemedelskandidat från 1970-talet, som under 2013 introducerades som nätdrog. MT-45 visade sig i vissa fall ha flera allvarliga biverkningar som dövhet, hårfall och albinism, inflammation i hud och hårsäckar, och i efterförloppet även operationskrävande katarakt (15, 16). Andra farliga opioider som blivit allt vanligare är olika strukturvarianter av fentanyl som är extremt potenta substanser vilket innebär stor risk för överdosering och dödsfall. Substanserna säljs ofta i form av nässpray där varje produkt innehåller många dödliga doser (Figur 2). Under de senaste två åren har det inträffat många allvarliga förgiftningar och dödsfall med fentanylanaloger, senast bland annat kopplade till akrylfentanyl (17, 18).



Figur 2. Oklassade strukturvarianter av den potenta opioiden fentanyl har under senare år sålts som nya psykoaktiva substanser ("nätdroger"), ofta i form av nässpray där varje flaska innehåller många dödliga doser.

Konklusion

Genom STRIDA-projektet har en välfungerande rutin för löpande övervakning av NPS inom sjukvården etablerats. Den nyutvecklade analysmetodiken baserad på multikomponent-HRMS gör det möjligt att rutinmässigt påvisa ett stort antal nya substanser i urin- och blodprov, vilket inte var möjligt tidigare. Snabb tillgång till referensmaterial är dock ett ständigt problem. Strategin att fokusera på förgiftningsfall inom akutsjukvården identifierar sannolikt "toppen av ett isberg" men samtidigt också de farligaste substanserna. Sammantaget utgör resultaten från STRIDA-projektet ett värdefullt komplement till andra kunskapskällor vid farlighetsbedömning av NPS, som exempelvis resultat från rättsmedicinska undersökningar av drogrelaterade dödsfall.

En viktig anledning till STRIDA-projektets framgång är sannolikt att drogtestningen varit kostnadsfri för sjukvården, vilket möjliggjorts genom forskningsbidrag från Folkhälsomyndigheten. Från 2016 avslutades dock den finansieringen varför projektet har tvingats gå på sparlåga och avslutas nu helt.

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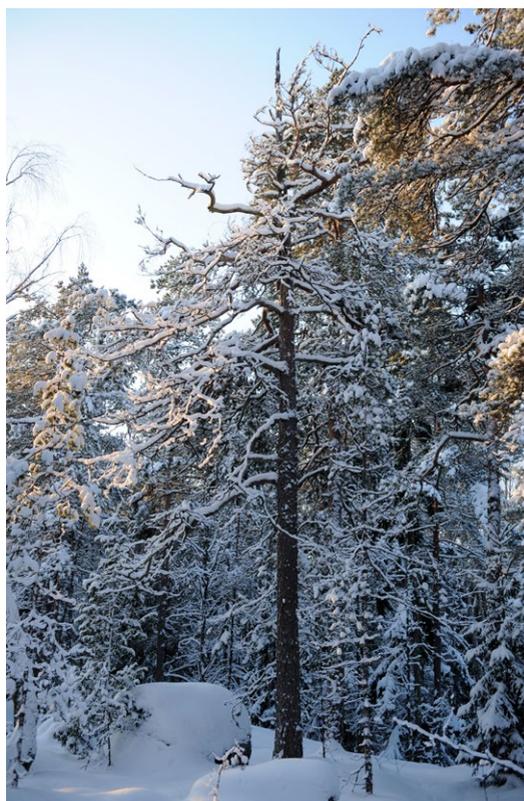


Foto: Henrik Alfthan.

For meget af det gode: spædbørn forgiftede af D-vitamintilskud

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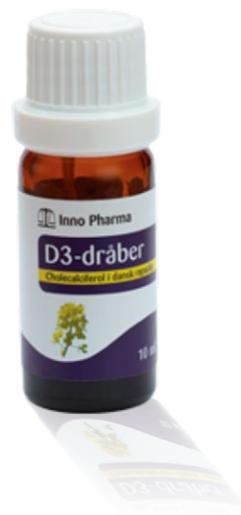
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Vi kan som læger på de klinisk biokemiske afdelinger få skudt i skoene, at vi gemmer os væk med vores analyser og forskning. En alvorlig sag fra i sommer viser imidlertid, at vi kan spille en central rolle ved håndtering af potentielle medicinske katastrofer. I sommeren 2016 blev der i Danmark konstateret flere tilfælde af D-vitaminforgiftning hos børn i alderen 0-2 år pga. utilsigtet overdosering af D-vitamintilskud. Vi beskriver her, hvordan vi i Østdanmark (Region Hovedstaden og Sjælland) håndterede sagen.

