

A

TECHNICAL REPORT

ON

SIWES (STUDENT INDUSTRIAL WORK EXPERIENCE SCHEME)

AT OLUFUNMI HOSPITAL ASERO ESTATE, ABEOKUTA, OGUN STATE, NIGERIA.

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SUBMITTED TO

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DEGREE IN MICROBIOLOGY.

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CERTIFICATION

This is to certify that the work during the three months industrial training was carried out by Momoh Ogere Tofunmi at Olufunmi Hospital Asero estate Abeokuta, Ogun State, under the supervision of Mrs Olaitan, with the report presented to the department of Biological Science, Faculty of Computing and Applied Science, Thomas Adewumi University Oko, Kwara state, Nigeria, during the 2024/2025 Students Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES).

DR. AYENI

SIWES CORDINATOR

Signature & Date

DR. S.O FAROHUNBI

H.O.D

Signature & Date

DEDICATION

This report is dedicated to the Almighty God and my beloved parents Mr. and Mrs. Momoh for their supports and unconditional love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I'm grateful to Olufunmi Hospital for the invaluable industrial training experience in the laboratory. Special thanks to my H.O.D DR. Farohunbi, supervisor Mrs Olaitan, and my lecturers for their guidance and support. The challenging tasks deepened my industry knowledge.

The whole members of staff in OLufunmi Hospital team's cooperation enriched my training.

Thanks to colleagues for camaraderie and knowledge sharing. This experience equips me for a successful career in microbiology.

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 Historical Background of SIWES

The Students' Industrial Work Experience Scheme (SIWES) was initiated in 1973 by the Federal Government of Nigeria under the Industrial Training Fund (ITF) to bridge the gap between theory and practice among products of our tertiary Institutions. It was designed to provide practical training that will expose and prepare students of Universities, Polytechnics, and Colleges of Education for work situation they are likely to meet after graduation.

Before the establishment of the scheme, there was a growing concern among the industrialists that graduates of institutions of higher learning lacked adequate practical background studies preparatory for employment in industries. Thus the employers were of the opinion that the theoretical education going on in higher institutions was not responsive to the needs of the employers of labour.

As a result of the increasing number of students' enrolment in higher institutions of learning, the administration of this function of funding the scheme became enormous, hence ITF withdrew from the scheme in 1978 and was taken over by the Federal Government and handed to National Universities commission (NUC), National Board for Technical Education (NBTE) and National Commission for Colleges of Education (NCCE). In 1984, the Federal Government reverted back to ITF which took over the scheme officially in 1985 with funding provided by the Federal Government.

The first batch of the College NCE students enrolled in SIWES in 1992 and has been participating since then till date. NCE students (Regular, Continuing Education and Sandwich) of the following programme participate in the scheme: Agricultural Education, Home Economics Education, Business Education, Fine and Applied Arts Education, Industrial Technical Education and Science Education. At degree level, students of Business Education, Industrial Technical Education and Library and Information Science Education programmes also participate. The duration of the scheme for NCE programme is 4 months

done at the end of second semester of year two usually from September to December while that of degree programme is 6 months done at the end of first semester of year three usually from May to October.

1.2 Objectives of SIWES

Objectives of the Programme

The specific objectives of SIWES are to:

- ✧ Provide placements in industries for students of higher institutions of learning approved by relevant regulatory authorities (NUC, NBTE, NCCE) to acquire work experience and skills relevant to their course of study
- ✧ Prepare students for real work situation they will meet after graduation.
- ✧ Expose students to work methods and techniques in the handling of equipment and machinery that may not be available in schools.
- ✧ Make transition from school to the labour market smooth and enhance students' conduct for later job placement
- ✧ Provide students with the opportunity to apply their knowledge in real life work situation thereby bridging the gap between theory and practice
- ✧ Strengthen employer involvement in the entire educational process and prepare students for employment in industry
- ✧ Promote the desired technological knowhow required for the advancement of the nation.

1.3 History and background Olufunmi Hospital

Olufunmi hospital 10th April 2010, founded by Dr. And Dr. Mrs Olufunmi, Licensed hospital by the Nigeria Ministry of Health, with facility code 27/02/1/2/2/0011 and registered as Secondary Health Care

Centre.Olufunmi hospital is not just good a hospital with courteous staff, it is a place where your problems can be solved by seasoned professionals.

CHAPTER 2

2.1 Introduction to the laboratory

Laboratory is a controlled environment designed for scientific research, experiments, and analysis. It provides researchers with the tools, equipment, and resources needed to conduct precise and reproducible experiments.

Medical laboratories are specialized environments where clinical tests and experiments are conducted to diagnose, monitor, and treat diseases. These labs utilize a wide variety of materials and equipment, each designed to perform specific diagnostic tests or analyses. Here is a breakdown of the key materials and equipment typically used in medical laboratories:

2.2 Rules and regulations of the laboratory

1. **Personal Protective Equipment (PPE):** Wear lab coats, gloves, and masks when handling biological samples or chemicals.
2. **Identification:** Wear identification badges and ensure that all samples and test results are properly labeled.
3. **Safety Data Sheets (SDS):** Familiarize yourself with SDS for all chemicals used in the laboratory.
4. **Waste Disposal:** Dispose of biohazardous waste, chemicals, and sharps according to established protocols.
5. **Cleaning and Decontamination:** Regularly clean and decontaminate work surfaces, equipment, and instruments.

2.3 Materials Used in a Medical Laboratory

1. Sample Collection Materials:

- **Blood Collection Tubes:** These include vacutainers (with different additives such as EDTA, sodium citrate, or heparin) used to collect and store blood samples.

Some of the common blood collection tubes and their uses:

- ✧ Red Top Tube (No Additive or Clot Activator): Used for serum tests, such as chemistry, serology, and blood bank.
- ✧ Purple/Lavender Top Tube (EDTA): Used for hematology tests like complete blood count (CBC), blood smears, and molecular diagnostic tests.
- ✧ Blue Top Tube (Sodium Citrate): Typically used for coagulation studies, such as prothrombin time (PT) and activated partial thromboplastin time (aPTT).
- ✧ Green Top Tube (Heparin): Commonly used for plasma determinations in chemistry.
- ✧ Yellow Top Tube (ACD or SST): Used for genetic studies, tissue typing, and certain specialized tests. SST (serum-separating tube) tubes contain a gel that separates serum from blood cells after centrifugation.
- ✧ Gray Top Tube (Sodium Fluoride/Potassium Oxalate): Primarily used for glucose testing and blood alcohol levels.



Fig1.1-picture of sample bottles

- **Syringes and Needles:** For drawing blood or other fluids from patients, syringes and needles play crucial roles in collecting and processing blood samples, injecting reagents or medications, and handling fluids in various laboratory procedures. The usage of syringes and needles in the lab focuses on precision, safety, and sterility to ensure accurate results and prevent contamination or injury.

Common Uses of Syringes and Needles in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Blood Collection: Blood collected via syringe is transferred into blood collection tubes (such as EDTA, citrate, or serum-separating tubes) for subsequent analysis in hematology, chemistry, or microbiology.
- ✧ Venipuncture: Syringes and needles are often used to draw blood directly from a vein. In some cases, instead of vacuum tubes (used with a butterfly needle), a syringe may be preferred to control the flow and prevent the collapse of small or delicate veins.
- ✧ Sample Transfer: Syringes are used to transfer fluids (such as plasma, serum, or other biological fluids) between containers, such as from test tubes to vials, without contaminating the sample. Needles attached to syringes may be used to aspirate specific quantities of liquid from sealed containers, ensuring sterility and avoiding exposure to air.
- ✧ Centrifuge Tubes and Fluid Handling: After centrifugation, syringes are used to carefully withdraw layers of plasma, serum, or other components from blood samples for further testing. This precise handling helps prevent contamination of the sample with other layers (e.g., blood cells or clots) and ensures accurate lab results.
- ✧ Inoculation of Culture Media: In microbiology, needles attached to syringes are sometimes used to inoculate culture media with specific volumes of fluids containing microorganisms, particularly in anaerobic culture techniques where the media is sealed. This prevents contamination and ensures that the specimen reaches the correct medium for growing and identifying pathogens.

Single-Use Policy: In medical laboratories, syringes and needles are typically single-use to prevent contamination between samples, reduce infection risk, and maintain sterility in the lab.



