LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome

EDITOR,—I read with interest the excellent review on posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome published in January.1 The author, however, has omitted an important differential diagnosis in his article—namely, progressive multifocal leukoencephalopathy (PML). This can mimic the appearances of posterior leukoencephalopathy on both computed tomography and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scans of the brain and needs to be high on the differential diagnosis especially in patients with AIDS.2 PML was first described in 1958 and is characterised by widespread demyelination in the cerebral hemispheres. Today PML is seen most frequently in patients with AIDS but can also occur in patients with chronic neoplasia and immunosuppressed states. Intellectual changes, hemiparesis, visual field defects, ataxia, aphasia, and dementia are clinical features. Seizures are rare. The cerebrospinal fluid is usually normal. On computed tomography there may be low attenuation areas in the posterior fossae but MRI (T2 weighted) shows characteristic increased signal in the posterior fossae. No enhancement is seen after intravenous contrast medium administration. The condition is associated with JC virus and has a very poor prognosis.

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The author responds:
I am grateful to Dr Banerjee for his interest in my article. I agree with his comment that PML should be included in the differential diagnosis of posterior leukoencephalopathy. Even in patients with PML computed tomography shows hypodense non-enhancing white matter lesions without associated oedema or mass effect. MRI is more sensitive than computed tomography and reveals similar hyperintense signals in the cerebral white matter on T2 weighted spin-echo images. The white matter lesions of PML also have a predilection for the occipital lobes. Occasionally, white matter abnormalities of parieto-occipital regions are present on neuroimaging.


Smoking and diabetes in Chinese men

EDITOR,—I read with interest the report by Ko et al on the association between smoking and diabetes in Chinese men with an odds ratio of 1.7 of smoking on the risk of diabetes.1

China is the greatest producer and consumer of cigarettes in the world.2 The increase in cigarette consumption in China has taken place only recently: in 1955, 1972, and 1992 the mean consumption among Chinese smokers began smoking at the age of 35 years old man. Postgrad Med J 1996; 72:249–51.

In response to comments on their earlier reports on smoking and death in China published in 1998,3 Peto et al reported that there are now about a million deaths a year in China alone from smoking. So on present day smoking patterns Chinese tobacco mortality will increase substantially.

Even more alarming is the prevalence of teenage smoking in China.3 Of every five Chinese smokers begin smoking at the age of 15–20 years, and cessation is rare.4 Teenage smoking is increasingly becoming a health problem in modern China. About 200 million children living today in China will become regular smokers. Of these, about 50 million, or one quarter, will die prematurely of smoking related illness.5

The effectiveness of continuing professional development (CPD) to the Chief Medical Officer. It gives the background to the nature of CPD, its prevalence, types, aims, the educational approaches, and the factors that influence its provision and the participation in CPD programmes. This section deals with the methodological issues. These include the design of programmes and the assessment of outcomes. The main part of the report is devoted to a review of the literature up to 1997.

There is recognition of the importance, reflected in its prevalence, of self directed learning and of how individuals will largely initiate, control, and evaluate their own continuous learning. This is a difficulty for professional bodies who award credits for more formal learning experiences. The assessment of outcomes is very difficult and falls far short of being able to measure health care benefits, which is what government wants for its financial investment in CPD. There is also no best learning method. The authors conclude that the effectiveness of CPD is a function of the process and the context in which it occurs. Horses for courses!

The authors do well to avoid the all too frequent opacity of language that makes educational papers so difficult for the general reader.

reader. I recommend this booklet as a useful and authoritative review of CPD for those involved in its provision.

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This is an up to date and succinct book outlining six important theories of learning and discussing their implications for practice in medical education. The book is clearly set out and clearly written. It goes through the following education theories: adult learning principles, social cognitive theory, reflective practice, transformative learning, self directed learning, and experiential learning. Each of these theories is described clearly and simply with references to the seminal publications in the area.

The implications of the theory for adult learning in medicine are discussed and examples are given. For example, a discussion of andragogy is followed by a set of principles that could be used as tips for practitioners in medical education and then by a description of a learning method currently used in undergraduate medical education which relates to this theory. They have chosen problem based learning to do this in this particular case. A lot of the concepts that are discussed are very complicated and there is the potential to become lost in educational jargon. However the book is clearly thought out so that this problem is minimised.

The price is reasonable and makes the book accessible to all of those interested in medical education.

In summary this is a useful, well written, and clear book and clinical educators would be well advised to spend some time reading it and to try and apply some of these theories to their current teaching practices.

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The need for a source of reliable career advice and counselling for doctors is equalled by our failure until now to meet it. The authors set out with the intention of producing a manual for people involved in career advice to juniors and colleagues, but in the end produced a book aimed at the person seeking the advice as well as the advisor.

The initial section will not prepare you to be a career counsellor but it does raise awareness of the issues within a profession that has not really thought about them. It gives sound advice on thinking about one's career but it is not a substitute for a good career counsellor or advisor.

The second part of the book is weaker. It comprises a series of some 30 case studies of doctors working within a variety of careers. It is difficult to detect the logic behind the selection. The breadth of case studies suggests that the book is intended to be of general use across all sections of the profession but there are some parts of the book where the authors' background in primary care results in a distorted emphasis. The advice on career requirements is not always accurate, for example the FRCS is now an exit examination not an entry requirement for accident and emergency medicine.

Despite these drawbacks the book is useful and timely but insufficient as the only guide to career planning.

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