Kort om sagens forløb

Fredag den 22. juli alarmerede Sundhedsstyrelsen (SST) og Styrelsen for Patientsikkerhed om, at virksomheden Inno Pharma, der producerer en række kosttilskud på økologisk basis, havde solgt D3-vitamin-dråber med 75 gange højere koncentration af D-vitamin end deklareret (1, 2). Det blev opdaget på baggrund af en svær forgiftning påvist hos et barn indlagt på børneafdelingen på Odense Universitetshospital. D3-vitamin-dråbeproduktet (Figur 1) var blevet solgt i detailhandlen og over internettet i et omfang af ca. 300 flasker i alt, over en periode på



Figur 1:
Inno Pharmas
D-dråbeprodukt.

fire måneder. SST udsendte den 25. juli en skrivelse via regionernes akutte medicinske koordinationscentre (AMK) til hospitalerne i Danmark. Den foreskrev, at børn, der var blevet givet de pågældende D-vitamin-dråber, skulle have taget blodprøver til måling af ioniseret calcium og D-vitamin. Beskeden formidlede AMK dog ikke til de biokemiske afdelinger, som hørte om sagen via patienter og praktiserende læger. Nye guidelines fra SST blev udsendt d. 27. juli, hvor en repræsentant fra klinisk biokemi havde været inddraget ved udarbejdelsen (3). Guidelines blev forsøgt udbredt via Dansk Selskab for Klinisk Biokemi (DSKB) og lokalt regionalt, men grundet sommerferie skete det med nogle dages forsinkelse.

Hvordan løste vi udfordringen på de klinisk biokemiske afdelinger?

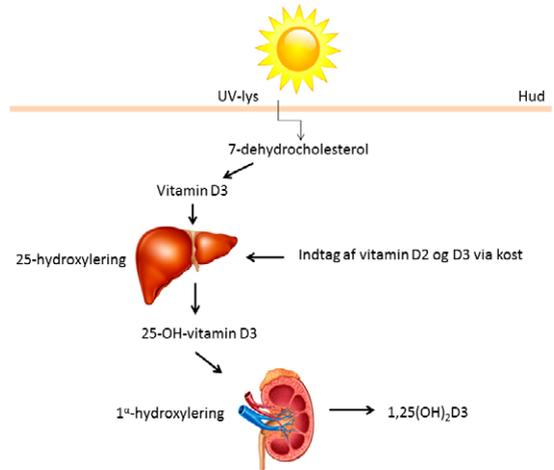
På de klinisk biokemiske afdelinger var vi involverede både i diagnostikken og dermed afklaringen af problemets omfang, og i opfølgningen af de forgiftede børn. Prøvetagning på små børn er udfordrende, og vi vidste ikke hvor mange patienter, vi kunne forvente i de enkelte ambulatorier. For at opnå et tilstrækkeligt blodvolumen til analyserne, måtte bioanalytikerne ty til kapillærblodprøve i hælen på nogle af de helt små børn. Kapillærblodprøverne er 'åbne' prøver,

og pH stiger derfor. Stigende pH vil øge andelen af proteinbundet calcium og dermed udløse et fald i koncentrationen af frit calcium (6). Et højt pH vanskeliggør måling af ioniseret calcium på ABL, da der ikke automatisk korrigeres for pH ved $\text{pH} > 7,60$. For at få et nogenlunde skøn af niveauet af ioniseret calcium, måtte vi derfor foretage beregning af ioniseret calcium ud fra formlen (Radiometer):

$$\text{Ca}^{2+} (7,4) = \text{Ca}^{2+} [1 - 0,53 \times (7,40 - \text{pH})]$$

Det var nødvendigt at udgive svar med forbehold til rekvirenten i denne akutte situation for at kunne håndtere de forgiftede børn i henhold til SSTs anbefalinger. Prøverne med højt indhold af 25-OH-vitamin D3 (eller -D3+D2) (i nogle tilfælde > 2000 nmol/L), måtte fortyndes ud og genanalyseres. En del af de høje værdier blev præciseret vha. massespektrometri. Det var nødvendigt for klinikerne at følge niveauet af 25-OH-vitamin D og effekten af deres behandling, og evt. systemmæssige spærringer på gentagne D-vitaminanalyser skulle derfor løbende fjernes.

I Danmark anbefaler SST tilskud af D-vitamin til personer i risiko for mangel, herunder børn i alderen 0-2 år. Anbefalingen er 10 µg (400 IE) som D-vitamin-dråber (5). Indholdet i fem dråber af D3-dråbeproduktet fra Inno Pharma var 75 gange højere end den anbefalede dosis til børn i alderen 0-2 år. På D3-dråbeproduktet var fem dråber angivet som den anbefalede dosis, men ikke hvor meget D-vitamin det svarede til. De børn, hvis forældre har fulgt Sundhedsstyrelsens anbefalinger vedrørende D-vitamintilskud, har indtaget 750 µg i stedet for 10 µg dagligt. Toksisk dosis for børn < 9 år er angivet til > 250 µg (10.000 IE) dagligt i > 1 uge (3). SST anslog i august, at ca. 150 børn under 2 år havde indtaget de fejlproducerede D-dråber. Heraf havde 87 et D-vitamniveau > 150 nmol/L, hvoraf 18 børn havde svær hypercalcæmi med ioniseret calcium $> 1,49$ mmol/L (SST).



Figur 2. Dannelse og omsætning af D-vitamin.

