Lethal Pity: The Oregon Death with Dignity Act, Its Implications for the Disabled, and the Struggle for Equality in an Able-Bodied World

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Mark C. Siegel*

Introduction

Everything dies. This is a fundamental truth. The maple tree in my family's backyard will eventually grow old, and new leaves will no longer grace its branches. My friend's cat, which is now just a kitten, will one day stop breathing and its heart will stop beating. On a grander scale, languages are born and forgotten. Civilizations rise and decline. Even stars go nova and become dark shadows of their former selves.

And, of course, human beings die too.

Human society has struggled with questions of life and death since the first human beings buried one of their comrades on the plains of Africa. It has developed intricate ceremonies and belief systems in an attempt to lessen the cruel finality which comes with death.¹ Poets and writers have written extensively about death, some with more vitriol than others.² Films concerning death have permeated American culture with varying degrees of

* J.D. expected 1998, University of Minnesota Law School; B.A. 1995, St. Norbert College. There are many people that I must thank for seeing me through this long journey to publication. Among them are my parents, Barbara and Charles, for their love and belief in me; Beth Docherty, Bonnie Kim, Anne Becker, Lisa Hollingsworth and Marya McDonald for their superlative editorial attention; Diane Coleman and Professor Susan M. Wolf for their helpful comments and guidance; my nursing staff for spending those long hours in the library with me; and Tara Bradley, Charles Whitney, and Courtney Sullivan for their invaluable friendship and support. This Article is dedicated to the physicians, nurses and staff of the University of Wisconsin-Madison Children's Hospital. Their care and compassion for a very sick young man a decade ago has made so much possible for me today. Thank you.

¹ Examples include Catholic wakes, Jewish mourning periods, funerals, burials, cremation, etc.

² See, e.g., DYLAN THOMAS, Do Not Go Gentle into That Good Night, in COLLECTED POEMS 128 (1934).
artistic success. In short, death has always been an integral part of our collective psyche.

Recently, advances in medical technology have drastically changed how people view life and death. Along with these scientific advances come questions about what constitutes a desirable quality of life and what it means to die with dignity. The answers to these questions have been increasingly analyzed and intensely debated as a result of the controversy over physician-assisted suicide. A growing number of people who determine that their medical conditions either severely impair their perceived quality of life or are terminal are asking their physicians to help them end their lives.

In response to these requests for physician-assisted suicide, some state legislatures have attempted to legalize the practice in an effort to prevent the criminal prosecution of those physicians who actively assist a patient in the patient's own death. Oregon is the first state, however, to pass a measure legalizing physician-assisted suicide. In passing the Oregon Death with Dignity Act,

3. See, e.g., FEARLESS (Warner Bros. 1993); FLATLINERS (Columbia Pictures 1990).

4. In this Article, the term "physician-assisted suicide" is defined as the practice of physicians giving patients the means to die; it is the patient who must perform the actual suicide. This is not the same thing as euthanasia. Euthanasia occurs when the physician commits the lethal act. It should be noted that there is an important distinction between voluntary and involuntary euthanasia. Voluntary euthanasia occurs when the patient gives informed consent to die. Involuntary euthanasia occurs when the patient is unable to give consent yet is euthanized regardless.

5. See, e.g., Jerald G. Bachman et al., Attitudes of Michigan Physicians and the Public Toward Legalizing Physician-assisted Suicide and Voluntary Euthanasia, 334 NEW ENG. J. MED. 303, 304 (1996) (citing a recent poll showing that 24% of the Michigan public definitely thought they might request physician-assisted suicide if it were available).


7. See Roger Worthington, Kervorkian Verdict Won't End Assisted-Suicide Issue, CHI. TRIB., Apr. 30, 1994, at 2 (detailing one of the several prosecutions of Dr. Jack Kervorkian).


