Sweat testing practice in Swiss hospitals

Jürg Barben^a, *Carmen Casaulta^b*, *Renate Spinas^c*, *Martin H. Schöni^d*, on behalf of the Swiss Working Group for Cystic Fibrosis (SWGCF)

- ^a Head Division of Paediatric Pulmonology, Children's Hospital, St. Gallen, Switzerland
- ^b Consultant, Department of Paediatrics, University of Berne, Switzerland
- ^c Consultant, University Children's Hospital Zürich, Switzerland
- ^d Professor, Head Outpatient Department, Department of Paediatrics, University of Berne, Switzerland

Summary

Aims: To determine whether the current practice of sweat testing in Swiss hospitals is consistent with the current international guidelines.

Methods: A questionnaire was mailed to all children's hospitals (n = 8), regional paediatric sections of general hospitals (n = 28), and all adult pulmonology centres (n = 8) in Switzerland which care for patients with cystic fibrosis (CF). The results were compared with published "guidelines 2000" of the American National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards (NCCLS) and the UK guidelines of 2003.

Results: The response rate was 89%. All 8 children's hospitals and 18 out of 23 answering paediatric sections performed sweat tests but none of the adult pulmonology centres. In total, 1560 sweat tests (range: 5–200 tests/centre/year, median 40) per year were done. 88% (23/26) were using Wescor[®] systems, 73% (19/26) the Macroduct[®] system for collecting sweat and 31% (8/26) the Nanoduct[®] system. Sweat chloride was determined by only 62% (16/26) of all centres; of these, only 63% (10/16) indicated to use the recommended diagnostic chloride-CF-reference value of >60 mmol/l. Osmolality was measured in 35%, sodium in 42% and conductivity in 62% of the hospitals. Sweat was collected for maximal 30–120 (median 55) minutes; only three centres used the maximal 30 minutes sample time recommended by the international guidelines.

Conclusions: Sweat testing practice in Swiss hospitals was inconsistent and seldom followed the current international guidelines for sweat collection, analyzing method and reference values. Only 62% were used the chloride concentration as a diagnostic reference, the only accepted diagnostic measurement by the NCCLS or UK guidelines.

Key words: sweat test; quality control; guidelines; reference values; sweat chloride; osmolality; conductivity; cystic fibrosis

Introduction

Cystic fibrosis (CF) is the most common lethal autosomal recessive disorder with an approximate incidence of 1:2000 births in Switzerland [1]. Patients with CF have an increased concentration of chloride and sodium in their sweat as a consequence of reduced sweat reabsorption in the distal sweat glands due to dysfunctional CF transmembrane regulator (CFTR). The quantitative measurement of chloride in sweat is still the current gold standard test for cystic fibrosis [2]. Even in countries, where newborn screening using immune reactive trypsinogen (IRT) has already been introduced [3, 4], sweat testing is not replaced by genetic mutation analysis. Especially in children with non-classic or atypical CF, a correctly performed sweat test is of utmost importance [5–7].

[8], and the introduction of the quantitative pilocarpine iontophoresis (QPIT) into clinical practice by Gibson and Cooke,⁹ there have been many improvements in methods for sweat collection [2, 10–12]. These days, the Wescor Macroduct[®] collection system is widely used as a quantitative pi-

A 1	1	• .	•
Ab	bre	viat	10 ns

CF	Cystic fibrosis
CFTR	Cystic fibrosis transmembrane regulator
DC	Direct current
IRT	Immune reactive trypsinogen
mA	milliamperes
NCCLS	National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards
QPIT	Quantitative pilocarpine iontophoresis test
UK	United Kingdom

Since the discovery of the sweat electrolyte defect in CF patients 50 years ago by di Sant'Agnese locarpine iontophoresis sweat test that is internationally accepted. Conductivity has been shown to be as effective as sweat chloride in its ability to discriminate diagnostically between patients with CF and non-CF subjects [12–15]. However, conductivity is still not accepted by the American CF Foundation as a diagnostic test [16]. The pad method using QPIT by Gibson & Cooke is even now believed to be the most accurate sweat test [11].