Kort om dannelse og omsætning af D-vitamin

D-vitamin spiller sammen med parathyreoideahormon (PTH) en central rolle for reguleringen af koncentrationen af frit calcium. Mængden af frit calcium er nøje reguleret, og selv små forskydninger kan være klinisk betydende og større forskydninger livstruende. Den primære kilde til D-vitamin er den endogene produktion, der sker ved eksponering af huden for sollys. En mindre andel stammer fra kosten, og endelig indtages en varierende mængde som kosttilskud. D-vitamin kan opdeles i cholecalciferol (vitamin D3) og ergocalciferol (vitamin D2). En skematisk oversigt over dannelse og omsætning af D-vitamin er vist i Figur 2. Den aktive metabolit calcitriol ($1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$) dannes ved 1α -hydroxylering i nyrerne, hvilket er stramt reguleret af PTH og underlagt negativ feedback af $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$, calcium, fosfat og fibroblast-vækstfaktor. Det betyder, at koncentrationen af $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ ikke nødvendigvis er svært forhøjet ved hypercalcæmi eller direkte korreleret til koncentrationen af frit calcium i blodet (7). Halveringstiden af cirkulerende 25-OH-vitamin D3 er 2-3 uger (6), hvorimod den i fedtvæv er omkring to måneder. Halveringstiden for den aktive metabolit $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ i blod er blot femten timer (8).

Hvorfor er et højt indtag af D-vitamin farligt?

$1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ inaktiveres af enzymet 24-hydroxylase. Kapaciteten af dette enzym er mindre hos spædbørn end hos voksne individer. Dermed er spædbørn i

særlig risiko for forhøjet niveau af 1,25(OH)₂D₃ ved større indtag som kosttilskud (9). Spædbørn ernæres af modermælk/modermælkserstatning, som er rig på calcium, og der kan potentielt absorberes store mængder calcium på kort tid, som vil vedligeholde hypercalcæmien. Der er gennem tiden rapporteret flere tilfælde af D-vitaminforgiftning hos enkeltpersoner eller mindre grupper af både voksne og børn (10-22). Symptomerne på forgiftning hos børn er relativt uspecifikke og relaterer sig til hypercalcæmien. Der ses nedsat appetit, dårlig trivsel, sløvhed, irritabilitet, dehydrering og polyuri. Hypercalcæmi kan resultere i udfældninger af calcium i nyrer og centralnervesystemet samt ved meget høje calciumniveauer kardielle arytmier og hjertestop. Langtidseffekterne af overdosering af D-vitamin til mennesker er ikke klarlagt. Risikoen for varige skader på nyrer og i centralnervesystemet er ikke velbeskrevet, og humane forsøg er uetiske. Overdoseringsforsøg på dyr har resulteret i arteriosklerose på baggrund af mineralisering, samt knoglesmerter og muskulær svaghed (23).

Regler om kontrol af kosttilskud versus lægemidler

Producenten af D₃-vitaminråberne markedsførte produktet som et kosttilskud (24). Kosttilskud beskrives af Lægemiddelstyrelsen som "... produkter, der supplerer den normale kost med næringsstoffer, fx almindelige vitamin- og mineralpræparater". Kosttilskud skal overholde fødevarerlovgivningen og under denne *Kosttilskudsbekendtgørelsen*, men kosttilskud skal *ikke* godkendes før markedsføringen (25). Ifølge Fødevarerstyrelsens bekendtgørelse om kosttilskud må indholdet af D-vitamin i kosttilskud maksimalt være 10 µg som anbefalet daglig dosis. Anmeldelsen af et kosttilskud til den lokale fødevareregion skal ske ved, at der skal indsendes "en model af den mærkning, der anvendes for varen". Der er *ikke* krav til regelmæssig kontrol af indholdet af aktivt stof, hverken i den danske lovgivning (26) eller i et tilhørende EU-direktiv (27). Forgiftningssagen beskrevet her viser, at denne udeladelse af kontrol kan have alvorlige konsekvenser.

Hvad kan vi lære af denne sag?

Vi beskriver her et eksempel på, hvordan de klinisk biokemiske afdelinger kan udfylde en central rolle ved håndtering af potentielle katastrofer berørende andre specialer og afdelinger, og at vi kan blive 'glemte'

i planlægningen af et katastrofeberedskab. Tidlig orientering og involvering af klinisk biokemiske afdelinger bør ske ved en fremtidig lignende sag, om nødvendigt på nationalt plan. På de klinisk biokemiske afdelinger var vi i direkte kontakt med rekvirenter af forhøjede D-vitaminanalyser, og vi kommunikerede løbende med regionens børneafdelinger. Samarbejdet mellem de biokemiske afdelinger og børneafdelingerne har været velfungerende og fleksibelt. Overalt var der stor velvillighed til at bidrage og sikre den bedst mulige håndtering af forløbet. I skrivende stund er de fleste af de involverede børn i et opfølgende forløb på deres lokale børneafdeling og er blevet tilbudt at indgå i et forskningsprojekt iværksat nationalt med en repræsentant fra klinisk biokemi (Fie Juhl Vojdeman). Dermed sikres det, at vi får størst muligt fagligt udbytte af forgiftningssagen i form af ny viden, og at evt. D-vitaminforgiftede patienter i fremtiden får den optimale behandling. Kontrollen med kosttilskud har tydeligt vist sig at være utilstrækkelig. Fremadrettet bør disse produkter enten klassificeres som lægemidler og høre ind under gældende lovgivning herfor inklusiv krav til batchkontrol, eller reglerne for kontrol af kosttilskud bør tilføjes krav til batchkontrol. Sagen forventes at få et politisk efterspil.

