LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

Posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome

EDITOR,—I read with interest the excellent review on posterior leukoencephalopathy syndrome published in January. 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. 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. Intestinal changes, haemiparesis, 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 fossa. No enhancement is seen after intravenous contrast enhancement.

PML is associated oedema or mass effect. MRI is more sensitive than CT scanning and shows hyperintense signals in the white matter on T2 weighted echo images. The white matter lesions of PML reveal similar hyperintense signals in the posterior fossa on T1 weighted images. The white matter abnormalities of parieto-occipital regions are present on neuroimaging.

As name implies, PML is a progressive disorder, the presenting symptoms include altered mental status, speech and visual disturbances, gait difficulty, hemiparesis, and limb incoordination. The clinical condition deteriorates progressively and the patient dies within six months. In patients with posterior leukoencephalopathy the symptoms develop rapidly, and after treatment the clinical features and imaging abnormalities resolve completely. The characteristic clinical manifestations of posterior leukoencephalopathy include seizures, headache, vomiting, confusional state, visual abnormalities, and infrequently focal motor and sensory neurological deficits. Dr Banerjee has rightly commented that the seizures are infrequent in patients with PML, while in patients with posterior leukoencephalopathy seizures (especially occipital lobe seizures) are dominant and a universal manifestation. Patients with posterior leukoencephalopathy usually have a predisposing cause, the most common being hyper tension, encephalopathy, toxemia of pregnancy, renal diseases, and treatment with cytotoxic and immunosuppressive drugs.

In my opinion PML in patients with an acquired immunodeficiency state can reliably be differentiated from posterior leukoencephalopathy on clinical grounds even if bilateral symmetrical demyelinating white matter abnormalities of parieto-occipital regions are present on neuroimaging.

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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 occipital and parietal lobes. Occasionally, white matter lesions may symmetrically involve bilateral occipital lobes and may clinically present with cortical blindness; in such patients the clinical and imaging picture is similar to that of posterior leukoencephalopathy. Moreover, both the AIDS and leukoencephalopathy and PML can occur in HIV infected patients and in patients with various lymphoproliferative and myeloproliferative disorders. Certainly in HIV infected patient PML should always be considered as a diagnostic possibility.

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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 main increase in tobacco consumption in China has taken place only recently: in 1952, 1972, and 1992 the mean consumption among Chinese smokers was one, four, and 10 cigarettes per day, respectively.3 Deaths due to smoking will increase from about two million worldwide in 1995 to more than seven million in 2025.4 In response to comments on their earlier reports on smoking and death in China published in 1998,5 Peto et al reported that there are now already a million deaths a year in China alone from smoking.6 So on present day smoking patterns Chinese tobacco mortality will increase substantially. Even more alarming is the prevalence of teenage smoking in China. Three of every five Chinese smokers begin smoking at the age of 15–20 years, and cessation is rare.7 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.8 The association of smoking and diabetes reported by Ko et al with the attendant complications of diabetes will most likely increase further this number.

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The Effectiveness of Continuing Professional Development


This publication saw life initially as a report on 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. The next 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. Some 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. Good.

The reviewers have been asked to rate these books in terms of four items: readability, how up to date they are, accuracy and reliability, and value for money, using simple four point scales. From their opinions we have derived an overall “star” rating: * = poor, ** = good, *** = excellent.


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

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Teaching & Learning in Medical Education: How theory can inform practice.
D M Kaufman, K V Mann, and P A Jennett.
(Pp 40; £2 non-members, £10 members.)

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

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