The Supreme Court only recently weighed in on the issue of whether a person has a constitutionally-protected right to die in Washington v. Glucksberg, 117 S. Ct. 2258 (1997). Glucksberg is the product of two related cases, Compassion in Dying v. Washington, 79 F.3d 790 (9th Cir. 1996) and Quill v. Vacco, 80 F.3d 716 (2d Cir. 1996). In Compassion in Dying, a non-profit right-to-die group, along with
the Oregon legislature treaded into legal waters previously unexplored. The ensuing controversy over this law has permeated the nation, resulting in a fierce debate.10

One issue inescapably linked with the physician-assisted suicide debate is the impact laws such as Oregon's will have on the lives of the disabled in America. This Article examines that issue and draws conclusions regarding the legal and ethical implications of physician-assisted suicide as it relates to the civil rights of the disabled. Specifically, this Article will demonstrate that the legalization of physician-assisted suicide is fraught with uncertainty and potential for abuse. One possible result of the passage of such legislation is that physician-assisted suicide laws will eventually be broadened to include not only terminally ill individuals, but also physically and cognitively disabled individuals. The notion, which is so prevalent in American culture, that disability and a low quality of life go hand in hand may influence disabled individuals to choose legally-sanctioned suicide rather than attempt to live in a society that presents a multitude of physical and social barriers to them.

Part I of this Article discusses the treatment of the disabled in Western society from ancient times to the modern era. Part II provides a brief history of physician-assisted suicide and traces its evolution in this country and others. Part III analyzes the Oregon Death with Dignity Act, explains the important sections of this law and describes the legal challenges it recently faced. Part IV demonstrates the dangers of legalizing physician-assisted suicide and the impact it may have on the lives of the disabled. Part V offers numerous terminally ill individuals, successfully challenged a Washington statute which criminalized assisted suicide. See Compassion in Dying, 79 F.3d at 793-94. The Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals ruled that the State of Washington's ban on physician-assisted suicide was unconstitutional and a violation of due process. See id. In Quill, another group of physicians and patients successfully challenged a similar statute in New York. See Quill, 80 F.3d at 716. In Glucksberg, the Court ruled that there is not a constitutional right to die. See Glucksberg, 117 S. Ct. at 2262-75.

This ruling does not mean that physician-assisted suicide is explicitly prohibited. Other states are free to consider their own laws regarding physician-assisted suicide. See id. at 2275. As the Court stated, "[t]hroughout the Nation, Americans are engaged in an earnest and profound debate about the morality, legality, and practicality of physician-assisted suicide. Our holding permits this debate to continue, as it should in a democratic society." Id.

10. See Brown, supra note 8, at 22 and accompanying text; Carey Goldberg, Oregon Braces for New Right-to-Die Fight, N.Y. TIMES, June 17, 1997, at A12 ("Oregon may become again, and with greater intensity, the principal arena in which the thorny ethical questions surrounding [physician-assisted suicide] are translated into a knock-down, drag-out political battle.").
solutions and alternatives for addressing the underlying issues surrounding physician-assisted suicide and the effect it may have on people with disabilities.

I. The Disabled: Paternalism and Oppression

A. Angels and Demons: The Beginnings of Oppression

People with disabilities have always occupied a curious position in Western society. On one hand, society has viewed them as noble individuals who bear the burden of their infirmities with an angelic countenance. On the other hand, society has regarded the disabled as pathetic and helpless creatures who have no prospects for leading normal and productive lives. As a result, people with disabilities have been relegated to a secondary role in society, a role replete with overtones of dependence, paternalism and oppression.

In ancient times, the disabled were generally treated as outsiders. The early Christians believed that the disabled were cursed by God or possessed by demons. The Romans, and later the Roman Catholic Church, prohibited the disabled from serving as priests. Although Christianity later began to take a more charitable attitude towards people with disabilities, the disabled were always considered to be the “other”: a foreigner and a stranger, a tragedy in human form.