Fig 1.2- needle and syringe

- **Swabs:** Sterile cotton-tipped applicators used for collecting samples from surfaces, wounds, or mucous membranes.

Common Uses of Swabs in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ **Microbial Cultures:**Swabs are used to collect samples from specific body sites to detect bacteria, fungi, or other pathogens.
- ✧ Throat swabs, nasal swabs, and wound swabs are common for bacterial cultures (e.g., for detecting strep throat, MRSA, or wound infections).
- ✧ After collection, the swab is typically placed into a sterile transport medium to preserve the sample until it reaches the lab for culture.
- ✧ **Molecular Testing (PCR and DNA/RNA Collection):**

Swabs are used to collect samples for molecular tests, such as Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR), which detect the genetic material of pathogens like viruses and bacteria. For example, nasopharyngeal swabs are commonly used for respiratory virus detection, including COVID-19, influenza, and RSV.

Point-of-Care Testing (POCT):Some rapid diagnostic tests, such as rapid antigen tests or flu tests, use swabs to collect specimens from the nose or throat for quick diagnosis in the lab or clinic.

These tests are commonly used for diagnosing infectious diseases at the point of care.

Specimen Collection for DNA Testing:

- ✧ **Buccal swabs (oral swabs)** are used to collect cells from the inside of a patient's cheek for DNA analysis. Commonly used in genetic testing, forensic testing, paternity testing, or pharmacogenomics (the study of how genes affect a person's response to drugs).
- ✧ **Wound Swabs for Culture:**Wound swabs are used to collect samples from infected wounds or ulcers to identify the bacteria or fungi present. These swabs are often transported to the lab in a bacterial culture medium, where they are processed for pathogen identification and susceptibility testing.

- ✧ Cervical Swabs (for HPV/Pap Tests): Swabs can also be used to collect samples from the cervix for tests such as Pap smears (to detect abnormal cells) and HPV (human papillomavirus) testing. These swabs are often part of liquid-based cytology kits, which allow cells to be suspended in a liquid medium for examination.

Types of Swabs Commonly Used in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Nasopharyngeal Swabs: Long, flexible swabs with soft tips used for collecting samples from the back of the nose or throat. These are widely used in testing for respiratory pathogens, including COVID-19 and influenza. These swabs are typically placed into viral transport media for molecular and culture testing.
- ✧ Throat Swabs: Shorter swabs with cotton or synthetic tips used to collect specimens from the throat, often for diagnosing bacterial infections such as strep throat.
- ✧ Buccal Swabs: Soft-tipped swabs used to collect cells from the inside of the cheek for DNA extraction. Often used in genetic or forensic testing.
- ✧ Sterile Cotton or Rayon Swabs: Used for general bacterial culture collection from wounds, skin lesions, and mucous membranes. Placed into transport media to preserve the sample for bacterial or fungal identification.
- ✧ Flocked Swabs: These swabs have a nylon or polyester tip with a flocked (brush-like) surface, designed to improve sample collection and release. Flocked swabs are commonly used in molecular testing, such as PCR, due to their high efficiency in collecting and releasing cells or viruses into the transport medium.
- ✧ Calcium Alginate Swabs: Often used in viral and bacterial culture collections, particularly in sensitive areas like the nasopharynx or wound sites. The swab's material dissolves upon exposure to certain body fluids, reducing contamination risk.

Storage Conditions: Samples collected on swabs must be stored and transported to the lab under specific conditions (e.g., refrigerated or at room temperature) to preserve the sample's integrity until testing.

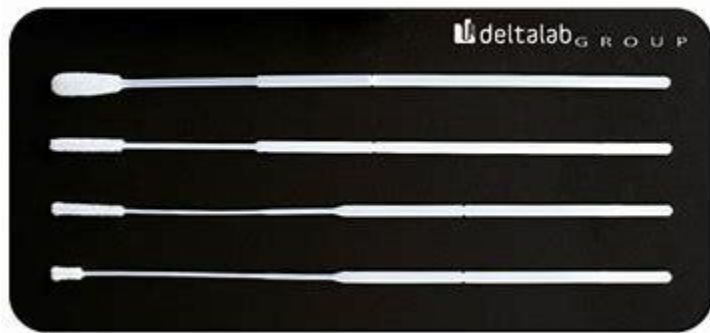


Fig 1.3- Swab stick.

- **Urine and Stool Containers:** Sterile urine and stool containers are essential tools for collecting and storing patient samples for diagnostic testing. These containers are designed to ensure safe, clean, and sterile collection, transportation, and storage of samples while preserving the integrity of the specimen for accurate laboratory analysis.

Urine Containers in Medical Laboratories

Urine containers are used to collect and transport urine samples for various types of diagnostic tests, such as urinalysis, culture, and drug testing.

1. Types of Urine Containers:

- ✧ **Sterile Urine Containers:** Used for routine urinalysis, urine cultures, and other microbiological tests. Sterile containers are essential to avoid contamination that could affect test results, particularly in cultures where bacteria may be present. Usually, these are 100-120 mL clear plastic containers with a wide screw-top lid for easy collection. May come with labels for patient information and a biohazard symbol for safe transport.
- ✧ **24-Hour Urine Collection Containers:** Large-capacity containers (usually around 2-3 liters) designed for collecting all urine excreted by a patient over 24 hours. This is done to measure substances like creatinine, protein, or hormones over a full day. These containers often have additives, such as acids, to preserve the urine and prevent degradation of specific compounds. Typically made of plastic and feature a wide opening for easy collection and a secure lid for transport.

- ✧ Urine Collection Bags: Used for infants or patients unable to provide a urine sample in a container. These are small adhesive bags placed over the genital area to collect urine and then transferred to a sterile container for laboratory analysis.
- ✧ Urine Drug Test Cups: Designed for drug screening purposes, these containers often have built-in panels to test for various drugs of abuse (such as amphetamines, opioids, and cannabis). Some drug test cups provide instant results, while others require the sample to be sent to a lab for further analysis.

2. Urine Sample Handling:

- ✧ Preservation: For some tests, preservatives like boric acid may be added to the urine container to prevent bacterial overgrowth or chemical degradation before it is tested in the lab.
- ✧ Transport: Urine samples must be transported to the laboratory promptly, typically within 1-2 hours of collection, or refrigerated to prevent changes in the composition of the sample.
- ✧ Labelling: Containers must be properly labeled with patient information, date, and time of collection to ensure the accuracy of results.

3. Common Urine Tests in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Urinalysis: Tests for pH, protein, glucose, ketones, and other markers to assess kidney function and overall health.
- ✧ Urine Culture: Detects bacterial growth to diagnose infections, such as urinary tract infections (UTIs).
- ✧ 24-Hour Urine Tests: Measures total output of specific substances, like creatinine, electrolytes, or hormones, over a full day.

Stool Containers in Medical Laboratories

Stool containers are used to collect fecal matter for various diagnostic tests, including the detection of gastrointestinal infections, parasitic infestations, or bleeding in the digestive tract.

1. Types of Stool Containers:

- ✧ Stool Collection Cups/Containers: These are typically wide-mouthed, sterile plastic containers with screw-top lids. Containers often come with a small spoon or spatula attached to the lid to help patients collect the sample hygienically. Stool containers are used for tests like stool culture, parasite examination, and fecal occult blood testing.
- ✧ Stool Transport Media Containers: For certain tests, such as those detecting parasites or bacterial infections, stool samples are placed into containers with a specialized transport medium, such as Cary-Blair medium. These preservatives stabilize the specimen during transport to the laboratory, ensuring the integrity of the sample for testing.
- ✧ Faecal Occult Blood Test (FOBT) Cards/Containers: This is used to detect hidden blood in the stool, which can be a sign of gastrointestinal bleeding or colorectal cancer. Patients place small stool samples on special cards or in small containers for testing in the laboratory.

2. Stool Sample Handling:

- ✧ Collection: Patients are instructed to collect a small portion of stool, usually about 2-5 grams (a teaspoon-sized amount), using a spatula or spoon included with the container.
- ✧ Transport: Stool samples should be transported to the laboratory as soon as possible to ensure accurate testing. For some tests, the stool sample can be refrigerated or kept at room temperature based on the test requirements.
- ✧ Labelling: Like urine containers, stool containers must be labeled correctly with patient details, collection date, and time for proper identification in the lab.