Performing a correct sweat test is time consuming and involves several steps, all of which are error prone [17]. Sweat testing requires qualified technicians and strict adherence to guidelines [18, 19]. For instance, the collection of a sufficient amount of sweat using various stimulation and different collecting systems is a well known difficulty in sweat testing procedures. Especially in infants, it is sometimes difficult to collect the minimum weight of sweat (75 mg for the Gibson-Cooke[®] procedure) or the minimum acceptable volume (15 μ L for the Macroduct[®] collection system) within 30 minutes to ensure an average sweat rate of more than 1 g/m²/min.²⁰ The sweat test has been reported to have unacceptably high false-positive (up to 15%) and false-negative (up to 12%) rates, attributable to inaccurate methodology, technical error, and patient physiology [1, 19, 21].

In this study, we wanted to know how sweat tests are performed in Switzerland, and we compared the reported procedures with the current guidelines used in the USA [19, 22] and United Kingdom (UK) [18].

Methods

A questionnaire (see appendix) was mailed in German or French (according to the language used in the region) to all tertiary children's hospitals (n = 8) and regional paediatric sections of adult hospitals (n = 28) as well as to all adult pulmonology centres (n = 8) in Switzerland which care for patients with CF. If a returned questionnaire was not completely filled out, an enquiry by phone was performed. The results were compared with the guidelines of the American National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards 1994 and 2000 (www.nccls.org) [19, 22] and the UK guidelines 2003 (www.acb.org.uk) [18].



Tests per year per centre.

Figure 1

Results

The overall response rate to the questionnaire was 89% (39/44). All 8 children's hospitals and 78% (18/23) of the answering paediatric sections of general hospitals in Switzerland did sweat tests but none of the adult pulmonology centres. To our knowledge, no other private clinics or laboratories are performing sweat test in Switzerland.

Sweat test analysis – normal values [1, 7, 10, 13, 25, 29].

Table 1

	Chloride (mmol/L)	Conductivity (mmol/L)	Osmolality (mosmol/L)
Normal	<40	<60	<170
Borderline	40-60	60-80	170–200
CF	>60	>80	>200

In total 1560 sweat tests are performed per year (range, 5–200; median, 40; figure 1). Only 42% of the centres do more than 50 sweat test per year as requested by the UK guidelines, whereby all 8 tertiary paediatric centres perform hundred or more tests per year. In the reporting centres 1 to 15 persons perform sweat tests (median 3); in 31% (8/26) by laboratory technicians, in 58% (15/26) by nurses, and in 15% (4/26) by medical assistants. In four hospitals, all nurses of a paediatric ward have to do sweat testing. On an annual basis more than 56% of all nurses and technicians, who do sweat tests, perform less than 10 sweat tests



Methods of sweat test analysis.



Figure 3

Sweat test – chloride values.



per year; 20% perform 10–24 tests per year, and 24% perform more than 25 tests per year.

Wescor[®] company systems are used by 88% (23/26) of the hospitals, the Macroduct[®] coil system for sweat collection is used by 73% (19/26) and the Nanoduct[®] sweat analyzing system is used by 31% (8/26), half of them as a screening method, the rest as diagnostic tool. Only three centres are using the classic pilocarpine iontophoresis and filter paper method by Gibson & Cooke.

The median sample time reported was 55 minutes (range: 30–120 minutes) and only three hospitals (12%) used the maximal time of 30 minutes recommended by the NCCLS or UK guidelines. Only 62% (16/26) of the centres indicated to use chloride in the sweat analysis, the only accepted diagnostic method by the NCCLS (figure 2). Osmolality was measured in 35% (9/26), sodium in 42% (11/26) and conductivity in 62% (16/26). One centre is using osmolality as an exclusive diagnostic tool for CF and eight centres are using osmolality as a screening test. Conductivity is used by 8 centres as a diagnostic tool and the others are using it as a screening method. The new Nanoduct® system is already used in 8 centres, however in half of them as a quick bedside screening method. A variety of different methods of sweat testing analysis are used (figure 2). Only 63% (10/16) of the centres, which are determining chloride in the sweat, used the recommended chloride value of >60 mmol/L for the diagnosis of CF; two centres used a chloride value of 70 mmol/L, one 50 mmol/L and three 45 mmol/L. Eighty-one percent (21/26) of the hospitals had no age (ie 2 weeks) or weight (ie 3 kg) limits for performing a sweat test in newborns.

