community services are provided. They may degenerate into a form of probation, with brief statutory home visits to supervise medication. In their favour, community treatment orders cut both ways. They both commit the patients to treatment and commit psychiatric teams to providing continuing care for these most disabled and challenging patients.

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Recent scientific advances in our understanding of the disease and in the progress in treatment of other solid tumours. Our results are encouraging and warrant a comparative trial. We would welcome collaboration from other centres in Britain in such a trial and agree with Professor Blamey that external review of response would be required.

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Secretor state of patients with insulin dependent or non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus

Stir,—Like Dr Caroline Blackwell and colleagues (24 October, p 1024), we compared the secretor state of 105 diabetic subjects with that of 97 age and sex matched non-diabetic individuals. Our study group comprised 55 patients with type I diabetes and 50 with type II diabetes, and the secretor state was assessed by a standard haemagglutination method using mixed saliva. Statistical analysis was by chi squared test. There was no significant difference in the distribution of ABO blood groups between those with type I and those with type II disease (table).

Proportions of secretors and non-secretors. Figures are numbers (and percentages) of patients

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Secretor state</th>
<th>Non-secretor</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type I diabetes</td>
<td>30 (54.5)</td>
<td>25 (45.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type II diabetes</td>
<td>35 (70)</td>
<td>15 (30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controls (n=97)</td>
<td>65 (67)</td>
<td>32 (33)</td>
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Our data therefore cannot confirm those of Dr Blackwell and colleagues but are consistent with previous reports that the occurrence of diabetes mellitus is independent of ABH (O) secretor state.1,3

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Hormonochemotherapy in advanced breast cancer

Stir,—The report by Mrs Margaret W Ghilchik and others (7 November, p 1172) produces yet another regimen in which a high response rate is claimed in advanced breast cancer. Hitherto such claims have turned out to be overexaggerations, and there is no reason to think that this is the exception.

This is not a sequential series, and a group in which response is likely to be excellent can be defined by case selection.1 If only those patients predicted to have good survival were treated then a very good response rate would be achieved with any therapy used. The criteria for admission to the study are not described.

The study is not a trial of hormonochemotherapy against some standard therapy such as hormone therapy alone. Furthermore, the judgment of response lacks external review.

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Stir,—The results of Mrs Margaret W Ghilchik and colleagues in 40 patients with advanced breast cancer are most impressive. This is so even when the six patients dying from progressive disease before completing the course are included in the denominator to give an overall response rate of 78%. Also impressive is the high proportion of patients who completed several weeks of daily intramuscular medroxyprogesterone. What I cannot understand is the table, where the figures do not seem to fit with the text.

Firstly, 38 sites are listed for the 34 patients assessed so presumably only four patients had more than one site affected. Sixteen patients (text) had a complete response (all disease sites back to normal for at least six weeks) by the definition of the International Union Against Cancer) yet only 12 completely responding sites are listed. The 15 patients who had a partial response (text) have 22 sites listed with average durations of six, five, seven, and six months. Do these figures represent the durations of complete response which occurred in partially responding patients as suggested by the text? If so, then they cannot be “means” since by my calculations four of the patients had more than one site affected. They certainly cannot represent the durations of partial remissions by site since for the 15 patients in this category the mean duration is given as 11-6 months. An explanation of these discrepancies should be given in view of the excellent overall results reported.

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AUTHORS’ REPLY.—We could not include all the details we would have liked within a 600 word short report. The criteria for entry to this study (we did not claim to be carrying out a trial) was advanced breast cancer as defined in the paper. Most of the patients were moribund; hence the deaths of six before they could complete one treatment cycle. Our case selection was a group of women who were expected to do badly and the results are not an overexaggeration but an account of the results we obtained.

Regarding points raised by Ms Stewart, eight of the 34 patients had disease at more than one site in addition to large tumour size, with all sites being used to assess response. The average duration of disease free interval for patients with disease at different sites who showed a partial response does represent the mean duration before progression of disease. The mean disease free interval of 11-6 months for patients showing a partial response included the results from two patients who had a long term arrest of disease (five and three years) but who were not disease free. The average duration of disease free interval calculated without these two patients was 6-5 months.

Current results of treatment of disseminated breast cancer are not so good that we should not explore new treatments, particularly in the light of recent scientific advances in our understanding of the disease and in the progress in treatment of other solid tumours. Our results are encouraging and warrant a comparative trial. We would welcome collaboration from other centres in Britain in such a trial and agree with Professor Blamey that external review of response would be required.

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Euthanasia in The Netherlands

Stir,—Dr Mary Bliss and others state that “voluntary euthanasia has been effectively legalised in The Netherlands for several years” (14 November, p 1276). This information is not correct.

Euthanasia is still illegal in The Netherlands. Under article 293 of the penal code any person who terminates the life of another person at the latter’s request is liable to up to 12 years’ imprisonment.