3. Common Stool Tests in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Stool Culture: Used to identify bacteria, viruses, or fungi in the gastrointestinal tract, such as Salmonella, E. coli, or Clostridium difficile.
- ✧ Parasite Exam (Ova and Parasites): Examines stool for the presence of parasitic eggs or larvae to diagnose infections like Giardia or Entamoeba.
- ✧ Faecal Occult Blood Test (FOBT): Screens for hidden blood in the stool, a potential indicator of colorectal cancer or other gastrointestinal disorders.
- ✧ Faecal Calprotectin: Measures levels of calprotectin in stool, often used to diagnose and monitor inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) like Crohn's disease or ulcerative colitis.

Best Practices for Using Urine and Stool Containers in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Patient Instructions: Patients must be given clear instructions on how to collect and handle their samples to avoid contamination or improper collection. This includes using the provided collection tools (e.g., spoons for stool samples) and properly sealing the containers after collection.
- ✧ Sterility: Sterile containers are critical to preventing contamination of urine or stool samples that could interfere with diagnostic results. Laboratories ensure that all containers are pre-packaged in sterile packaging and stored under appropriate conditions.
- ✧ Transport and Storage: Urine and stool samples should be transported to the lab quickly to preserve the integrity of the specimen. Some samples require refrigeration, while others may need to be kept at room temperature.

Laboratory staff must ensure proper storage of samples until testing is completed.

Disposal: After testing, urine and stool samples must be disposed of according to biohazard waste disposal protocols to prevent contamination and spread of pathogens.



Fig 1.4- urine and stool container.

- Slides and Cover Slips: slides and cover slips are critical tools used for the microscopic examination of cells, tissues, and microorganisms. They play a vital role in pathology, microbiology, hematology, and cytology, enabling the visual analysis of specimens for diagnostic purposes.

Slides in Medical Laboratories

Slides are thin, rectangular pieces of glass or plastic used to hold specimens for microscopic examination. The specimens are placed on the slide and often stained or fixed to enhance visualization.

1. Types of Slides:

- ✧ Glass Microscope Slides: The most common type of slide, typically made of optical glass for clarity and durability. Standard dimensions are 75 x 25 mm (3 x 1 inches) and about 1 mm thick. Glass slides are used in most areas of the laboratory, including cytology, histology, and hematology.
- ✧ Frosted-End Slides: These slides have one end with a frosted coating, allowing for easy writing or labeling with patient information, specimen type, or case numbers. The frosted area ensures that the label will not wash off during staining or other procedures.
- ✧ Charged Slides: These are glass slides that have been treated to have a positively charged surface, helping tissue sections or cell samples adhere more firmly. Commonly used in immunohistochemistry and cytology to prevent tissue sections from detaching during staining and processing.
- ✧ Adhesive-Coated Slides: These slides are coated with adhesive substances (e.g., poly-L-lysine) to help better retain tissue samples or cells, particularly in histology when preparing tissue sections. They are designed to prevent loss of tissue sections during complex staining procedures.
- ✧ Plastic Slides: Plastic slides are an alternative to glass slides, particularly useful in settings where the risk of glass breakage needs to be minimized, such as pediatric or veterinary labs. They are less commonly used in clinical settings, as their optical clarity may not match that of glass slides.

2. Uses of Slides in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Histology: Slides are used to hold tissue sections that are thinly sliced (usually 3-5 microns thick) and stained for examination under a microscope. These tissue sections help pathologists diagnose conditions such as cancer, inflammation, and degenerative diseases.
- ✧ Cytology: In cytology, slides are used to hold samples of cells from various body fluids or tissues (e.g., Pap smears, fine needle aspirations, and bronchial washings). The cells are examined for abnormalities, including precancerous changes, infections, or other pathological conditions.
- ✧ Haematology: Slides are used for blood smears, where a drop of blood is spread thinly across the slide. This allows lab technicians to examine the morphology of blood cells (e.g., red

blood cells, white blood cells, and platelets) and assess for conditions like anemia, leukemia, or infections. Special stains, such as Wright's stain or Giemsa stain, are applied to enhance the visibility of different blood cell components.

- ✧ Microbiology: Slides are used to examine bacteria, fungi, and other microorganisms under the microscope, typically after staining with techniques such as Gram staining or acid-fast staining. Microbiology slides are used to diagnose infections and identify the causative organisms.

3. Preparation and Staining:

- ✧ Fixation: Many slides, especially those used in histology or cytology, require the sample to be fixed using chemical fixatives (like formalin or methanol) to preserve the tissue or cells and prevent degradation before staining.
- ✧ Staining: To enhance visualization, biological samples are stained with dyes or special stains. For example:
- ✧ Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E): Used in histology to stain tissue sections for routine examination.
- ✧ Gram Stain: Used in microbiology to classify bacteria as Gram-positive or Gram-negative based on cell wall properties.

Cover Slips in Medical Laboratories

Cover slips are small, thin, square, or rectangular pieces of glass or plastic used to cover the specimen on the slide. They protect the sample, improve image clarity, and prevent contamination during microscopic examination.

1. Types of Cover Slips:

- ✧ Glass Cover Slips: The most commonly used type, typically made of thin glass with thickness ranging from 0.13 to 0.17 mm. They are available in various sizes, with 22 x 22 mm or 24 x 50 mm being common dimensions.

Glass cover slips are preferred for high-magnification work due to their optical clarity and flatness.

- ✧ Plastic Cover Slips: These are used in environments where glass breakage may be a concern. However, they are less optically clear than glass and may not be suitable for high-resolution microscopy.

Plastic cover slips are often used for temporary wet mounts, where long-term sample preservation is not required.

2. Uses of Cover Slips in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ Protecting the Specimen: Cover slips are placed on top of the specimen to protect it from dust, air exposure, or drying during microscopic examination. They also ensure that the sample remains flat and secure on the slide, preventing movement or distortion.
- ✧ Enhancing Image Clarity: A cover slip helps improve the optical properties of the sample by creating a uniform refractive index between the specimen and the microscope lens. This improves the sharpness and resolution of the image, especially in high-power microscopy.
- ✧ Preventing Contamination: By covering the specimen, cover slips protect the sample from external contaminants, such as dust or debris, that could interfere with the accuracy of the microscopic analysis.
- ✧ Oil Immersion: For oil immersion microscopy, which is commonly used in microbiology and hematology to achieve high magnifications (e.g., 1000x), cover slips are essential. The oil is placed between the cover slip and the objective lens to enhance image clarity by reducing light refraction.

Slide and Cover Slip Preparation:

- ✧ Sample Placement: The specimen (cells, tissue sections, or microorganisms) is placed directly onto the slide. Depending on the type of sample, it may be smeared (for blood), sliced (for tissue), or spread out (for fluids or cultures).
- ✧ Cover Slip Application: A cover slip is gently placed over the specimen using tweezers or forceps, often with a small amount of liquid medium (e.g., mounting medium or water) between the sample and the cover slip. The cover slip is pressed down carefully to avoid trapping air bubbles, which can obscure the view under the microscope.
- ✧ Mounting Medium: In some cases, especially for long-term storage of slides (e.g., histological slides), a mounting medium is applied between the sample and the cover slip to preserve the specimen and prevent it from drying out. Mounting media can be water-based or resin-based, depending on the type of stain and the longevity of the preparation.

Best Practices for Slides and Cover Slips in Medical Laboratories:

- ✧ **Cleanliness:**Both slides and cover slips must be clean and free of fingerprints, dust, or residues before use to avoid interfering with microscopic examination.Slides can be pre-cleaned with ethanol or commercial glass cleaners and stored in dust-free containers.
- ✧ **Proper Labeling:**Slides should be labeled correctly with patient information, date, and type of specimen to avoid mix-ups and ensure the correct diagnosis is made.
- ✧ **Handling and Storage:**Slides and cover slips must be handled with care to prevent breakage or contamination. Used slides should be disposed of in sharps containers.
- ✧ Prepared slides can be stored in slide storage boxes or racks for easy access during later examination.

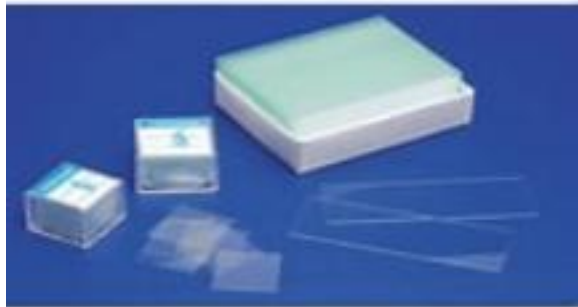


Fig 1.5- Slide and cover slip.