Conclusion

In this study we could demonstrate, that sweat testing practice in Swiss hospitals is inconsistent and seldom follows the current NCCLS [19] or the UK guidelines [18] for sweat collection, analyzing methods and reference values. This is not surprising, as so far, since the inception of the sweat test by di Sant'Agnese in 1954 [8], no guidelines regarding sweat testing have ever been published in Switzerland. Similar reports with regard to the disturbing quality of sweat testing have been published from Australia and New Zealand, where newborn screening for CF has already been introduced for many years and confirmation for the diagnosis in unclear cases was made by sweat testing [3, 23]. In Switzerland, a country without specific newborn screening, the diagnosis of CF is made when clinical symptoms and the patients' history is suspicious. The putative diagnosis is then confirmed with two (properly performed) positive sweat tests. If genotyping is performed, a second sweat test is not always necessary [2].

Recommendations

Sweat testing is technically demanding, and requires special skills to avoid false-positive or false-negative results by timing, evaporation and contamination and it needs strict adherence to guidelines [17–19]. Sweat collection should only be performed by fully trained and experienced personnel which should do a minimum number of 10 collection procedures per person per year. For quality purposes, a minimum number of 50 sweat test per year should be performed in any centre as recommended by the UK guidelines [18].

Sweat testing contains usually three steps: sweat induction, collection and analysis – all of which are error-prone.

Sweat induction

For a correct sweat induction, the skin needs to be properly cleaned with distilled or deionised water which removes dead surface skin cells and any contaminating lotions, and hydrates the top skin layer [19]. Subsequently, the chemical pilocarpine gel is applied to two small areas on an arm or leg. Pilocarpine nitrate at 2–5 g/L (0.2–0.5%) is recommended for use at both electrodes. After attaching two electrodes, a weak electrical direct current (DC) is applied to stimulate sweating. For safety reasons, the current source should be battery-powered. As burn potential increases with the magnitude and duration of iontophoretic current, the recommended procedure for the iontophoresis is to start with a current of 0.5 milliamperes (mA) with a slow increase to a maximum of 4 mA and maintaining this for three to five minutes [18, 19]. This procedure avoids burns to the patient's skin.

Sweat collection

The minimum acceptable sweat volume depends on the size of the electrode used, the type of the collection material (filter paper, gauze, or microbore tubing), the sweat collection time, and the subsequent analytical method [19]. An accurate sweat test requires the determination of electrolytes from maximally stimulated sweat glands, as sweat chloride concentration decreases at low sweat rates which could lead to false-negative results [24]. Sweat secretion is low immediately after iontophoresis, increases to a maximum between 10 and 30 minutes, and then decreases rapidly [18]. In addition, evaporation can influence the results of sweat testing and becomes a more significant problem with smaller samples. Therefore, the sweat rate should exceed 1 g/m²/min, which corresponds to a minimum sample weight of approximately 75 mg of sweat collected on 5×5 cm, electrolyte free gauze or filter paper or approximately 15 µL of sweat collected by the microbore tubing (eg Macroduct®) in 30 minutes. Extending the collection time will not significantly increase the sweat yield and may lead to sample evaporation. The proportion of inadequate technical collection failures should not exceed 5% unless many of the patients that are tested are <1 month of age [18, 19].