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SAMSUNG

Kobalaminstatus i svangerskap, ammeperiode og spedbarnsalder

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Kobalaminmangel har tradisjonelt vært knyttet til eldre mennesker og assosiert med ulike nevrodegenerative tilstander, som gir nevropsykiatriske symptomer før de typiske hematologiske endringene manifesterer seg med anemi, økt MCV og hypergranulerte neutrofile leukocytter [1]. I den senere tid har det imidlertid kommet flere rapporter som tyder på at kobalaminmangel er hyppig også hos unge kvinner [2] og spedbarn [3]. En adekvat kobalaminstatus er nødvendig for normal fertilitet og et godt svangerskapsutfall og mangel er assosiert med økt risiko for preeklampsi, prematur fødsel, lav fødselsvekt og nevrallrørsdefekter hos barnet [4]. Kobalaminmangel i spedbarnsalderen er vist å kunne ha en negativ påvirkning på psykomotorisk utvikling [5].

Spedbarnets kobalaminstatus er avhengig av mors status under svangerskapet og postpartum, så lenge barnet fullammes [3, 6]. Svangerskap og spedbarnsalder, og til en viss grad også ammeperiode, er preget av fysiologiske endringer som påvirker biokjemiske parametre i varierende grad [7]. Tolkning av kobalaminstatus kan derfor være vanskelig hos gravide og ammende kvinner og spedbarn..

Endringer av kobalaminstatus i svangerskap og ammeperiode

Serum kobalamin reduseres under hele svangerskapet og stiger postpartum [8]. Det reduserte serumnivået i

svangerskapet skyldes økt plasmavolum, økt glomerulær filtrasjon [7] og endret nivå av bindeproteinet haptokorrin, som følge av økt østrogennivå [9]. I tillegg taper mor kobalamin ved at vitaminet transporteres aktivt over placenta og lagres i fosteret, og nivået i navlestrengsblod i siste trimester er 2-3 ganger høyere enn i maternelt blod [10].

Begge de metabolske markørene homocystein (tHcy) og metylmalonsyre (MMA) er lavere i svangerskapet enn hos ikke gravide kvinner og de stiger postpartum [11]. Nivået av tHcy er redusert allerede fra svangerskapsuke 8 og reduseres ytterligere til 30-60% av ikke-gravide verdier i andre trimester [12]. Deretter holder tHcy seg stabil eller stiger frem mot fødselen [13], men tHcy nivået er lavere hos gravide som tar kobalamin eller folattilskudd i svangerskapet.

MMA nivået er redusert i første og andre trimester og stiger i tredje til nivå ofte over det man ser hos ikke-gravide kvinner [13, 14]. Holotranskobalaminnivået er rapportert å være stabilt [13] eller stige [15] i svangerskapet, med en reduksjon postpartum [16].

Hemodynamiske og hormonelle svangerskapsinduserte endringer antas å være normalisert 5 til 6 uker etter fødselen [17]. Imidlertid er amming assosiert med hormonelle endringer, som for eksempel økning av prolaktinnivået [18]. Nivået av både kobalamin, tHcy og MMA stiger postpartum og ofte til verdier over det man ser hos ikke-gravide kvinner [8, 19]. Kvinner som ammer har således et høyt nivå både av kobalamin og av de metabolske markørene. Kobalamin i morsmelk er korrelert til mors serumnivå og en mulig forklaring på de biokjemiske endringene man ser postpartum, er at amming medvirker til at intracellulært kobalamin frigjøres til blodet, noe som sekundært vil medføre en økning av kobalaminnivået i morsmelken, men da på bekostning av mors



Foto: Christine Roth.

intracellulære kobalaminstatus. Mors kobalaminnivå holdes stabilt utover i ammeperioden, men er redusert ved langvarig amming [20]. Kobalaminnivået i morsmelk er høyt de første ukene etter fødsel, og reduseres utover i ammeperioden [16].

Endringer i kobalaminstatus hos spedbarn og eldre barn

Nivåene av kobalamin, folat, tHcy og MMA endrer seg betydelig gjennom barnealderen. I løpet av de første ukene etter fødsel reduseres kobalaminnivået i serum, samtidig som tHcy og MMA nivåene stiger [21]. De laveste kobalamin og de høyeste tHcy og MMA verdiene ses mellom 6 uker og 6 måneder. Etter 6-8 måneders alder stiger serum kobalamin og når en topp ved 3-7 år, mens tHcy synker og forblir

lavt frem til det gradvis begynner å stige ved 7 års alder. MMA nivået stiger i ukene etter fødsel og kan, spesielt hos barn som ammes, nå svært høye nivåer, uavhengig av kobalaminnivået. MMA er derfor ingen god parameter på kobalaminstatus hos spedbarn. Etter spedbarnsalderen faller MMA og forblir lav gjennom hele barndommen ($< 0,26 \mu\text{mol/L}$). Folatnivået er svært høyt hos spedbarn og faller først i 1-3 års alder gradvis mot de verdiene man ser i serum hos eldre barn og voksne [21].