- Culture Media: culture media are substances used to support the growth and propagation of microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, and viruses. These media provide essential nutrients, moisture, and optimal pH and temperature conditions to enable the cultivation and identification of pathogens. Culture media are used in microbiology for diagnosing infections, researching microbiological processes, and studying microbial properties.

Types of Culture Media in Medical Laboratories

Culture media can be classified based on their composition, purpose, or the type of organisms they support. The main categories include general-purpose media, selective media, differential media, and enriched media.

1. General-Purpose Media These media are designed to support the growth of a wide range of microorganisms. They provide the basic nutrients required for the growth of most bacteria and fungi.

- ✧ Nutrient Agar: A simple medium that supports the growth of a wide range of non-fibrous microorganisms. Contains peptones, sodium chloride, and agar, which allow for basic microbial growth but does not have specialized nutrients. Used for general cultivation and maintenance of bacterial strains in the lab.
- ✧ Nutrient Broth: A liquid form of nutrient agar, used to grow a wide variety of microorganisms. Often used for cultivating bacteria that require a liquid medium for growth and can be incubated in shaking conditions to promote aeration.
- ✧ Tryptic Soy Agar (TSA): A general-purpose medium widely used for the growth of both gram-positive and gram-negative bacteria. Contains tryptone, soy peptone, and agar, providing a broad spectrum of nutrients for routine bacterial culture.

2. Selective Media

Selective media are designed to favor the growth of certain microorganisms while inhibiting the growth of others. This selective inhibition is achieved by adding specific substances that either promote the growth of a target organism or inhibit unwanted organisms.

- ✧ MacConkey Agar: Selective for gram-negative bacteria, particularly Enterobacteriaceae (family of bacteria such as *E. coli* and *Salmonella*). Contains bile salts and crystal violet, which inhibit gram-positive bacteria. It also includes lactose, which allows differentiation between lactose fermenters (e.g., *E. coli*) and non-fermenters (e.g., *Salmonella*). The medium appears pink if the bacteria ferment lactose, or pale if they do not.
- ✧ Eosin Methylene Blue (EMB) Agar: Selective for gram-negative bacteria, especially Enterobacteriaceae. The dyes eosin and methylene blue inhibit gram-positive organisms. It is commonly used to differentiate between lactose-fermenting and non-lactose-fermenting bacteria. Bacteria that ferment lactose produce colonies with a characteristic metallic green sheen (e.g., *E. coli*).
- ✧ Sabouraud Dextrose Agar: Selective for fungi (including yeasts and molds), due to its high concentration of glucose and low pH. Often used for growing dermatophytes (fungi that

cause skin infections) or *Candida* species. The low pH (typically around 5.6) inhibits the growth of many bacteria, making it selective for fungi.

3. Differential Media

Differential media allow different types of microorganisms to be distinguished based on their biological characteristics, such as their ability to metabolize specific nutrients or produce certain byproducts (e.g., acids, gases, or enzymes).

- ✧ Blood Agar (BA): Not only a general-purpose medium but also differential, as it contains sheep blood and can differentiate bacteria based on their ability to break down red blood cells.

Alpha-hemolysis: Partial breakdown of red blood cells (e.g., *Streptococcus pneumoniae*).

Beta-hemolysis: Complete breakdown of red blood cells (e.g., *Streptococcus pyogenes*).

Gamma-hemolysis: No breakdown of red blood cells (e.g., *Enterococcus*).

- ✧ Citrate Agar: Used to differentiate bacteria based on their ability to utilize citrate as the sole carbon source. Organisms that can use citrate grow and turn the medium blue, while those that cannot use citrate will not grow or will produce no color change.
- ✧ Urease Agar: Differentiates organisms based on their ability to hydrolyze urea to ammonia and carbon dioxide via the enzyme urease. The medium turns pink in the presence of ammonia, indicating a positive result for urease activity (e.g., *Helicobacter pylori*).

4. Enriched Media

Enriched media contain additional nutrients that support the growth of organisms that require specific factors for growth, such as vitamins, minerals, or growth factors. These media are used for fastidious organisms that do not grow well on general-purpose media.

- ✧ Chocolate Agar: Enriched with lysed red blood cells, which release nutrients such as hemin and vitamin K, necessary for the growth of *Haemophilus* species and *Neisseria*

gonorrhoeae. The medium is called "chocolate" because the red blood cells are lysed during the preparation process, giving the medium a brownish appearance.

- ✧ Brain Heart Infusion (BHI) Agar: An enriched medium used to grow a wide variety of microorganisms, including streptococci, staphylococci, and fungi. Contains brain and heart tissue extracts, providing nutrients for fastidious organisms.
- ✧ Thioglycolate Broth: Used for growing anaerobic and facultative anaerobic bacteria. Contains thioglycolate to reduce oxygen content, creating an environment that supports anaerobic organisms. Useful for isolating organisms like *Clostridium* species or testing the oxygen requirements of bacteria.

5. Transport Media

Transport media are used to preserve the viability of microorganisms during transport to the laboratory, preventing growth and contamination while ensuring that the microorganisms remain alive until they can be cultured.

- ✧ Amies Transport Medium: A medium used for transporting swabs containing bacteria, such as those taken from throat swabs or wound cultures. Often used with a swab to transport specimens from the patient to the lab without allowing the specimen to dry out.
- ✧ Stuarts Transport Medium: Similar to Amies, it is used for transporting clinical samples containing organisms that need to be kept alive but not allowed to proliferate during transport. Commonly used for urine cultures and swab specimens.

6. Specialized Media for Specific Microorganisms

Some media are specifically designed to grow certain types of microorganisms or identify specific pathogens based on unique metabolic properties.

- ✧ Lowenstein-Jensen Agar: Used for the culture of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, the causative agent of tuberculosis. Contains egg yolk and glycerol as nutrients, and the media has a specific composition that favors the slow-growing nature of *M. tuberculosis*.
- ✧ Thiosulfate Citrate Bile Salts Sucrose (TCBS) Agar: Selective and differential medium used for the isolation and differentiation of *Vibrio cholerae*. Contains sucrose for

differentiating between *Vibrio* species (*V. cholerae* ferments sucrose, producing yellow colonies, whereas other *Vibrio* species do not).



Fig 1.6- Culture media.

- **Capillary Tube:** A capillary tube is a thin, narrow tube used primarily for collecting, transporting, and analyzing small amounts of fluid, particularly blood. It relies on capillary action, where liquid is drawn into the tube without the need for suction, because of the balance between adhesive and cohesive forces.

Characteristics of Capillary Tubes

- ✧ Size and Shapes
- ✧ Capillary tubes are usually made of glass or plastic and are extremely thin with an internal diameter of around 1 mm or less.
- ✧ They are typically about 75 mm (3 inches) long.
- ✧ The thin diameter helps in drawing fluids into the tube via capillary action.

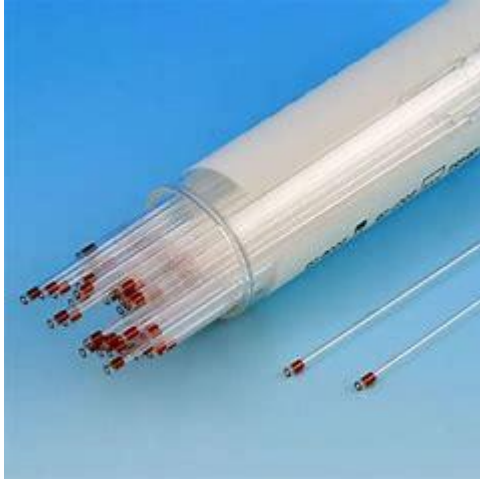


Fig 1.7- Capillary tube.

- Test Strip or Cassette: Test strips and cassettes are commonly used diagnostic tools in medical laboratories and clinical settings for rapid point-of-care testing (POCT). These devices are used for detecting specific substances, pathogens, or medical conditions in biological samples such as blood, urine, saliva, or serum. Their simplicity, ease of use, and speed make them valuable for quick diagnosis and monitoring of various health conditions.

Test Strips in Medical Laboratories

Test strips are flat, thin strips that are often chemically impregnated with reagents capable of detecting specific analytes in a sample. They are typically used in rapid tests for conditions like diabetes, urinary tract infections (UTIs), pregnancy, drugs of abuse, and cholesterol levels.