Sweat analysis

Determination of chloride concentration in sweat is the actual still only accepted diagnostic measurement for the diagnosis of CF by the current NCCLS or UK guidelines [18, 19]. Colorimetry, coulometry and ion-selective electrodes are satisfactory methods of analysis of sweat chloride in the laboratory [22]. In general sweat chloride concentrations <40 mmol/L are considered normal, values between 40-60 mmol/L are borderline, and concentrations >60 mmol/L are consistent with the diagnosis of CF (figure 3, table 1) [1, 2, 11, 25, 26]. Sweat chloride should always be interpreted with regard to age: data from a newborn screening program have shown that chloride concentrations >40 mmol/L in young infants are suggestive of a CF diagnosis [27]. On the contrary, a very small proportion of adults with other pulmonary disease than CF have sweat chloride values between 60-70 mmol/L [28]. In the light of the great heterogeneity in the clinical manifestations and atypical cases with CF respectively, the European Cystic Fibrosis Diagnostic Working Group has recently suggested to use values between 30-60 mmol/L as new borderline values [6].-

Sweat sodium is elevated in CF but does not discriminate as well as chloride between CF and healthy subjects. Some laboratories determine sodium in addition to chloride for quality control purposes and some are using the sodium: chloride ratio to distinguish CF (ratio <1) from other gastroenteral diseases, eg coeliac disease (ratio >1). The value of sodium: chloride ratio as a discriminating test is currently unclear [18].

Osmolality of sweat reflects the total sweat concentration of cations and anions per kg of sweat, including uncharged molecules as urea and amino acids [29]. Osmolality correlates well with sodium but it has a poor discriminatory power compared to sweat chloride concentration [15]. The reference ranges for normal sweat osmolality are 50–150 mmol/kg, and values greater than 200 mmol/kg are consistent with CF [25]. Border-line values are considered to be between 150–200 mmol/kg by some authors [25], others are considering values <170 mmol/kg as normal [29]. Measuring osmolality can help as a screening method but it is not recommended for the diagnosis of CF [13, 18, 25].

Conductivity is the property of a solution that allows it to conduct a current. It depends on the concentration and mobility of the ions in the solution, and is therefore an indirect measurement of ions [30, 31]. Sweat conductivity is not equivalent to sweat chloride concentration because of other ions in sweat such as bicarbonate and lactate, therefore sweat conductivity is approximately 15 mmol/L higher than the sweat chloride concentration [14, 19]. Several authors have demonstrated that conductivity using the Macroduct® collection system and Sweat-Check® analyzer is as effective as sweat chloride in its ability to discriminate diagnostically between CF and non-CF subjects [12, 14, 15, 32]. The novel diagnostic system Nanoduct[®], which induces and analyzes sweat conductivity in situ while attached to the patients requires only 3 µl of sweat, and reliable results are available within 30 minutes [13, 33]. But so far, only the Sweat-check® from Wescor has been accepted as screening method by the NCCLS [11]. According to the American CF Foundation, a conductivity value less than 50 mmol/L is considered normal and patients with values >50 mmol/L should be referred for a quantitative pilocarpine iontophoresis test (QPIT) [16, 25]. A conductivity level >80 mmol/L is believed to be diagnostic in addition to its screening value by some authors [13, 33],

while others suggest values >90 mmol/L to support a diagnosis of CF [18, 32]. Until now, the NCCLS does not accept conductivity as a definitive diagnostic tool [19].

Limits for sweat testing

A sweat test can be performed at any age, however, current clinical practice showed that it can be difficult to collect adequate quantities of sweat from very young infants [20, 34]. Preterm infants do not sweat in the first 2 weeks, but most term infants are able to sweat as of day 1 [35]. The UK guidelines recommend that a sweat test can be performed after 2 weeks of age in infants >3 kg [18], whereby others suppose that sweat collection can be reliably performed in infants >36 weeks postmenstrual age, >2 kg, and >3 days postnatal age [20]. Sweat testing should not be performed before a child is at least 48 hours old, as in the first 24 hours after birth, a baby's sweat electrolyte concentrations are known to rise transiently [17]. A sweat test should always be delayed in children who are dehydrated, systemically unwell or who have eczema affecting the potential stimulation sites, or who are oedematous and/or on systemic corticosteroids [18]. In addition, many other diseases can lead to false-positive and false-negative results (figure 3) which is described in detail elsewhere [1, 17].