13. See infra note 55 and accompanying text.
15. See id.
16. See id.
17. See id. at 32.
B. The Early Twentieth Century: The Nazis and Aktion T-4

When Adolf Hitler and the Nazis rose to power in Germany during the 1930s, few people guessed how their actions would forever alter the debate on euthanasia and assisted suicide. Hitler possessed a vehement contempt for the disabled.\textsuperscript{19} In his book \textit{Mein Kampf}, Hitler wrote that his Third Reich "must take care that only the healthy beget children; that there shall be but one thing shameful: to be sick and ailing, and nevertheless to bring children into the world."\textsuperscript{20} This violent hatred of the "inferior" and the "genetically tainted" directly resulted in the forced sterilization of 375,000 people between 1933 and 1939; people who were physically disabled, mentally ill or challenged, deaf, blind, alcoholic or who otherwise did not meet Hitler's specifications of a healthy Aryan.\textsuperscript{21} Yet this was only a precursor to the killing that would follow.

In September 1939, Hitler signed a secret order that marked the beginning of the systematic extermination of the physically and mentally disabled in Germany.\textsuperscript{22} The killing program was known as \textit{Aktion T-4}.\textsuperscript{23} \textit{Aktion T-4} was a quintessential example of Nazi brutality combined with the efficient bureaucracy of the Third Reich. Ironically, the Holocaust began where one might least suspect: in the hospitals.\textsuperscript{24} The Nazis transported "qualified" patients by bus from hospitals to killing centers scattered across Germany.\textsuperscript{25} Once the patients arrived at the killing centers, the Nazis brought them to a shower room and told them to wash after the long journey.\textsuperscript{26} After the Nazis herded the patients into the showers, a nurse closed the door and the head physician of the fa-

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{19} See \textit{Gallagher}, \textit{supra} note 16, at 52.
\item \textsuperscript{20} Id.
\item \textsuperscript{21} See \textit{id.} at 53.
\item \textsuperscript{22} See \textit{id.} at 45-46. The order, written on Hitler's personal stationary, stated that "persons who, according to human judgment, are incurable can, upon a most careful diagnosis of their condition of sickness, be accorded a mercy death." \textit{Id.} Hitler actually backdated the order to September 1, 1939, the day Germany invaded Poland. See \textit{id.} at 45. This was done to give the killing program the status of a wartime order. See \textit{id.} Hitler intended to formally legalize the program after the war. See \textit{id.}
\item \textsuperscript{23} See \textit{id.} at 57. The moniker "T-4" came from the address of the villa which served as the base of operations for the program: \textit{Tiergartenstrasse} 4, Berlin, Germany. See \textit{id.}
\item \textsuperscript{24} See \textit{id.} at 13.
\item \textsuperscript{25} See \textit{id.} at 11; \textit{60 Minutes: Herr Doktor} (CBS television broadcast, Oct. 20, 1996) (describing the methods used by the Nazis to facilitate \textit{Aktion T-4}) [hereinafter \textit{60 Minutes}].
\item \textsuperscript{26} See \textit{Gallagher}, \textit{supra} note 16, at 13.
\end{itemize}
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cility pushed a button to release carbon monoxide into the room, which killed the unsuspecting patients.27

The Nazis killed between 100,000 and 200,000 people28 before Aktion T-4 ended in 1941. The Nazis officially discontinued the program because of growing public protest over the Nazis' treatment of the disabled, but unofficial killing continued until the end of the war in 1945.29 This widespread extermination of Germany's disabled population is still a relatively unknown chapter of history,30 despite the well-known history of the holocaust of Jews, Gypsies, homosexuals, and political dissidents.31

C. Modern Times

In modern times, the disabled continue to exist outside of mainstream society. Much of this isolation is due to society's implicit and persistent rejection of the disabled.32 These attitudes stem from several sources. One source is the depiction of the disabled in literature and media.33 Other sources include social norms, child-rearing practices and deep-seated psychological fears or anxieties.34

The discrimination arising out of these prejudices affects nearly every aspect of disabled people's lives. They are denied basic human traits as a result of society's fears and misconceptions. The mainstream culture, for example, commonly assumes that the disabled are devoid of sexuality and sexual characteristics.35 Surveys on sexuality generally ignore issues relating to the disabled.36 One study indicates that society has disapproving, or even nega-

27. See id. at 14-15. During the Nazi's official euthanasia stage, carbon monoxide was the killing method, but after this official stage, the killings continued by the method chosen by each facility's medical director. See id.