I spedbarnsalderen er således folatnivået høyt, mens kobalaminnivået er lavt. Dette er bakgrunnen for at tHcy, som påvirkes både av kobalamin og folatstatus, hovedsakelig er en kobalaminmarkør i spedbarnsalderen, mens den hos eldre barn og voksne hovedsakelig er en folatmarkør.

Kobalaminmangel hos spedbarn og effekt av tilskudd

Kobalaminnivået i morsmelk reduseres fra 2-4 måneder postpartum og flere studier har vist at kobalaminmangel er vanlig hos spedbarn som fullammes utover 4 måneder [16, 22]. Omkring 66 % av norske fullammede spedbarn under 6 måneders alder har et moderat lavt serum kobalamin og et høyt plasma tHcy, forenlig med en biokjemisk kobalaminmangel [21].

Symptomer på kobalaminmangel hos barn varierer med barnets alder, med grad og varighet av mangel. Publiserte kasuistikker har vist at alvorlig kobalaminmangel kan gi permanente kognitive utviklingsdefekter [5]. Også moderat kobalaminmangel hos spedbarn er vist å gi diffuse og uspesifikke symptomer, som irritabilitet, forsinket motorisk utvikling, spisevegring, obstipasjon og manglende trivsel [23].

Randomiserte intervensjonsstudier med kobalamin-tilskudd har vist at det er mulig både å endre den biokjemiske profilen og bedre grovmotorisk utvikling hos spedbarn med en moderat kobalaminmangel [22, 24, 25]. Spedbarn som ved 6 ukers alder fikk 400 µg kobalamin intramuskulært, hadde ved 4 måneders alder et 39% lavere plasma tHcy nivå enn de barna som ikke fikk tilskudd. I gruppen som fikk kobalamin var 97,5 persentilen for plasma tHcy 6,5 µmol/L ved 4 måneders alder, og dette nivået er foreslått som en aksjonsgrense for kobalaminmangel hos spedbarn [24]. Barn som fikk kobalamin viste en signifikant bedring i grovmotorisk utvikling allerede etter 3 uker [22, 25], noe som er en indikasjon på at en adekvat kobalaminstatus i spedbarnsalderen er viktig for normal motorisk utvikling.

Konklusjon

En adekvat kobalaminstatus er viktig for et optimalt svangerskapsutfall og utvikling av spedbarn. Kobalaminmangel er vist å være hyppig, også hos unge mennesker og spedbarn i vår del av verden. I svangerskap og spedbarnsperiode skjer det store fysiologiske endringer som kan vanskeliggjøre tolkningen av kobalaminstatus. Som et ledd i oppfølgingen av gravide kvinner og spedbarn, er det derfor nødvendig å etablere spesifikke aksjonsgrenser for kobalaminmangel hos disse pasientgruppene.

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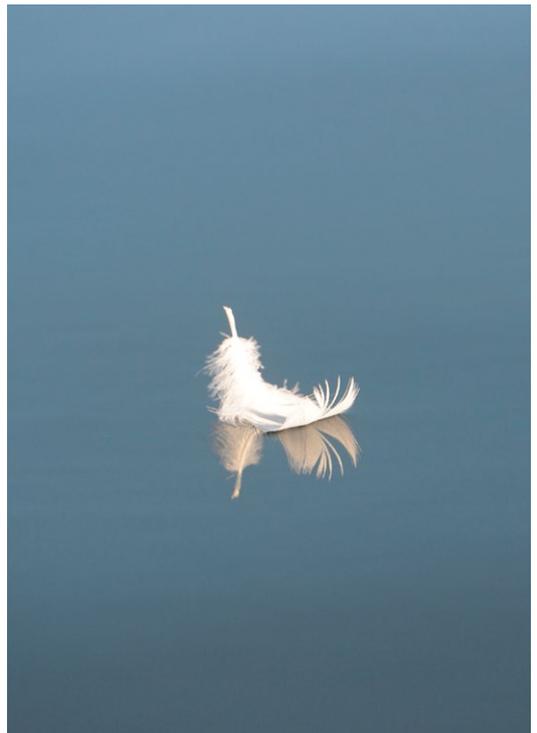


Foto: Henrik Alfthan.

Medisinsk biokjemisk forskning i Norge anno 2016

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Fagområdet ”medisinsk biokjemi og fysiologi” ble formelt godkjent som medisinsk spesialitet i 1946. Etter det har spesialiteten endret navn, via klinisk kjemi, til medisinsk biokjemi. Det meste av laboratorieaktiviteten på sykehus var i de tidlige år knyttet til de kliniske