Part of this work has been presented at the European Cystic Fibrosis Conference in Copenhagen, June 14–18, 2006 [36].

We thank all the Swiss children's hospitals for their participation in the survey. $\ddot{}$

Correspondence: Dr. J. Barben Paediatric Pulmonology Childrens' Hospital CH-9000 St. Gallen Switzerland E-Mail: juerg.barben@kispisg.ch

References

- 1 Davis PB. Cystic fibrosis since 1938. Am J Resp Crit Care Med. 2006;173:475–8.
- 2 Rosenstein BJ, Cutting GR, for the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation Consensus Panel. The diagnosis of cystic fibrosis: A consensus statement. J Pediatrics. 1998;132:589–95.
- 3 Mackay R, George P, Kirk J. Sweat testing for cystic fibrosis: A review of New Zealand laboratories. J Paediatr Child Health. 2006;42:160–4.
- 4 Massie J, Clements B, Australian Paediatric Respiratory Group. Diagnosis of cystic fibrosis after newborn screening: the Australasian experience – twenty years and five million babies later: a consensus statement from the Australasian Paediatric Respiratory Group. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2005;39:440–6.
- 5 Bush A, Wallis C. Time to think again: Cystic fibrosis is not an "all or none" disease. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2000;30:139–44.

- 6 De Boeck K, Wilschanski M, Castellani C, Taylor C, Cuppens H, Dodge J, et al. Cystic fibrosis: terminology and diagnostic algorithms. Thorax. 2006;61:627–35.
- 7 Knowles MR, Durie PR. What is cystic fibrosis? N Engl J Med. 2002;347:439–42.
- 8 di Sant'Agnese PA, Darling RC, Perera GA, Shea E. Abnormal electrolyte composition of sweat in cystic fibrosis of the pancreas: clinical significance and relationship to the disease. Pediatrics. 1953;12:549–63.
- 9 Gibson LE, Cooke RE. A test for concentration of electrolytes in sweat in cystic fibrosis of the pancreas utilizing pilocarpine by iontophoresis. Pediatrics. 1959;23:545–9.
- 10 Carter EP, Barrett AD, Heeley AF, Kuzemko JA. Improved sweat test method for the diagnosis of cystic fibrosis. Arch Dis Child. 1984;59:919–22.

- 11 LeGrys VA. Assessing quality assurance for sweat chloride testing. Clin Lab Sci. 1992;5:354–7.
- 12 Mastella G, Di Cesare G, Borruso A, Menin L, Zanolla L. Reliability of sweat-testing by the Macroduct collection method combined with conductivity analysis in comparison with the classic Gibson and Cooke technique. Acta Paediatr. 2000;89: 933–7.
- 13 Barben J, Ammann RA, Metlagel A, Schöni MH. Conductivity determined by a new sweat analyzer compared with chloride concentrations for the diagnosis of cystic fibrosis. J Pediatr. 2005;146:183–8.
- 14 Hammond KB, Nelson L, Gibson LE. Clinical evaluation of the macroduct sweat collection system and conductivity analyzer in the diagnosis of cystic fibrosis. J Pediatr. 1994;124:255–60.
- 15 Heeley ME, Woolf DA, Heeley AF. Indirect measurements of sweat electrolyte concentration in the laboratory diagnosis of cystic fibrosis. Arch Dis Child. 2000;82:420–4.
- 16 Cystic Fibrosis Foundation CDC. Update 1. 1993. Bethesda, Cystic Fibrosis Foundation.
- 17 Beauchamp M, Lands LC. Sweat-testing: A review of current technical requirements. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2005;39:507–11.
- 18 Green A, Elborn S, Fahie-Wilson MN, Kirk JM, Wallis CE, Weller P. Guidelines for the performance of the sweat test for the investigation of cystic fibrosis in the UK. 2003. www.acb.org.uk.
- 19 LeGrys VA, Rosenstein BJ, Doumas BT, Miller WG, D'Orazio P, Eckfeldt JH, et al. Sweat testing: Sample collection and quantitative analysis; approved Guideline – 2nd edition. Publication No C34-A2. 2000. Villanova, Pennsylvania, USA, National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards.
- 20 Eng W, LeGrys VA, Schechter MS, Laughon MM, Barker PM. Sweat-testing in preterm and full-term infants less than 6 weeks of age. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2005;40:64–7.
- 21 LeGrys VA, Wood RE. Incidence and implications of false-negative sweat reports in patients with cystic fibrosis. Pediatr Pulmonol. 1988;4:169–72.
- 22 LeGrys VA, Burritt MF, Gibson LE, Hammond KB, Kraft K, Rosenstein BJ. Sweat testing: Sample collection and quantitative analysis; approved guideline. Publication No C34-A2. 1994. Villanova, Pennsylvania, USA, National Committee for Clinical Laboratory Standards.