28. See DEREK HUMPHRY & ANN WICKETT, THE RIGHT TO DIE: UNDERSTANDING EUTHANASIA 20 (1986) (asserting that approximately 100,000 people were killed due to Aktion T-4); 60 Minutes, supra note 25 (stating that over 200,000 people were killed as a result of Aktion T-4).

29. See GALLAGHER, supra note 14, at 15.

30. See id. at 5 ("The world has largely ignored the issue of what the German physicians did to their patients during World War II.").

31. See id. at 51-53; 60 Minutes, supra note 25.

32. See Wolfe, supra note 12, at 31 (citing a recent Harris poll which showed that 47% of Americans are fearful of the disabled).

33. See PERCY, supra note 18, at 5.

34. See id. at 5-6 (citing a review of studies that examined the formation of attitudes toward disabled people).

35. See Yvonne Duffy, Our Sexual Rights, INDEPENDENT LIVING, Sept. 1992, at 65, 68 ("[M]ost of society continues to view [the disabled] as asexual").

tive, attitudes towards the disabled expressing their sexuality. Until very recently, physicians had even suggested that individuals with disabilities be sterilized when they reached adolescence. Various reasons have been cited for society's perception of the disabled as asexual or impotent. These include misconceptions that the disabled are unable to be intimate because they are locked in a perpetual "childlike" state and that they cannot participate in sexual activity for health reasons.

Other facets of the disabled person's life are affected by society's attitudes as well. The disabled person's effort to find employment is frustrated by employers' reluctance to hire such individuals because employers fear that special accommodations will be required or that the disabled worker will not be as productive as a "normal" worker. It is estimated that sixty-six percent of disabled individuals aged sixteen to sixty-four were unemployed in 1985. Internationally, the unemployment rate for disabled persons is two to three times higher than it is for other persons.

Federal and state legislatures have passed significant legislation since the 1970s that has benefited the disabled. These institutional changes have varied widely, from the provision of designated parking spots for the disabled to federally-mandated programs designed to curb discrimination against the disabled.

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37. See Percy, supra note 18, at 6 (citing a study of sexually-liberated college students).
38. See, e.g., Gliedman & Roth, supra note 36, at 365 (relating an instance when a physician recommended to the mother of a child with Down's Syndrome that the child should be sterilized once she began to menstruate).
39. See id. at 365-66.
40. See id.
[The [disabled] role represents the culturally prescribed 'solution' to the misfortune of suffering from a condition that supposedly renders one indefinitely childlike. Perceiving the [disabled] as sick, it is only natural for the able-bodied to believe that they are either incapable of sex because of the 'illness,' or that they should not engage in sex because ... sexual indulgence can slow or even prevent recovery.
41. See Percy, supra note 18, at 194 (attributing employers' reluctance to "common myths and misunderstandings, which include the ideas that the employment of disabled persons will increase insurance and workers compensation costs, cause higher absenteeism among employees, reduce productivity, harm the morale and productivity of [non-disabled] workers, and require costly accommodation measures.").
42. See id. at 8.
45. See infra notes 46-48.
The major federal programs which are meant to assist the disabled include the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and, perhaps the most significant piece of federal legislation affecting disability rights, the Americans with Disabilities Act. Although these federal acts have had a dramatic impact on the lives of the disabled and have allowed them to achieve limited integration into mainstream society, they have not been enough to alter society's invidious discrimination against people with disabilities.