For the past 10 to 20 years the public debate has focused on the question of whether the criminal law on the termination of life on request should be amended so that a doctor who performs euthanasia on a patient who is undergoing intolerable (not necessarily merely physical) suffering is liable to punishment. In July 1985 the State
Commission on Euthanasia put forward a proposal suggesting that immunity from prosecution for doctors performing euthanasia should be subject to a number of criteria: the patient must be in an untenable situation with no prospect of improvement; the patient’s request must be voluntary, rational, and consistent; the patient must have been informed of his/her condition; and must not be no other way of escape from that condition; a second doctor must be consulted. These criteria are closely mirrored in the guidelines on euthanasia issued by the Dutch Medical Association.

In a series of judicial decisions since 1973 court criteria have been developed which closely correlate with the criteria of the state commission and the Dutch Medical Association. If a doctor fully adheres to these criteria in performing euthanasia he will usually not be prosecuted.

The present government, which will remain in office until 1990, has not adopted the proposals of the state commission. It recently proposed a bill to keep euthanasia performed by a doctor as a criminal offence under the penal code. The public prosecutor, however, will probably continue the report of dismissing charges against a doctor who has strictly adhered to the criteria mentioned earlier.

There is thus no formal legalisation of euthanasia in the Netherlands, nor will there be in the near future. Dutch doctors performing euthanasia in accordance with the criteria mentioned above, however, expect to remain protected from prosecution by the jurisprudence that has developed over the years.

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Doctors with AIDS

SIR,—Anyone wishing for an illustration of the practice of counselling sick doctors with blood transmissible diseases should read the report by Grob and others.1 This shows that a general practitioner with hepatitis B infected 41 patients over four and a half years. When this was discovered he was counselled on how to reduce transmission, and no new cases occurred for several months. When cases of hepatitis B began to recur investigation showed that he had become ill with oesophageal varices that he was unable to put counselling into practice.

Since it appears that hepatitis B is 20 times more transmissible than human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) it is reasonable to assume that this general practitioner was carrying HIV he would have infected patients in four and a half years, a risk which is slightly greater than negligible for patients.

As Professor Michael Adler points out (21 November, p 1297), hepatitis B transmission is more usually associated with surgery, and surgeons are not asked to stop operating until an outbreak of hepatitis B has been traced to them.2 The problem with adopting this approach for HIV is that the “incubation” period is five years, not 150 days. In the time infected patients become ill they will have infected subsequent sexual partners, obscuring the true source of infection. This may explain why no health care worker has yet been proved to have transmitted HIV to a patient. Similarly, when surgeons carrying HIV is unlikely to realise this and seek testing and counselling until he or she feels unwell. Since surgeons’ gloves are


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Testing for HIV

SIR,—Mr Clare Dyer (10 October, p 871) advises that doctors risk civil or criminal proceedings if they test for human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) antibodies without the patient’s consent and refers to the detailed legal opinion from Messrs Michael Sherrard QC and Ian Gatt (10 October, p 991). This legal opinion provides an informative review of related legal decisions and issues.

The matter of greatest practical importance to doctors is whether a patient who has given consent to the obtaining of a blood sample must give further specific consent before the blood is tested. The patient and doctor must decide whether a “routine” test and comment, “The testing and testing of a sample, though it may be commonly carried out, without the knowledge of the patient” is to be considered routine by the courts. Given the far-reaching implications of a positive result... it is equally unlikely that the courts will define an HIV test should be classified as routine. Accordingly a medical practitioner is under a duty to ensure that the patient’s explicit consent to the testing is obtained.

The authors do not offer any definition of a “routine” test and offer no guidance as to what tests, if any, apart from HIV testing, will come into this category. If the authors’ arguments had been correct it becomes a matter of some importance to define a “routine” test and to establish what additional tests fall outside this category. Logically all these “non-routine” tests would require exactly the same specific consent as HIV testing and failure to follow this procedure will carry the same risks for doctors.

It would be most helpful if the BMA would now obtain further legal advice for its members on these specific issues.

The following comments attempt to put the issues in a practical context.

The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines “routine” as “regular course of procedure, unvarying performance, or in accordance with acts.”

The number and scope of blood tests performed routinely has expanded progressively as advances in technique have enabled large numbers of analyses to be performed cheaply on a single small blood sample. This expansion will almost certainly continue and doctors will be asked to perform many more tests than were previously feasible.

Control of HIV infection with confidentiality

SIR,—Doctors diagnosing human immunodeficiency virus (HIV) infection are in a dilemma between maintaining strict confidentiality about their patients, who may not want anyone else to know, and the need to alert certain others for purposes of controlling infection. Dr P Gerber (7 November, p 1205) suggested that a failure to inform colleagues might, in some circumstances, even be culpable in law. Many consider that the patients’ own general practitioners at least should know, not just for safety purposes but to appreciate the deeper significance when illness occurs.

To preserve confidentiality yet achieve control of infection in this district we have for the past two years used the term high infection risk to alert staff. We apply this to a group of diseases—HIV and other human lymphotropic virus infections (HTLV-I and II), hepatitis B, and hepatitis non-A non-B with such similar epidemiology that a single set of control arrangements covers all satisfactorily. The management of these patients is built into all the district’s hygiene and nursing procedures, staff have been given hypotheses and told what the term means, and case notes are marked with it. In this way all the necessary steps can