- 23 Massie J, Gaskin K, Van Asperen P, Wilcken B. Sweat testing following newborn screening for cystic fibrosis. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2000;29:452–6.
- 24 Gibson LE, di Sant'Agnese PA. Studies of salt excretion in sweat. J Pediatr. 1963;62:855–867.
- 25 LeGrys VA. Sweat testing for the diagnosis of cystic fibrosis: practical considerations. J Pediatr. 1996;129:892–7.
- 26 LeGrys VA. Sweat analysis proficiency testing for cystic fibrosis. Pediatr Pulmonol. 2000;30:476–80.
- 27 Farell PM, Koscik RE. Sweat chloride concentration in infants homozygous or heterozygous for F508 cystic fibrosis. Pediatrics. 1996;97:524–8.
- 28 Davis PB, Del Rio S, Muntz JA, Dieckman L. Sweat chloride concentration in adults with pulmonary disease. Am Rev Respir Dis. 1983;128:34–7.
- 29 Schöni MH, Kraemer R, Rossi E. Early diagnosis of cystic fibrosis by means of sweat microosmometry. J Pediatr. 1984; 104:691–4.
- 30 Licht TS, Stern M, Shwachman H. Measurement of the electrical conductivity of sweat. Clin Chem. 1957;3:37.
- 31 Shwachman H, Dunham R, Philipps WR. Electrical conductivity of sweat. A simple diagnostic test in children. Pediatrics. 1963;32:85–9.
- 32 Lezana JL, Vargas MH, Karam-Bechara J, Aldana RS, Furuya MEY. Sweat conductivity and chloride titration for cystic fibrosis diagnosis in 3834 subjects. J Cystic Fibrosis. 2003;2:1–7.
- 33 Webster HL, Quirante CG. Micro-flowcell conductometric sweat analysis for cystic fibrosis diagnosis. Ann Clin Biochem. 2000;37:399–407.
- 34 Barben J, Desax MC, Ammann RA, Schöni MH. Limitations of sweat conductivity determinations with Nanoduct analyzing system for rapid sweat testing in patients with cystic fibrosis. Eur Respir J. 2005;26:403s (abstract).
- 35 Harpin VA, Rutter N. Sweating in preterm infants. J Pediatr. 1982;100:614–8.
- 36 Barben J, Casaulta C, Desax MC, Schöni MH. Sweat testing practices in Swiss hospitals. J Cystic Fibrosis. 2006;5:S106 (abstract).