These factors contribute to the social and physical isolation of the disabled. The disabled are forced into a dependent role that inhibits their social development and casts them into a paradigm that is more paternal than rehabilitative. As the authors of one book state, "[the disabled] do not develop sociologically; they remain 'unstuck in time', citizens of a therapeutic state where there are only good patients and bad patients, not grown-ups and children."

This is simply a brief overview of how the disabled have been treated in Western civilization, particularly the United States. Volumes have been written about the sociology and psychology of disability and it is not this author's intention to reiterate the findings of others. It is critical to understand the disabled experience in order to see how the legalization of assisted suicide and euthanasia will result in the continued devaluation of people with disabilities. As one author puts it: "When society pities and fears persons with disabilities to the extent that suicide is considered a


47. See Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1970, 20 U.S.C § 1400 (1994) (requiring that every disabled child receive "a free appropriate public education" regardless of the nature of his or her disability).


49. See Ruth Freedman & Sheila Fesko, The Meaning of Work in the Lives of People with Significant Disabilities: Consumer and Family Perspectives, 62 J. REHABILITATION 49, 49 (1996) ("Since the passage of the Americans with Disabilities Act and the Rehabilitation Amendments of 1992, there has been increased public attention to the employment of people with disabilities.").

50. See id. at 54.

51. GLIEDMAN & ROTH, supra note 36, at 261.

rational choice, it is difficult to expect that same society will have enough respect to treat such persons as truly equal."\textsuperscript{53} The pity and fear are important components of a potentially deadly equation. An analysis of physician-assisted suicide and euthanasia in relation to society's attitudes about disability will reveal the sum of that equation.

II. Assisted Suicide and Euthanasia: A Historical Overview

Understanding the history of the right-to-die movement sheds light on its motivations and how it has achieved such widespread acceptance in American culture and around the world.

A. A Historical Perspective

Physician-assisted suicide and euthanasia are nothing new to human civilization.\textsuperscript{54} The ancient Greeks had a strong tradition of embracing euthanasia\textsuperscript{55} and hastening death.\textsuperscript{56} Plato criticized the medical profession in his \textit{Republic} for "educating diseases . . . and inventing lingering death."\textsuperscript{57} The Stoics also thought highly of suicide, killing themselves for such minor physical maladies as a wrenched finger or an abscessed gum.\textsuperscript{58} The Romans also viewed suicide as an acceptable means of ending a terminal illness or escaping dishonor.\textsuperscript{59} By Medieval times, attitudes had changed, and suicide was strongly discouraged. The Christian Church condemned it as a crime, denying funeral rites to anyone who voluntarily ended his or her own life.\textsuperscript{60}

It was not until the Age of Enlightenment that attitudes regarding euthanasia began to shift again.\textsuperscript{61} Secular individuals, at least, no longer viewed suicide and euthanasia as evil acts worthy


\textsuperscript{54} See, e.g., HUMPHRY & WICKETT, \textit{supra} note 28, at 3-19 (1986) (providing a brief overview of the treatment of euthanasia throughout history and across cultures).

\textsuperscript{55} The word "euthanasia" derives from the Greek language. See \textit{id.} at 3 (explaining that \textit{eu} means "well" and \textit{thanatos} means "death").

\textsuperscript{56} See \textit{id.} at 3-4 ("When suicide was state approved, it was not only encouraged but endorsed. In Athens . . . magistrates kept a supply of poison for anyone who wished to die.") "For the Romans and Greeks, dying decently, rationally, and—not least—with dignity mattered immensely." \textit{Id.} at 6.

\textsuperscript{57} \textit{Id.} at 4.

\textsuperscript{58} See \textit{id.} at 4-5.

\textsuperscript{59} See \textit{id.} at 5.

\textsuperscript{60} See \textit{id.} at 6.