Types of Test Strips

- ✧ **Urine Test Strips:** Commonly used for testing various parameters in urine, such as glucose, protein, ketones, pH, bilirubin, nitrites, leukocytes, and specific gravity. Examples include dipsticks used in urinalysis to screen for conditions like diabetes, kidney disease, and UTIs.

Glucose test strips are used by individuals with diabetes to monitor blood glucose levels.

- ✧ **Blood Glucose Test Strips:** Used by people with diabetes to measure blood sugar levels at home. These strips are inserted into a glucometer that reads the color change on the strip after a small drop of blood is applied.

- ✧ Pregnancy Test Strips: Detect human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) hormone levels in urine, which rise during pregnancy. The strip changes color or displays a line to indicate a positive or negative pregnancy result.
- ✧ Drug Test Strips: Used to detect the presence of drugs of abuse in urine or saliva, such as cocaine, marijuana, amphetamines, opioids, and benzodiazepines. These tests are often used for workplace testing, law enforcement, and medical settings to screen for drug use.
- ✧ Cholesterol Test Strips: Measure total cholesterol levels in blood and are used by individuals who need to monitor their cholesterol at home.
- ✧ Hematology Test Strips: Used for testing hemoglobin levels in blood and can help monitor anemia or other hematologic conditions.

Working Principle of Test Strips-Test strips often rely on chemical reactions or immunoassay techniques:

Chemical Reactions: For example, when a urine test strip is dipped into a urine sample, specific substances in the urine (e.g., glucose or protein) react with chemicals on the strip, causing a color change. The color change is compared to a color chart on the packaging to determine the concentration of the substance.

Immunoassays: Some test strips use antibodies to bind with specific antigens (like in pregnancy tests or drug tests). When the antigen is present, a visible line or color change occurs on the strip.

Test Cassettes in Medical Laboratories

Test cassettes, like test strips, are used for diagnostic tests but generally provide more detailed results and may be easier to interpret. Cassettes are often used for immunoassay-based tests and more complex assays that require more reagents and processing than test strips.

Types of Test Cassettes

- ✧ Pregnancy Test Cassettes: Used to detect hCG in urine, similar to pregnancy test strips, but cassettes are typically designed to provide clearer results. The sample is applied to the cassette, and results appear in the form of color bands or lines.
- ✧ Rapid Antigen Test Cassettes: Commonly used for detecting antigen-based infections such as COVID-19, influenza, strep throat, and hepatitis. These tests detect the presence of specific

viral or bacterial proteins (antigens) in patient samples (e.g., nasal swabs). Antigen test cassettes usually consist of conjugates (chemically labeled antibodies) that react with the antigens, resulting in a color change or line formation.

- ✧ **Rapid Antibody Test Cassettes:**Used to detect antibodies produced by the body in response to an infection. For example, COVID-19 antibody tests are used to identify past infections by detecting the presence of IgM and IgG antibodies. These tests help assess immune response to infections and are often used for screening or in epidemiological studies.
- ✧ **Drug of Abuse Test Cassettes:**Similar to drug test strips, but these cassettes may offer more accurate and detailed results, such as the ability to test for multiple drugs simultaneously in a single test. Typically used in clinical, forensic, or workplace settings for detecting the presence of illicit drugs.
- ✧ **HIV Test Cassettes:**Used to detect HIV antibodies or HIV antigens in blood, serum, or saliva. The tests are designed to be rapid and can provide results within 15-20 minutes.
- ✧ **Malaria Test Cassettes:**Used for rapid detection of malaria parasites (e.g., *Plasmodium falciparum*) in blood samples. These tests detect specific antigens produced by the malaria parasite, providing a quick diagnosis.
- ✧ **Lipid Profile Test Cassettes:**Used to measure blood lipid levels, such as total cholesterol, HDL, LDL, and triglycerides, to assess cardiovascular risk. These cassettes often work by applying a drop of blood to the cassette, and after a short incubation time, results are displayed as a color change.

Working Principle of Test Cassettes

Immunoassay: Similar to test strips, test cassettes may rely on antibody-antigen interactions. The sample is applied to the cassette, and the presence of the target substance (e.g., antigen or antibody) is detected by the color change, which typically appears in a control and test line.

Lateral Flow Assay: Test cassettes often employ a lateral flow system, where the sample is applied at one end, and it moves along a membrane that contains reagent pads. The reagents interact with the target substance, resulting in visible lines or color changes at specific locations on the cassette.

Advantages of Test Strips and Cassettes

- ✧ **Ease of Use:**Test strips and cassettes are user-friendly, requiring little technical skill to perform the test, making them ideal for home testing or point-of-care testing.

- ✧ Speed: They provide quick results, often within minutes, making them valuable for rapid diagnosis in emergency or clinical settings.
- ✧ Portability: Test strips and cassettes are compact and easy to transport, making them ideal for use in field testing, remote areas, and situations where laboratory infrastructure is unavailable.
- ✧ Cost-Effective: These tests are generally less expensive than more complex laboratory tests and do not require sophisticated equipment, reducing overall healthcare costs.
- ✧ Minimal Sample Requirement: Test strips and cassettes typically require only small amounts of biological samples (e.g., a drop of blood or urine), making them non-invasive and convenient.

Limitations of Test Strips and Cassettes

- ✧ Sensitivity and Specificity: While these tests provide rapid results, their sensitivity and specificity may not be as high as laboratory-based tests. False positives or false negatives are possible, especially in cases with low analyte concentrations or ambiguous results.
- ✧ Interpretation: Some tests may require visual interpretation, which can lead to subjective results, especially when there is a weak or faint color change.
- ✧ Limited Information: Unlike laboratory tests that may provide detailed quantitative results, test strips and cassettes usually give qualitative or semi-quantitative results, which may not provide as much clinical information.
- ✧ Shelf-Life: Test strips and cassettes have an expiration date, and their effectiveness can degrade over time or when improperly stored (e.g., exposure to heat, moisture, or sunlight).



Fig 1.9- Test Strip or Cassette.

2. Chemical Reagents:

- **Stains and Dyes:** stains and dyes are essential tools used to enhance the visibility of microorganisms, cells, tissues, and other biological specimens during microscopic examination. These stains and dyes bind to specific components of the sample, either highlighting certain structures or providing contrast to make them easier to observe under a microscope.

Types of Stains and Dyes in Medical Laboratories-Stains and dyes can be broadly classified into several categories based on their composition, application, and the structures they highlight. They are commonly used in microbiology, histology, cytology, and other laboratory disciplines.

1. Simple Stains Simple stains are used to color all cells or structures uniformly, helping to make the specimen visible under a microscope. These stains are used for basic observations and are not designed to differentiate between different types of cells or microorganisms.

- ✧ Crystal Violet: A basic dye that stains cells purple, used in Gram staining to stain bacterial cells and in simple staining techniques to visualize the shape and arrangement of bacteria.
- ✧ Methylene Blue: A blue stain that is commonly used to observe the morphology of cells, especially bacteria and tissues. Often used for simple staining in microbiology to make the cells more visible under the microscope.
- ✧ Safranin: A red or pink stain used in Gram staining (for counterstaining after the crystal violet step) and in cytological staining. It can be used to stain bacterial cells or tissue sections.

- ✧ **Malachite Green:**A green dye used primarily to visualize endospores in bacteria during spore staining (e.g., Schaeffer-Fulton method).Can also be used to stain some bacteria or fungi.

2. Differential Stains

Differential stains are used to distinguish between different types of cells, tissues, or microorganisms based on their structural differences or chemical composition. These stains involve multiple steps and reagents.

- ✧ **Gram Stain:**One of the most important and widely used differential staining techniques in microbiology,crystal violet is applied first to all bacterial cells, followed by iodine (mordant) to fix the stain. After washing with alcohol (decolorizer), safranin is used as a counterstain.Divides bacteria into Gram-positive (purple) and Gram-negative (pink) groups, based on differences in cell wall composition.
- ✧ **Acid-Fast Stain:**Used to detect bacteria with mycolic acid in their cell walls (e.g., *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*).Carbol fuchsin is the primary stain, and the sample is decolorized with acid alcohol. The bacteria retain the red color (acid-fast) while other cells are counterstained with methylene blue.
- ✧ **Endospore Staining:**Used to identify bacterial endospores, which are highly resistant structures formed by certain bacteria.Malachite green is used to stain the endospores, and safranin is used to stain the vegetative cells.
- ✧ **Giemsa Stain:**A differential stain that is primarily used to examine blood smears, especially for identifying malaria parasites (*Plasmodium* species) and *Leishmania*.It stains chromatin, cytoplasmic granules, and nuclei with various shades of blue, purple, and red.