Appendix 1

1.	Schweißstin	nulation:					
	Pilocarpine-I	Pilocarpine-Iontophorese: Ja (Wescor-Sys			Nein	Unbekannt	
2.	Schweißsan	nmlung:					
	Macroduct Nanoduct (-System (Wescor) (Wescor)	Filterpapier	Gaze A	Anderes Verfahre	n	
3.	Schweissan	alyse: (bitte alle angew	endeten Methoden a	ngeben)			
	i	Methode		Normalbereich	Grauzone	CF-Diagnose	
	Na [*]	Flammenphotometer Analyser Anderes Verfahren	}				mmol/l
	CI.	Photometrie Colorometrische Titt Direkte Hautelektrod Analyser	ration }				mmol/l
	Leitfähigk	eit: Sweat-Check (Nanoduct (Wes Anderes Verfal	wescor) cor) bren }				mmol/l
	Osmolarit	ät: Dampfdruck Gefrierpunktern Anderes Verfah	iedrigung }				mmol/kg
We	lche minimale	Schweißmenge akzepti	ieren Sie ?	mg	μl μl		Technik Technik
Gel	ben Sie eine m	aximale Schweißsamm	elzeit vor ?	Ja =	min.	Nein	
Hal	ben Sie ein Mi	ndestalter oder -gewich	t für die Untersuc	hung? Ja =	Wochen/Mon	ate,Kg	Nein
Wa	nn wiederhole	n Sie den Test ?					
Bet	arteilen Sie Erg	gebnisse auch bei insuff	fizienter Schweißr	mengen? Ja	Nein		
Wi	eviele Personer	n führen bei Ihnen den	Schweißtest durch	1?			
We	er führt die Sch	weißtests bei Ihnen in d	ler Klinik durch ?				
1	Labor-Assisten	tin Krankenschw	ester Arztg	ehilfin Andere			
4.	Angaben zu	ır Klinik:					
τ	Universitäts-Ki Universitätsklir	inderklinik Kin nik für Erwachsene (Ab	derklinik in Kant teilung für Pneum	onsspital Kin 10logie) Kan	derabteilung in F itons/Stadt-Spital	legionalspital l (Abteilung für P	neumologie
An	zahl betreuter (CF-Patienten in Ihrer K	linik ?	Kinder	Erwachsene		
An	zahl Schweisst	ests in Ihrer Klinik:		pro Jahr			

Formerly: Schweizerische Medizinische Wochenschrift

Swiss Medical Weekly

Official journal of the Swiss Society of Infectious diseases, the Swiss Society of Internal Medicine and the Swiss Respiratory Society

The many reasons why you should choose SMW to publish your research

What Swiss Medical Weekly has to offer:

- SMW's impact factor has been steadily rising. The 2005 impact factor is 1.226.
- Open access to the publication via the Internet, therefore wide audience and impact
- Rapid listing in Medline
- LinkOut-button from PubMed with link to the full text website http://www.smw.ch (direct link from each SMW record in PubMed)
- No-nonsense submission you submit a single copy of your manuscript by e-mail attachment
- Peer review based on a broad spectrum of international academic referees
- Assistance of our professional statistician for every article with statistical analyses
- Fast peer review, by e-mail exchange with the referees
- Prompt decisions based on weekly conferences of the Editorial Board
- Prompt notification on the status of your manuscript by e-mail
- Professional English copy editing
- No page charges and attractive colour offprints at no extra cost

Editorial Board

Prof. Jean-Michel Dayer, Geneva
Prof. Peter Gehr, Berne
Prof. André P. Perruchoud, Basel
Prof. Andreas Schaffner, Zurich (Editor in chief)
Prof. Werner Straub, Berne
Prof. Ludwig von Segesser, Lausanne International Advisory Committee Prof. K. E. Juhani Airaksinen, Turku, Finland Prof. Anthony Bayes de Luna, Barcelona, Spain Prof. Hubert E. Blum, Freiburg, Germany Prof. Walter E. Haefeli, Heidelberg, Germany Prof. Nino Kuenzli, Los Angeles, USA Prof. René Lutter, Amsterdam, The Netherlands Prof. Claude Martin, Marseille, France Prof. Josef Patsch, Innsbruck, Austria Prof. Luigi Tavazzi, Pavia, Italy

We evaluate manuscripts of broad clinical interest from all specialities, including experimental medicine and clinical investigation.

We look forward to receiving your paper!

Guidelines for authors: http://www.smw.ch/set_authors.html



All manuscripts should be sent in electronic form, to:

EMH Swiss Medical Publishers Ltd. SMW Editorial Secretariat Farnsburgerstrasse 8 CH-4132 Muttenz

Manuscripts: Letters to the editor: Editorial Board: Internet: submission@smw.ch letters@smw.ch red@smw.ch http://www.smw.ch