\textsuperscript{61} See \textit{id.} at 10 (stating that Rousseau used the term "virtuous suicide" to describe the suicide of those who were suffering and wasting away).
of condemnation. Francis Bacon argued that physicians should assist patients "to make a fair and easy passage from life." 62

The belief that a physician should relieve a patient from pain and suffering by means of euthanasia gained even wider acceptance during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. 63 Doctors viewed euthanasia as a means of ending the suffering of the incurable and the terminally ill; 64 they believed they helped their patients by ending their lives in a humane manner. 65

The effort to legalize assisted suicide and euthanasia continues today, both in the United States and around the world. 66 At least two countries, the Netherlands and Australia, have taken active measures to legalize euthanasia and physician-assisted suicide. 67 Although the Netherlands has allowed euthanasia and physician-assisted suicide by judicial decision since 1985, 68 the Dutch parliament adopted a law legalizing it in February 1993. 69 Prior to the adoption of the law, euthanasia and physician-assisted suicide existed in a semi-legal limbo 70 without an explicit statute or law recognizing it. Previously, the Dutch Supreme Court had essentially granted physicians the power to determine if and when it was appropriate to help a patient end his or her life. 71 As a result, the criteria for euthanasia and physician-assisted suicide

62. Id. at 8.
63. See id. at 10 (citing an oral thesis delivered by Carl F.H. Marx entitled "Medical Euthanasia," in which Marx "insisted that the physician 'is not expected to have a remedy for death, but for the skillful alleviation of suffering, and he should know how to apply it when all hope has departed.").
64. See id. at 11 (citing an 1889 speech to the Maine Medical Association where a physician reminded his colleagues that they should not ignore the needs of the terminally ill and that such suffering should be relieved).
65. See id. "The concept of physical and mental pain ... was considered by physicians and writers as a possible justification for ending one's life." Id.
69. See Netherlands' Parliament Votes to Allow Mercy Killings, MINNEAPOLIS STAR-TRIB., Feb. 10, 1993, at 1A (stating that the law "brings the practice [of euthanasia] out of the dark and into the open").
70. See Keown, supra note 68, at 411 ("It is not even possible precisely to identify the legal criteria, let alone define them: the Supreme Court did not lay down a precise list and lower courts have issued sets of criteria which are far from congruent.").
71. See id. at 407.
were extremely vague. Despite the lack of legal clarity, euthanasia and physician-assisted suicide accounted for approximately 1.8% of all deaths each year in the Netherlands. This prevalence of euthanasia, along with public approval of the practice, prompted the adoption of the law. The twenty-eight-step guidelines require the patient to repeatedly request euthanasia of his or her own free will, to be informed about his or her condition and about alternatives to euthanasia and to "experience his or her suffering as perpetual, unbearable and hopeless."

Unlike the Netherlands where judicial opinion has allowed physician-assisted suicide, Australia's Northern Territory passed a law in 1995 that permits physicians to actively assist patients to die. But physician-assisted suicide did not last long in Australia; the law was repealed in March 1997.

In the United States, efforts to legalize physician-assisted suicide have gained momentum in recent years. Organizations such as the Hemlock Society and the Society for the Right to Die have substantial memberships. These groups have a strong presence on the Internet, and the Hemlock Society actively lob-


73. See Netherlands' Parliament, supra note 69, at 15A ("About 80 percent of the Dutch people approve of euthanasia for the terminally ill, a recent opinion poll indicates.").

74. Id. at 1A (noting that the law "legally acknowledg[es] a practice that has been quietly accepted for years").

75. Id.

76. See THE LAST RIGHT?: AUSTRALIANS TAKE SIDES ON THE RIGHT TO DIE ix (Simon Chapman & Stephen Leeder eds., 1995). The official time and date of passage was 3:15 A.M. on May 26, 1995, evidence that the law had controversial beginnings. See id.


78. See Goldberg, supra note 10, at A12 (noting that the legalization of physician-assisted suicide in Oregon will be closely watched in other states that will face the issue).