avdelinger der hver avdeling hadde sitt lille laboratorium. På Ullevål sykehus ble det i tillegg til de lokale laboratorier etablert et Sentrallaboratorium så tidlig som 1937, mens Rikshospitalet fikk sin egen laboratorieavdeling først i 1953. Asbjørn Følling ble sistnevnte avdelings første sjef samt landets første professor i medisinsk biokjemi. Det var først i begynnelsen av 1960-årene at forskningsaktiviteten innen fagområdet medisinsk biokjemi tok av og ikke unaturlig var det fokus på regulering av biokjemiske/metabolske prosesser særlig vinklet mot arvelige stoffskiftesykdommer. For eksempel ble Institutt for klinisk biokjemi (IKB) UiO/Rikshospitalet etablert i 1961 hvor det i tidens løp er påvist flere nye arvelige stoffskiftesykdommer og som var pionerer innen feltet, også internasjonalt. I denne tiden ble det på alle universitetssykehusene etablert forskerstillinger med rekruttering av entusiastiske unge talenter og en betydelig økning i forskningsaktivitet. Medisinsk biokjemi har alltid blitt sett på som en medisinsk spesialitet som gir god anledning til forskning og utvikling og har tradisjonelt vært attraktiv for forskningsaktive leger.

I dag er det i ”Norsk forening for medisinsk biokjemi” (fagmedisinsk forening under Den norske legeförening) 140 medlemmer og av disse har 72 doktorgrad (PhD). På universitetssykehusene er det totalt fire professor I-, ni professor II- og fem førsteamanuensis stillinger.

Den strukturerte og langsiktige forskningsaktiviteten foregår naturlig nok i all hovedsak på univer-

sitetssykehusene. I 2015 ble det fra de medisinsk biokjemiske miljøene på universitetssykehusene publisert 103 artikler i internasjonale indekserte tidsskrifter og for 32 av disse var første- og/eller sisteforfatter fra fagområdet medisinsk biokjemi. Dette er i god overenstemmelse med resultatene fra en undersøkelse fra 2005 som viste at bare 20% av artikler publisert fra de medisinsk biokjemiske miljøer på de store sykehus i Sverige utgikk primært fra denne spesialiteten (1). En senere upublisert undersøkelse som omfattet 30 sykehus i Norden viste likeledes at ca. 30% av publiserte artikler hadde førsteforfatter fra medisinsk biokjemi, og at det ikke var forskjell mellom universitetssykehus og andre større sykehus. Dette kan tolkes dithen at for 70-80% av publiserte artikler er medisinsk biokjemi ”bare” del-leverandør av analyseresultater til klinisk initierte studier og i beste fall medforfatter på publikasjoner. Dette kan synes som mye. Men, det er ikke unaturlig at medisinsk biokjemi er involvert i kliniske prosjekter. Det ble i 1996 hevdet at laboratorieanalyser er viktig for 60-70% av alle diagnoser som stilles (2). Med bakgrunn i den betydelige teknologiske utviklingen som har preget laboratoriefagene de siste ti-år er denne andelen sannsynligvis betydelig høyere i dag. Laboratorieanalyser er selvsagt sentral i en stor del av den kliniske forskning og medvirkning som aktiv medforfatter fra laboratoriene er viktig for alle parter, under forutsetning av at Vancouverreglene følges. Laboratorieavdelingen bør involveres så tidlig som mulig i et klinisk prosjekt, helst i forbindelse med utforming av protokoll, og senere i registrering og prosessering av data samt utforming av manuskript. Det er imidlertid en bevisst strategi i fagmiljøet at det er nødvendig å satse mer på egeninitiert forskning.

I 2007 ble de vitenskapelige programmene på to kongresser (Nordisk og Europeisk) gjennomgått for å kartlegge fokusområder for forskning og utvikling (3) og følgende generelle problemstillinger peket seg ut: klinisk nytte av nye biomarkører, sammenligning

av analytiske metoder, forbedring av metoder og prosedyrer, kvalitetssikring, forbedring av referansematerialer, etablering av biobanker, og utvikling, utprøving og etablering av ny teknologi. De siste årene har det vært mye fokus på nye gentester og nyvinninger innen kromatografi (massespektrometri) og avansert flowcytometri, samt fokus på genomics, proteomics og metabolomics og den tilhørende behandling av "big data". For å få et bedre bilde av nåtid og fremtid er det nedenfor gitt i kortform noen eksempler på de forskningsområdene som de medisinske biokjemiske miljøene på norske universitetssykehus angir å arbeide med nå:

- Studier av metabolomet og proteomet i biologiske væsker ved endokrinologiske sykdommer og medfødte metabolske sykdommer
- Metodeutvikling av immunoassays: Etablering og validering av nye analyser spesielt med tanke på analysering av legemidler og tumormarkører
- Studier av ekstracellulære vesikler i biologiske væsker
- Inflammasjons og koagulasjonsmarkører ved meningokokksykdom
- Identifisering og karakterisering av hemoglobino-patier
- Hormonell dysfunksjon etter kreftbehandling
- Metylerende argininvarianter og deres betydning som kardiovaskulære risikomarkører
- Statistisk kvalitetskontroll i laboratoriet – utvikling av forbedrede metoder
- Laboratoriediagnostikk av svangerskapsdiabetes
- Regulering av jernstoffsiftet, særlig i forhold til anemi og hemokromatose
- Betydning av komplementsystemet for koagulasjonsaktivering i en human fullblodsmodell for sepsis
- Tannhelse, kosthold, inflammasjon og biomarkører ved akutt intermitterende porfyri
- Betydningen av mikro RNA og komplementsystemet for inflammasjon i en human fullblodsmodell
- Bruk av biomarkører i forbindelse med sykdom i hjerte, nyresykdom, porfyrisykdom, allergi, koagulasjonsforstyrrelser samt mikronæringsstoffer og preanalyse
- Nytt av ulike betennelsesmarkører (CD64, PCT, hepcidin, copeptin) ved postoperativ infeksjon
- Undersøkelse av SNPs i osteopontin genet som markører for utvikling av brystkreft