- **Anticoagulants:**Anticoagulants are substances that prevent or delay blood clotting, which is crucial for preserving blood samples in the laboratory for analysis. In medical laboratories, anticoagulants are used in blood collection tubes to prevent blood from clotting, allowing the separation of plasma or serum for further testing. Different types of anticoagulants work through various mechanisms, and the choice of anticoagulant depends on the specific tests to be conducted.

Common Anticoagulants Used in Medical Laboratories

1. Citrate

Mechanism: Citrate anticoagulants work by binding calcium ions in the blood, which are essential for the clotting cascade. This prevents blood from clotting by disrupting the clotting process.

Common Use: Citrate is commonly used in tests that require plasma, such as coagulation studies (e.g., prothrombin time (PT), activated partial thromboplastin time (aPTT)), blood gas analysis, and platelet function tests.

Example: Sodium citrate (used in a 3.2% or 3.8% concentration) is commonly found in tubes for coagulation testing.

2. EDTA (Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid)

Mechanism: EDTA works by chelating calcium ions in the blood, preventing the activation of clotting factors, and thus preventing coagulation.

Common Use: EDTA is widely used in hematology tests as it preserves the blood's cellular components, especially for complete blood counts (CBC), blood smears, and hematocrit measurements.

Example: K2 EDTA (potassium EDTA) is the most commonly used form, especially in lavender-top tubes.

3. Heparin

Mechanism: Heparin works by inactivating thrombin and factor Xa, key enzymes in the clotting cascade. This action prevents the formation of a clot.

Common Use: Heparin is used when plasma is required for tests such as chemistry panels, blood gas analysis, renal function tests, and immunoassays.

Example: Lithium heparin is the preferred form, often found in green-top tubes, especially for plasma collection.

4. Sodium Fluoride and Potassium Oxalate

Mechanism: Sodium fluoride inhibits glycolysis (the breakdown of glucose), while potassium oxalate binds calcium to prevent coagulation. This combination is often used in glucose testing to preserve the sample and prevent changes in glucose levels.

Common Use: These anticoagulants are used for glucose testing, lactate measurements, and alcohol testing.

Example: Gray-top tubes often contain a combination of sodium fluoride and potassium oxalate.

5. Sodium Polyanethanesulfonate (SPS)

Mechanism: SPS is a bacteriostatic agent, which means it prevents the growth of bacteria. It works by binding calcium and preventing clotting in blood cultures, allowing for the proper incubation and detection of microbial growth.

Common Use: SPS is used in blood culture bottles for microbiological testing, particularly for detecting bacterial infections in blood samples.

Example: Blood culture bottles contain SPS as an anticoagulant.

6. Acid Citrate Dextrose (ACD)

Mechanism: ACD is a combination of citrate, dextrose (glucose), and acid. Citrate prevents clotting by binding calcium, while dextrose provides nutrients for cells, especially useful for cell preservation in blood bank testing or stem cell collections.

Common Use: ACD is often used in blood donation, leukocyte or platelet collections, and cell culture studies.

Example: ACD solution A or ACD solution B is found in specialized collection tubes for blood donations or stem cell harvesting.

- **Enzymes and Antibodies:** Enzymes and antibodies are invaluable tools in medical laboratories for diagnosing a wide range of conditions. Enzymes are used in clinical chemistry for assessing organ function and metabolic activity, while antibodies are fundamental for immunoassays and pathogen detection. Together, these biomolecules allow for precise and effective diagnostic testing, providing critical information for patient care and treatment planning.

Applications of Enzymes and Antibodies in Medical Laboratories

Detection of Diseases:

- ✧ HIV Testing: ELISA and Western blotting use antibodies to detect HIV-specific antibodies or antigens in a patient's blood.
- ✧ Cancer Diagnosis: Monoclonal antibodies, such as HER2-targeted therapy for breast cancer, are used both diagnostically and therapeutically.
- ✧ Clinical Chemistry: Enzymes like ALT, AST, and CK are essential for diagnosing liver and muscle disorders. Enzyme-based assays like lactate dehydrogenase and creatine kinase help evaluate cell damage and organ function.
- ✧ Blood Tests: CBC (Complete Blood Count) is used to evaluate white blood cell (WBC) count, red blood cell (RBC) count, and hemoglobin levels, with enzyme-based reagents often used for red blood cell analysis. Immunoassays (e.g., ELISA, Western Blot) use antibodies to detect antigens (such as pathogens) or antibodies (in response to infection or autoimmune disease).
- ✧ Infectious Disease Detection: Antigen-based Rapid Tests: Use antibodies to detect infectious pathogens (e.g., COVID-19, influenza, malaria).
- ✧ Antibody-Based Tests: Used to detect previous exposure to a disease (e.g., testing for antibodies to SARS-CoV-2).

Immune System Studies:

- ✧ Flow Cytometry: Used to analyze the immune system by detecting cell surface markers and immune cell populations.
- ✧ Immunohistochemistry: Used to visualize specific immune cells or tumor markers in tissues.

- **Buffers and pH Indicators:** Both buffers and pH indicators are indispensable in maintaining the optimal conditions for accurate testing and analysis in medical laboratories. Buffers help maintain a stable pH, which is crucial for biochemical reactions, enzyme activity, and cell function. pH indicators provide a convenient and visual way to measure and monitor pH changes in biological fluids, samples, and laboratory reactions. Their combined use ensures the reliability and accuracy of numerous diagnostic and research procedures.

Functions of Buffers

- ✧ Maintaining pH: Buffers stabilize the pH of a solution, preventing it from becoming too acidic or too alkaline. This is critical in medical assays where the pH can influence enzyme activity, protein stability, and other biochemical reactions.
- ✧ Stabilizing Blood and Biological Samples: In diagnostic tests, the use of buffers ensures that biological samples such as blood, urine, and tissues remain in a stable environment, preventing the degradation of cellular components or biomarkers.
- ✧ Enzyme Activity: Many enzymes in biochemical assays have a specific pH range within which they are most active. Buffers maintain this optimal pH for enzyme function.
- ✧ Electrophoresis and Chromatography: In techniques like gel electrophoresis and chromatography, buffers help maintain the pH of the solution, ensuring accurate separation of molecules like proteins and DNA.

Functions of pH Indicators

- ✧ Visual pH Measurement: pH indicators are used for determining the pH of solutions, especially when precise measurements are not necessary. They provide a quick and convenient way to monitor changes in pH.
- ✧ Monitoring Chemical Reactions: Many laboratory assays involve reactions where the pH changes during the process. pH indicators help monitor and ensure that the pH remains within the required range.
- ✧ Acid-Base Titrations: pH indicators are essential in titrations, where they help identify the endpoint of the reaction by changing color as the pH changes.
- ✧ Monitoring Biological Processes: In tests such as urine analysis and blood gas analysis, pH indicators help assess the acid-base balance in biological samples.

3. Personal Protective Equipment (PPE):

- Gloves: Disposable latex, or vinyl gloves to protect the hands during sample handling.



Disposable latex glove

- Lab Coats and Gowns: Protective clothing worn in the lab.



Lab coat and gown

- Face Masks and Shields: To prevent contamination and protect against infectious agents.



Face mask and face shield

- Safety Goggles: To protect the eyes from harmful chemicals or biological hazards.



Equipment in a Medical Laboratory

1. Microscopes:

- Light Microscope: Used for observing stained blood cells, bacteria, and tissue samples.
- Electron Microscope: Provides high magnification and resolution for detailed observation of viruses or subcellular structures.
- Phase Contrast Microscope: Used for viewing live cells without staining.



A microscope.

2. Centrifuges:

- Clinical Centrifuge: Spins samples at high speed to separate components based on density, such as separating plasma from blood cells.
- Micro-centrifuge: For spinning small-volume samples.
- Microhematocrit centrifuge is a specialized laboratory instrument used to determine the packed cell volume (PCV) or hematocrit level in blood samples.



A centrifuge.

