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- SHORT REPORTS

Helping people to stop smoking: randomised comparison of groups being treated with acupuncture and nicotine gum with control group

The two treatments most often studied in helping people to stop smoking are acupuncture¹² and nicotine gum.³⁴ We report the results of a randomised trial comparing the efficacy of these treatments with that of a control treatment over 12 months of follow up.

Subjects, methods, and results

We advertised among the general public asking for volunteers to participate in the trial. Although a recent poll reported that almost half the smokers in France wished to stop smoking, we had to contact nearly 35 000 smokers to enrol 651

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The criteria for success were the proportion of people who had completely stopped smoking one and 13 months after entering the study and evolution of this proportion

Subjects who claimed to have stopped smoking were followed up by post every three months after stopping. Those still smoking after one month were not followed up afterwards and were counted as failures, as were non-respondents to mailings sent to those who did not attend the third group therapy session. Half of the ex-smokers were visited at home at one year and their expired carbon monoxide concentration measured (carbon monoxide breath kit, Catalyst Research Corporation). Concentrations greater than five parts per million were attributed to smoking. We estimated that 200 participants in each group were necessary to show a reduction in the prevalence of smoking after one month from 75% in the control group to 60% in the active treatment groups (α =5%, β =10%)

Altogether 224 subjects were given acupuncture, 205 nicotine gum, and 222 the control treatment. No significant difference was found between the three groups for sex, age, age at first cigarette, daily consumption, previous attempts to stop smoking, and frequency of inhalation. The proportion of non-respondents (about 6%) did not differ between the three groups. None among those whose exhaled concentration of carbon monoxide was checked was found to be smoking. The proportion of ex-smokers at one and 13 months was significantly lower in the

No (%) of ex-smokers one and 13 months after entry to study by treatment group

	Acupuncture (n=224)	Gum (n=205)	Control (n=222)	p Values of tests			
				Global	Acupuncture v control	Gum v control	Acupuncture v gum
At one month	43 (19)	46 (22)	18 (8)	0.0001	0.001	0.00001	NS
At 13 months	17 (8)	24 (12)	6(3)	0.005	0.05	0.001	NS

participants. Adults smoking at least five cigarettes a day were eligible. We excluded women who were pregnant or breast feeding and people with gastric ulcers or a history of heart disease. Treatment (acupuncture, nicotine gum, or a control treatment) was allocated by balanced randomisation, each group receiving three one hour sessions of group therapy during the first month

control group than in the groups given acupuncture and gum (table). The evolution of this proportion throughout the follow up period showed no significant difference between the three groups.

In the group given acupuncture the needles were placed bilaterally for 30 minutes at the "shuai gu" and "qiuhou" points. In the group given nicotine gum 105 pieces of gum, each containing 2 mg nicotine, were distributed to each participant. Subjects in the control group were given minimal intervention, consisting of a cigarette case with a lock controlled by a time switch, which they could regulate at will.

Comment

The groups given acupuncture and nicotine gum showed a better response than the control group. The lack of difference between the two active treatments may have been due to a lack of power: the number of subjects was insufficient to enable the active treatments to be compared. Acupuncture and nicotine gum were effective in helping smokers to stop smoking during the first month but did not reduce the tendency to relapse after that time.

The subjects in our trial did not take the initiative in coming to a clinic to stop smoking but were invited to take part. This may explain our low long term rate of success compared with that of withdrawal clinics.

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Squash rackets: a survey of eye injuries in England

With the increasing popularity of the game of squash rackets over the past 15 years there has been a corresponding awareness by ophthalmologists in Western countries of the increased number of ocular injuries. In response to a need for more information on the extent of injuries to the eyes the Squash Rackets Association set up a working party, which carried out a survey of eye injuries sustained during squash from October 1982 to March 1983.

Subjects, methods, and results

Simple reporting cards were used asking ophthalmologists whose names were on the list of the Faculty of Ophthalmologists in England to report any ocular injury sustained from squash during the six month survey period and also to ask their local accident and emergency department to report similarly when appropriate, the ophthalmologist acting as collator of the reporting cards. The reporting card was deliberately brief and covered only the following aspects of the injury: date, age, sex, nature of injury, whether spectacles or eye protectors were worn, and cause of injury (racket, ball, or other).

A total of 339 players (278 men and 61 women) were reported with injuries to the eye and adnexae over the six month survey period. The youngest player was aged 7 and the oldest 61. Most of the injured players (251 out of 339) were aged 20-39.

Most injuries were caused by the ball (235 out of 339), but the racket caused 103 injuries and collision with the wall of the court caused three. Reports of injuries were received from many places in England, but those from areas of dense population and resorts on the south coast predominated.

The table shows the detailed nature of the injuries to the ocular tissues. The concussive nature of most injuries was reflected in the large number of hyphaemas (147) and retinal damage (33)—that is, haemorrhage, oedema, and detachment whereas there were only three penetrating injuries.

Comment

Recent reports of the nature of injuries to the eyes sustained during the game of squash have come from North America, Britain, Australia, and France,14 and from these reports the squash ball was consistently recorded as the most common cause of injury. In our survey injuries caused by balls outnumbered those caused by rackets by over two to one (233 caused by balls and 103 by rackets). The severe concussion injuries that caused retinal damage and the penetrating injuries may have caused some degree of permanent visual impairment; 40 out of 339 players had such injuries.

Detailed nature of injuries to ocular tissues*

Tissue	Injury	No of injuries	
Orbit	Fractures	3	
Eyelids	{Lacerations Bruising	50 40	
Conjunctiva	Haemorrhage Lacerations	18 4	
Cornea	Abrasions Perforations	54 2	
Anterior chamber	Hyphaema Angle recession	147 3	
Iris	{Iritis Mydriasis Dialysis	30 8 1	
Lens	Subluxation	2	
Vitreous	∫Posterior separation }Haemorrhage	4 2	
Sclera	Perforation	1	
Retina	Haemorrhage/oedema Tear Detachment	28 3 2	

* Details of injury were unrecorded in 34 cases. Thirteen admissions to hospital were known but most were not recorded

There are well recognised limitations in any reporting system that relies on subjects to complete card reports, and the interest and diligence of the ophthalmologists in this survey to report injuries would have varied. Family practitioners were not consulted in our survey. Despite these admitted limitations our results confirm the impression gained by ophthalmologists that injuries to the eyes during the game of squash have become more common. This first attempt to quantify these injuries does give evidence of their widespread nature, and the total number is probably greater than reported for the reasons mentioned above.

The wearing of eye protectors when playing squash has been recommended by some people and official bodies,5 and several eyeguards are available commercially. There is, however, no national or international standard for an eye protector. The Squash Rackets Association is examining the evidence on injuries and eye protection in the game of squash.

I thank fellow members of the Squash Rackets Association working party, Dr J G P Williams, Mr M Gilkes, and Mr J B Davey. Mr Alan Chalmers, manager of services and administration, Squash Rackets Association, provided the facilities for administrating the survey. I also thank the Faculty of Ophthalmologists for support; Miss Cyrilla Chatfield, who performed all the secretarial work; and the ophthalmologists in England, who reported the cases and made this survey possible.

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Humoral antibody response after rubella vaccination

In five schoolgirls tested after vaccination under the Edinburgh rubella programme all were seronegative by single radial haemolysis, while four were positive by enzyme linked immunosorbant assay. Subsequent specimens from all five were positive by single radial haemolysis. This and other, similar results prompted us to examine vaccinees more closely, particularly with respect to the apparently slow response in antibodies detected by single radial haemolysis. Current interest in extending the British rubella programme towards the Edinburgh system¹ would involve