- Påvisning av blaster ved automatisert differensial-telling
- Kolorektal kreft: tidlig deteksjon ved hjelp av ikke-invasive biomarkører og overvåking av intestinal bakterieflora
- Analyse av glykert albumin hos pasienter med diabetes mellitus hvor HbA1c ikke er egnet
- Miljøgifter og helseskade
- Serumkonsentrasjonen av vitamin Ds betydning ved ulike sykdomstilstander og calsitriols cellulære effekter.

Hvilken kvalitet har så medisinsk biokjemisk forskning? Det er vanskelig å bestemme og beskrive kvaliteten på forskningsaktivitet. H-indeks oppfattes av mange som et brukbart, men ikke optimalt mål på forskningskompetanse. Aktive medlemmer i "Norsk forening for medisinsk biokjemi" hadde i 2012 en gjennomsnittlig h-indeks på 10 (range 0-29) hvorav de med universitets tilknytning (professorer og amanuenser) hadde 18 (3-29) og overleger uten universitetstilknytning hadde 5 (0-23). Gjennomsnittlig antall publikasjoner var i de respektive tre gruppene 22, 68 og 15. Dette sier kanskje lite fordi det er intet



å sammenligne med. Denne type bibliometriske data finnes ikke for andre spesialiteter i Norge, og det finnes lite data internasjonalt. Leseren kan selvsagt sammenligne resultatene ovenfor med sin egen (og kollegers) h-indeks og dermed få et visst inntrykk av nivået på forskningskompetanse innen medisinsk biokjemi (www.webofknowledge.com). Det er imidlertid klare indikasjoner på at kompetansenivået og forskningsaktiviteten innen medisinsk biokjemisk i Danmark er høyere enn i Norge vurdert ut fra h-indeks og antall publikasjoner. Professor I har i gjennomsnitt publisert 223 artikler i Danmark (4) mens tilsvarende tall er 96 i Norge (3). Noe av denne forskjellen kan skyldes at forskning er organisert ulikt i Norge og Danmark, ved at "medisinsk biokjemi" inkluderer mer basal forskning i sistnevnte enn det som er tradisjon i Norge.

Hvilken retning bør medisinsk biokjemisk forskning ha for fremtiden? For det første må man være



Foto: Henrik Alfthan.

bevisst at en stor del av resultatene fra de mange samarbeidsprosjektene som til enhver tid går i laboratoriene er nyttig både for fagmiljøene, helsevesenet og pasienten. Det er viktig at det fortsettes med denne type samarbeidsforskning, og det bør gjøres mer.

For det andre må det fokuseres mer på egeninitierte prosjekter. Det er vanligvis klinikken som tar initiativ til samarbeidsprosjekter hvor laboratoriet bidrar med betydelige ressurser både intellektuelt, økonomisk og praktisk mens gevinsten er begrenset til et navn midt i en lang rekke medforfattere. Det bør være vel så naturlig at de kliniske avdelinger bidrar med pasienter til laboratoriets egne, velfunderte prosjekter, eksempelvis ved utprøving av nye biomarkører.

Og helt til slutt: Den mest siterte artikkel noensinne innen alle fagområder er OH Lowrys artikkel fra 1951 som beskriver metode for proteinkvantitering med 326.750 siteringer (Web Of Knowledge juli 2016) (5). Den mest siterte artikkel i Norge er kanskje ikke uventet også fra laboratoriemedisin med 14.970 siteringer (6). Den omhandler Arne Bøyums utvikling av metode for separering av blodceller. Laboratoriemedisin har noe å strekke seg etter.

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Artikkelen er tidligere publisert i "LVS Info" nr. 3, 2016

Den vandrande vetenskapsmannen

Hepatit som konst - konst som hepatit

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Levern må, för oss biokemister, vara metabolismens konung men när kungen abdikerar väntar skammen.

Det är heroiskt att överleva en hjärtinfarkt, men skamligt att stå i kö för en levertransplantation. Hepatologi doftar surt av massivt alkoholintag, intravenöst missbruk, oskyddat sex. Och nu – med dagens explosion av fettlever – soffsittande, sockermissbruk och övervikt. Så det

har ansetts lämpligast att diskret dölja de drabbade, undanhålla diagnosen från alla utom de närmast sörjande. För få tillstånd är så undangömd som leversjukdom.

Nu vill hepatologin börja synas. Det vill patientföreningarna också. Kan diabetologerna och diabetikerna få plats i ramplyuset och tillförsäkras tillbörlig respektabilitet så kan väl också hepatologin.