79. See Joas, supra note 72, at 380. The Hemlock Society has approximately 40,000 members while the Society for the Right to Die has an estimated 200,000 members. See id. (citing a 1990 source).

bizes for legislation that would enable patients to end their lives with the legal aid of their physicians.81

III. The Oregon Death with Dignity Act and the Battle in Court

A. The Legislation

The Oregon Death with Dignity Act82 (ODDA) was passed in 1994.83 Also known as Measure 16,84 Oregon voters passed it with only fifty-one percent of the vote.85 Its passage made Oregon the first state to legalize physician-assisted suicide.86 In November 1997, Oregon voters defeated a referendum to repeal the Act by sixty percent to forty percent.87

The ODDA has three major sections: requirements, safeguards, and immunities.88 The requirements section explains how a physician may properly assist in a patient's suicide.89 Two physicians must determine that a patient is terminally ill90 before the patient may make a request for his or her attending physician to prescribe a lethal dose of medication.91 It is important to note that the physician does not actually administer the lethal dose; the pa-
tient must commit the final act. The physician provides the patient with the means to end his or her life.

The second section of the ODDA establishes procedures and safeguards. The patient must follow a specific procedural process to obtain the lethal medication. The patient must make an initial oral request to his or her attending physician asking for a lethal dose of medication for the purpose of ending his or her life. The oral request must be followed by a written request and a second oral request, both within fifteen days of the original oral request. Only after these steps have been followed may the attending physician prescribe the lethal dose.

There are several safeguards in the ODDA designed to prevent abuse of the Act. One safeguard is the written statement that requests assistance to die, which must be signed by two witnesses as well as the patient. Furthermore, the law limits the ability of certain people to serve as witnesses. The patient has the opportunity to rescind his or her request for assistance to die at any

Id.

92. See id. § 3.01(9) ("The attending physician shall . . . writ[e] a prescription for medication to enable a qualified patient to end his or her life in a humane and dignified manner.") (emphasis added).

93. See id. It is interesting that the Oregon Legislature categorizes the ODDA as something other than physician-assisted suicide. See id. § 3.14. "Actions taken in accordance with this Act shall not, for any purpose, constitute suicide, assisted suicide, mercy killing or homicide, under the law." Id. The attending physician supplies the lethal dose necessary for the patient to die, yet the State of Oregon does not consider the physician to be assisting in the suicide. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this Article, the ODDA will be treated as a form of physician-assisted suicide. This is because the physician plays an integral part in giving the patient the means to end his or her life. If the physician does not provide the patient with the means to commit suicide, the patient is forced to find other means of suicide. Essentially, the physician is the instrument which hastens death and is therefore assisting the patient's suicide.


95. See id. § 3.06.

96. See id.

97. See id.

98. See id.

99. See id. § 2.02(1). The section reads:

A valid request for medication under this Act shall be in substantially the form described in Section 6 of this Act, signed and dated by the patient and witnessed by at least two individuals who, in the presence of the patient, attest that to the best of their knowledge and belief the patient is capable, acting voluntarily, and is not being coerced to sign the request.

Id.

100. See id. §§ 2.02(2)(a)-(2)(c). Among those individuals excluded are relatives of the patient, people who stand to inherit any portion of the patient's estate, and any individuals connected to the health care facility where the patient is receiving treatment or is a resident. See id.
In addition, the physician must provide the patient with an opportunity to rescind after the second, and final, oral request.\textsuperscript{102}

There are additional safeguards worth noting. The attending physician must refer the patient to a consulting physician to confirm the terminal diagnosis and to ensure that the patient is acting voluntarily.\textsuperscript{103} Either the attending physician or the consulting physician may refer the patient to counseling if he or she feels that the patient is suffering from a psychiatric or psychological illness or depression.\textsuperscript{104} The attending physician must ask the patient to inform relatives of his or her decision to die, although the patient may refuse.\textsuperscript{105} The attending physician must fully document the patient's medical condition and prognosis, as well as all of the patient's written and oral requests "to end his or her life in a humane and dignified manner."\textsuperscript{106} The physician must also inform the patient of possible alternatives to suicide.\textsuperscript{107}