3. Autoclaves:

Autoclaves are vital equipment in medical laboratories, healthcare facilities, and research settings for ensuring the sterility of instruments, biological materials, and other items. Their ability to provide reliable, efficient, and thorough sterilization makes them indispensable for infection control, preventing cross-contamination, and maintaining aseptic conditions in laboratory and clinical environments.

Applications of Autoclaves in Medical Laboratories

1. Sterilization of Medical Equipment:

Surgical Instruments: Autoclaves are used to sterilize scalpels, forceps, scissors, and other surgical tools before use in surgeries or medical procedures.

Dental Tools: Autoclaves sterilize dental instruments, ensuring they are free from bacteria, viruses, or fungi before use with patients.

2. Sterilizing Laboratory Glassware:

Petri Dishes, Test Tubes, and Flasks: Autoclaves are commonly used to sterilize laboratory glassware that is used for microbiological testing, cell culture, and research.

Culture Media: Autoclaves sterilize culture media for growing bacteria, viruses, or fungi in laboratory environments.

3. Sterilization of Biological Materials:

Waste Disposal: Autoclaves are used for the sterilization of biohazardous waste, including contaminated laboratory materials, tissues, and cultures.

Laboratory Animal Materials: Equipment or items used in handling animals are often sterilized in autoclaves to prevent cross-contamination or the spread of disease.

4. Sterilizing Pharmaceutical Products:

Autoclaves are used in the pharmaceutical industry for sterilizing medications, vaccines, and infusion solutions to ensure they are free from pathogens before being distributed or administered.

5. In Microbiological and Clinical Testing:

Sterile Environments: Autoclaves maintain sterile environments for experiments or clinical diagnostics where contamination can lead to incorrect results, such as microbiological cultures and DNA analysis.

6. Sterilization of Laboratory Equipment and Materials:

Items like pipettes, petri dishes, scalpel handles, culture tubes, and flasks are sterilized using autoclaves in labs that handle microbiological cultures or other hazardous materials.

Advantages of Using Autoclaves

- ✧ **Effective Sterilization:** Autoclaves are one of the most effective methods for sterilizing materials, ensuring that all microorganisms, including heat-resistant spores, are killed.
- ✧ **Speed and Efficiency:** Autoclaves sterilize large volumes of materials in a relatively short period of time, increasing laboratory efficiency and productivity.
- ✧ **Safety:** Autoclaves are designed to provide a high level of safety for users. Modern autoclaves have safety features like pressure relief valves, automatic door locking systems, and temperature sensors to prevent accidents.
- ✧ **Reliability:** Autoclaves offer consistent and reproducible results, making them reliable for critical sterilization needs in medical and laboratory settings.
- ✧ **Cost-Effective:** Although the initial cost of an autoclave can be high, the long-term cost-effectiveness comes from its ability to sterilize a wide variety of items, reducing the need for disposable items or other forms of sterilization.

Maintenance and Quality Control of Autoclaves

Proper maintenance and regular quality control are crucial to ensure the effective functioning of an autoclave. This includes:

- ✧ Regular Testing: The use of biological indicators (e.g., *Bacillus stearothermophilus*) is common to verify the sterilization process's effectiveness. These indicators are placed inside the autoclave to test if it can successfully eliminate microbial life.
- ✧ Preventive Maintenance: Regular checks on seals, doors, heating elements, and pressure gauges are necessary to ensure optimal functioning and to prevent breakdowns.
- ✧ Calibration: Autoclaves need to be periodically calibrated to ensure the temperature and pressure readings are accurate and align with the required sterilization parameters.
- ✧ Cleaning: Autoclaves should be cleaned regularly to avoid contamination buildup, which could interfere with the sterilization process or damage the equipment.



-

An autoclave

4. Spectrophotometers:

A spectrophotometer is an analytical instrument used to measure the amount of light absorbed or transmitted by a sample at different wavelengths of light. The instrument passes light through a sample and measures the intensity of light that emerges from the sample. The amount of light absorbed or transmitted at each wavelength is then plotted, providing a spectrum that can be used for various analyses.

Spectrophotometers typically consist of the following components:

- ✧ Light Source: Provides a range of wavelengths of light (UV, visible, or near-infrared) for the sample.

- ✧ Monochromator: A device that selects a specific wavelength of light to pass through the sample.
- ✧ Sample Holder (Cuvette): Holds the sample that will interact with the light.
- ✧ Detector: Measures the intensity of transmitted or reflected light after it passes through the sample.
- ✧ Readout/Display: Shows the absorbance or transmittance data, often as a graph or numerical value.



A Spectrophotometer

5. Incubators:

An incubator is a device designed to maintain a controlled temperature environment, often used in biological and medical laboratories for growing microbial cultures, cell cultures, and maintaining controlled conditions for various types of research. Some incubators also allow the control of humidity, oxygen levels, and CO₂ concentrations, depending on the specific needs of the samples being cultured.

Advantages of Using Incubators

- ✧ Precise Environmental Control: Incubators offer precise control over temperature, humidity, and CO₂ or O₂ concentrations, essential for the accurate growth of biological samples.

- ✧ Consistency: Incubators provide a consistent and reproducible environment for the growth of cultures, ensuring reliable experimental results.
- ✧ Wide Range of Applications: Incubators are versatile and can be used for a broad array of biological and medical applications, from microbial culturing to cell and tissue culture and biochemical testing.
- ✧ Safety Features: Modern incubators come with various built-in safety features like temperature alarms, over-temperature protection, and automatic shutoff to safeguard both the incubator and its contents.
- ✧ User-Friendly: Many incubators have digital controls and user-friendly interfaces, making it easier for technicians and researchers to monitor and set environmental parameters.

Limitations of Incubators

- ✧ Energy Consumption: Incubators can consume a significant amount of energy, especially when maintaining constant temperatures and regulating humidity and CO₂ levels.
- ✧ Space Requirements: Incubators, particularly larger models, can take up significant space in a laboratory, requiring careful planning of lab layouts.
- ✧ Maintenance: Regular maintenance and calibration of the incubator's temperature, humidity, and CO₂ systems are necessary to ensure optimal performance and prevent sample contamination.



An incubator

8. Refrigerators and Freezers:

- Used to store samples (e.g., blood, urine, tissues) and reagents at appropriate temperatures to preserve their integrity.



A refrigerator and freezer

Safety and Waste Management Equipment:

- Biohazard Containers: For disposing of biological and sharp waste (e.g., needles, glass slides).
- Fume Hoods: To protect personnel from inhaling hazardous chemicals or biological materials.
- Emergency Showers and Eyewash Stations: In case of accidental exposure to harmful substances.

These materials and equipment are critical for ensuring accurate diagnostic results in medical labs, where precision, safety, and reliability are essential.

CHAPTER 3

Tests carried out in the laboratory

1. RDT kit tests

An RDT kit (Rapid Diagnostic Test kit) is a quick and simple tool used to detect the presence of specific diseases or conditions, often at the point of care (such as in clinics, hospitals, or even at home). RDTs are designed to provide results in a short amount of time, typically within 15 to 30 minutes, making them useful for early diagnosis and prompt treatment.

Features of RDT Kits

- ✧ **Rapid Results:** RDTs can produce results in a matter of minutes, making them useful for immediate diagnosis and decision-making in clinical and emergency settings.
- ✧ **Easy to Use:** They are typically user-friendly, requiring minimal technical training. Many RDT kits can be administered by healthcare providers with basic instructions or even by patients themselves in certain cases (e.g., home pregnancy tests).
- ✧ **Portable:** Most RDT kits are compact and portable, making them ideal for use in remote areas or in fieldwork where laboratory facilities may not be readily available.
- ✧ **Sample Type:** Depending on the test, RDT kits may use different types of biological samples, including: Blood (finger prick or venous blood), Urine, Saliva, Nasal or throat swabs
- ✧ **Visual Readout:** Results are typically shown as colored lines, dots, or other markers on a test strip. Many RDTs use a lateral flow assay (similar to home pregnancy tests), where a visible line or marker indicates a positive or negative result.
- ✧ **Qualitative or Semi-Quantitative:** RDT kits often provide qualitative results (positive or negative), but some can provide semi-quantitative results, indicating the level of the substance being tested.

Components of a Typical RDT Kit

- ✧ **Test Strip or Cassette:** The core component where the reaction occurs. It contains antibodies or antigens that bind to the target molecules in the sample (e.g., proteins, antigens, or antibodies).
- ✧ **Sample Collection Tools:** These may include swabs, lancets, or pipettes for obtaining and transferring the sample to the test strip.
- ✧ **Buffer or Reagent Solution:** Helps to facilitate the reaction and movement of the sample through the test strip.
- ✧ **Instruction Manual:** Provides step-by-step instructions on how to use the test and interpret the results.