De finns goda skäl. Hepatit B och C skall nu utrotas, det lovar WHO, med vaccination och med nya läkemedel. Leversjukdomarna som orsakas av vår tids



Julia Llerana "Undetectable" (Foto: Per Simonsson)

levnadsvanor skall upp på distriktsläkarnas agenda så att framtida cirroser kan förebyggas. Leverpatienterna skall inte längre förpassas till gastroenterologins väntrum.

European Association for the Study of Liver har startat ett spännande projekt. De vill blanda konst och vetenskap, konst och medicin. Närmare bestämt hepatit C. De vill ge ett nytt perspektiv på sjukdomen. Tillsammans med konststudenter i Valencia har de skapat ett internationellt nätverk av unga konstnärer som gett sig ut ur ateljéerna, träffat riktiga patienter, ansikte mot ansikte. Vid tio olika konstakademier runt om i världen har 77 studenter lyssnat, funderat och fattat penseln, eller kameran. Metod och tonart spänner brett. Liksom sjukdomen i sig, från hopp till trivialiteter, från humor till förtvivlan.

Resultatet är en utställning vid den internationella leverkongressen i Barcelona våren 2016. Det har blivit en spännande samling möten med människorna bakom levervärderna, ett möte mellan konstnär och patient. Färger och mönster, olja och foto, konkreta ansikten och abstrakta ytor. Det är sällan några direkta hepatologiska avbildningar, med undantag av ett svartvitt porträtt i olja av en levertransplanterad mans buk, med ärr och allt, och en rosa Jesus som håller fram en rosa lever.

Här visas ett broderi över en leverutrednings alla ringlande stigar. Och en stor duk över den gamle patienten, med 40 års anamnes. Duken går i rött, mannen står med ena handen på fiolen och med ett kranium på bordet invid. Där har den legat, ständigt påminnande genom alla dessa decennier. Men står gör han fortfarande, den gamle patienten, och spelar sin fiol.

Det finns bara ett verk med mer direkt labbmedicinsk koppling: Julia Lleranas "Undetectable", där fotografier av en bergtopp speglar sig i analysvar från ett virologiskt laboratorium. Den unga konstnären resonerar kring våra laboratoriesvar: 600 000 viruskopior/mL det kan ju liknas vid 600 000 cm, vilket är det samma som 6000 meter, vilket är ett högt berg, ett mycket högt berg. Där står den sjuke ensam och utsatt. För att sen, efter lång terapi, återvända till oss andra, vi som lever bekvämt vid havsytan.

Så kan man också se ett labsvar. Analysresultatets siffror omtolkade till ett tillstånd: 6 000 meter över havet. Kallt, ensamt.

På den vindpinade och syrefattiga bergstoppen är det inte fråga om genotyp eller fibrosmarkör. Där är

det människan bakom siffrorna som får stå och frysa. Där står människorna som vi är till för att hjälpa med våra analyser. Människorna, inte deras levervärderna. På hepatologernas kongress har de stigit ner, likt inkräktare i vetenskapens vita kongresskorridorer. Plötsligt uppdykande ansikten i forskningens svala högberg. På stora dukar och i diskreta teckningar.

Så kan också leversjukdom illustreras, eller kanske snarare tolkas, när levervärderna inte längre räcker.

Perspectives – Art, Live diseases and Me

*European Association for the Study of Liver, Barcelona
13-17 April 2016*

Utställningen finns också samlad i en katalog, som gavs till kongressens alla deltagare.



Foto: Henrik Alfthan.

Til manuskriptforfattere

Litteraturhenvisninger nummereres i den rekkefølge de angis i manuskriptteksten og skrives i Vancouver-stil. Dersom artikkelen har mer en syv forfattere listes de seks første etterfulgt av "et al". Forfatterens etternavn skrives først, deretter initialer (for og mellomnavn), forfatterne skilles ved komma og punktum settes etter siste forfatters initialer evt. etter "et al". Punktum brukes også etter tittel på artikkelen. Journalnavn forkortes som angitt i Pubmed, liste over forkortelser finnes i LinkOut Journals. Etter journalforkortelsen følger et mellomrom, årstall for publikasjonen, et semikolon, volum nummer, et kolon og sidetall. Overflodige sidetall fjernes, som vist i eksempelet 1989;49:483-8. Personlige meddelelser (inkludert fullt navn og årstall) og produkt informasjon skal ikke stå i referanselisten men refereres i manuskriptteksten.

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Se også NFKK's og KBN's hjemmeside: www.nfkk.org

Nordisk Forening for Klinisk Kemi (NFKK)

NFKK har som oppgave å arbeide for utviklingen av det nordisk samarbeide innen klinisk kjemi med spesiell fokus på forskning, faglig utvikling og utdanning. Den består av medlemmene i de vitenskapelige foreningene for klinisk kjemi i Danmark, Finland, Island, Norge og Sverige. Aktiviteten i NFKK foregår i like arbeidsgrupper og komiteer. Foreningen har det vitenskapelige ansvar for Scandinavian Journal of Laboratory and Clinical Investigation (SJCLI), har ansvar for utgivelse av Klinisk Biokemi i Norden, og står bak arrangering av de nordiske kongresser i klinisk kjemi.

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Från vänster kring bordet Helle, Linda, Henrik, Anders, Ingunn och Yngve.



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