Common Types of RDT Kits

Malaria RDTs: Malaria rapid diagnostic test kits are used to detect the presence of Plasmodium parasites (which cause malaria) in a patient's blood sample. They typically target specific antigens associated with malaria, such as HRP-2 (Histidine-Rich Protein-2) or pLDH (Plasmodium Lactate Dehydrogenase).

Sample Type: Blood (usually a finger prick).

Result: Appears as lines on the test strip, indicating whether the patient has malaria and sometimes which type (e.g., Plasmodium falciparum or Plasmodium vivax).

HIV RDTs: These are used to detect HIV antibodies or antigens in a blood, oral fluid, or urine sample. HIV RDTs are widely used for screening in healthcare settings or community testing programs.

Sample Type: Blood, saliva, or oral swab.

Result: Positive or negative, indicated by the presence or absence of a line on the test strip.

COVID-19 RDTs: Rapid antigen tests for COVID-19 detect specific proteins from the SARS-CoV-2 virus in nasal or throat swabs. COVID-19 RDT kits are essential for quickly diagnosing infection in symptomatic or asymptomatic individuals.

Sample Type: Nasal or throat swab.

Result: Presence or absence of a visible line indicates whether the virus is detected.

Pregnancy RDTs:These kits are used to detect the human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG) hormone in urine, which is produced during pregnancy.

Sample Type: Urine.

Result: The appearance of a line or symbol indicates pregnancy.

Hepatitis B and C RDTs:Used to detect hepatitis B surface antigens (HBsAg) or hepatitis C antibodies in blood samples. These RDTs help in screening and early detection of hepatitis infections.

Sample Type: Blood (finger prick).

Result: Positive or negative, shown as a line or marker on the test strip.

Syphilis RDTs:Used to detect Treponema pallidum antibodies, the bacteria responsible for syphilis.

Sample Type: Blood (finger prick or venous).

Result: Visual indicator of positive or negative based on antibody presence.

Advantages of RDT Kits

- ✧ Fast Turnaround Time: Results are available in minutes, allowing for quicker clinical decisions.
- ✧ Convenient and Portable: RDT kits are easy to use and can be deployed in resource-limited or remote areas.
- ✧ Cost-Effective: RDTs often cost less than laboratory-based tests and do not require expensive equipment.
- ✧ Immediate Action: Immediate diagnosis allows for prompt treatment, especially critical in diseases like malaria or COVID-19.
- ✧ Wide Accessibility: Many RDT kits can be used at home or in clinics, increasing access to diagnostic tools without needing specialized labs.

Limitations of RDT Kits

- ✧ Lower Sensitivity: Some RDTs may have lower sensitivity compared to laboratory-based tests (e.g., PCR), leading to potential false-negative results, especially in early stages of infection.
- ✧ False Positives: Occasionally, RDTs may produce false-positive results due to cross-reactivity or improper test administration.
- ✧ Limited Quantitative Data: RDTs usually provide qualitative results (positive or negative) rather than detailed quantitative data.
- ✧ General Procedure for Using an RDT Kit
- ✧ Sample Collection: Collect the biological sample (blood, urine, or swab) as instructed in the kit.
- ✧ Apply the Sample: Place the collected sample onto the designated area of the test strip or cassette.
- ✧ Add Reagent/Buffer: If the kit includes a buffer solution, add the appropriate number of drops to facilitate the reaction.
- ✧ Wait for Results: After applying the sample, wait for the specified time (usually 10–30 minutes) for the result to appear.
- ✧ Interpret the Results: Check for lines or symbols according to the kit instructions. Some kits include a control line to indicate the test was performed correctly.

2. Full blood count tests:

A Full Blood Count (FBC), also known as a Complete Blood Count (CBC), is a routine blood test that provides important information about the number and types of cells in a person's blood. It helps in diagnosing a wide range of health conditions, including anemia, infection, and blood disorders. The procedure for conducting a full blood count test typically involves the following steps:

1. Procedure for Full Blood Count (FBC) Test:

Preparation:

Patient Preparation: The patient should be informed about the procedure. No special preparation is typically needed, although fasting might be requested in some cases if other tests are being conducted simultaneously.

Equipment Needed: Sterile gloves, blood collection tube (usually an EDTA tube for anticoagulation), alcohol wipes, cotton ball/gauze, and bandage.

2. Blood Collection:

Site Selection: The phlebotomist will choose a vein for blood collection, commonly from the antecubital fossa (the inside of the elbow) or the dorsal side of the hand.

Disinfection: The site is cleaned with an alcohol swab to reduce the risk of infection.

Blood Draw: A needle is inserted into the vein, and blood is drawn into the collection tube. The EDTA tube is typically used as it prevents blood clotting by acting as an anticoagulant.

Volume: Only a small amount of blood (usually around 5 mL) is required for the test.

3. Post-Collection:

Pressure: After blood collection, the needle is removed, and pressure is applied to the puncture site with a cotton ball or gauze to stop any bleeding.

Bandage: A bandage is applied once the bleeding has stopped.

4. Processing the Sample:

The collected blood sample is sent to the laboratory, where it is processed using an automated hematology analyzer.

5. Test Analysis:

The analyzer will measure the number and types of blood cells, including:

Red Blood Cells (RBC): Number, size, and hemoglobin content.

White Blood Cells (WBC): Total count and differential count (the proportion of different types of white blood cells).

Platelets (PLT): Number of platelets.

Hemoglobin (Hb): The level of hemoglobin in the blood, an indicator of anemia.

Hematocrit (Hct): The percentage of blood volume made up of red blood cells.

6. Result Interpretation:

The results are typically available within a few hours, depending on the laboratory. The results are then reviewed by a healthcare provider to diagnose or monitor conditions such as anemia, infection, leukemia, and other blood-related disorders.

Common Parameters in Full Blood Count (FBC):

✧ White Blood Cells (WBC): High levels may indicate an infection or inflammation.

Low levels can indicate a weakened immune system or bone marrow disorders.

✧ Red Blood Cells (RBC): Low levels may indicate anemia.

High levels can suggest dehydration or other conditions such as polycythemia.

✧ Hemoglobin (Hb): Measures the oxygen-carrying capacity of red blood cells.

Low hemoglobin is commonly associated with anemia.

✧ Hematocrit (Hct): The proportion of blood made up of red blood cells.

Low hematocrit can indicate anemia, while high levels can indicate dehydration.

✧ Platelets (PLT): Low platelet counts can lead to bleeding disorders.

High platelet counts can increase the risk of blood clots.

3.3 Types of blood group and genotype

ABO Blood Group System

1. A (A antigen): Genotype AA or AO
2. B (B antigen): Genotype BB or BO
3. AB (A and B antigens): Genotype AB
4. O (no A or B antigen): Genotype OO

Rh Blood Type System

1. Rh⁺ (Rh antigen): Genotype RR or Rr
2. Rh⁻ (no Rh antigen): Genotype rr

Other Blood Group Systems

1. Kell Blood Group System: Genotype Kk or kk
2. Duffy Blood Group System: Genotype FyFy or Fyfy
3. MNS Blood Group System: Genotype MM or NN

Genotype Notations

- Uppercase letters: Represent dominant alleles (e.g., A, B, R)
- Lowercase letters: Represent recessive alleles (e.g., a, b, r)
- Homozygous: Genotype with two identical alleles (e.g., AA, rr)
- Heterozygous: Genotype with two different alleles (e.g., AO, Rr)

CHAPTER 4

4.1 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED

I could not get placement early, and it was not easy get other field to work in as a SIWES student except hospitals laboratoty.

4.2 CONCLUSION

My three months industrial training at Olufunmi Hospital has been one of the interesting, productive, instructive and educative experience in my life. Through the training I gained insight and more comprehensive understanding about the real industrial working condition and has greatly improved my interpersonal skill.

4.3 RECOMMENDATION

The hospital is a good ground for IT students to learn both morally and acedemically their contraindications and much more. I would highly recommend Olufunmi Hospital as one of the hospitals to be as an IT student. Despite having to not know these people, they were well accommodating and gave me the reason to come back as an IT student or even to work there after I graduate.

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