Finally, the third section of the ODDA creates specific immunities and liabilities.\textsuperscript{108} Concerning immunities, the ODDA explicitly states that "[n]o person shall be subject to civil or criminal liability or professional disciplinary action for participating in good

\textsuperscript{101}See id. § 3.07.
\textsuperscript{102}See id. § 3.06.
\textsuperscript{103}See id. § 3.02.
\textsuperscript{104}See id. § 3.03 (stating that no lethal doses of medication may be prescribed until it has been determined that the patient is not suffering from a "psychiatric or psychological disorder, or depression causing impaired judgment"); see also Edward J. Larson, \textit{Prescription for Death: A Second Opinion} 44 \textit{DePaul L. Rev.} 461, 469 (explaining that 90-100\% of suicide victims suffer from depression, and noting that two to four percent of all suicide victims were terminally ill at the time of their death).
\textsuperscript{105}See id. § 3.05 ("A patient who declines or is unable to notify next of kin shall not have his or her request denied for that reason.").
\textsuperscript{106}Id. § 3.09(1). In addition, the physician must note that he or she offered the patient the opportunity to rescind the request and that all requirements have been met. See id. The physician must also note the outcome of any counseling provided, the steps taken to carry out the patient's request and the medication prescribed. See id.
\textsuperscript{107}See id. § 3.01(2)(e). Possible alternatives listed in this section include hospice care and pain control. See id. Hospice care is usually done in the home or a hospice facility and serves to help the patient deal with the dying process. See, e.g., \textit{Hospice: A Better Way to End a Life}, MINNEAPOLIS STAR-TRIB., May 28, 1997, at 10A (describing how hospice care prepares individuals to confront death). Pain control involves the administration of medication (such as morphine) or other techniques to manage the severe pain of some terminally ill individuals. See, e.g., Gordon Slovut, \textit{Cancer Pain is Manageable, Specialist Says}, MINNEAPOLIS STAR-TRIB., Oct. 15, 1994, at 4B (quoting a pain-management expert as stating that the "pain of terminal cancer can be made bearable or eliminated in almost every patient").
\textsuperscript{108}See id. §§ 4.01-02.
faith compliance with this Act. This includes being present when a qualified patient takes the prescribed medication to end his or her life in a humane and dignified manner." Furthermore, no health care professional may be censured or have his or her license revoked for participating in accordance with the Act.

The Act also specifies liabilities for any participating physician or health care professional. Any person who forges a patient’s request to die or exerts undue influence or coercion with the intent to end a patient’s life shall be guilty of a Class A felony under Oregon law.

B. The ODDA and the Courts

Soon after Oregon voters approved the ODDA, the Act was challenged in court. In August of 1995, a federal district court ruled in Lee v. Oregon that the ODDA violated the Equal Protection Clause of the U.S. Constitution. Under the Equal Protection Clause, the state may differentiate between some classes of persons as long as the classification is related to a legitimate state interest. In Lee, the plaintiffs claimed that Oregon discriminated between the terminally ill and the non-terminally ill without a legitimate state interest. Specifically, the plaintiffs claimed that the ODDA denied the protection of Oregon laws to the ter-

109. Id. § 4.01(1).
110. See § 4.01(2).
111. See id. § 4.02 (listing civil and criminal sanctions available under the statute).
112. See id. §§ 4.02(1), 4.02(2); OR. REV. STAT. §161.605(1) (1996) (stating that the maximum punishment for a Class A felony is twenty years imprisonment).
113. See Lee v. Oregon, 891 F. Supp. 1429 (D. Or. 1995) (stating that the plaintiffs were a group of terminally ill patients and their physicians, all of whom opposed the new law); see also Suit Challenges Assisted-Suicide Law in Oregon, supra note 83.
115. See U.S. CONST. amend. XIV, § 1 (requiring that no state "deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws").
116. See, e.g., Gulf, C. & S.F. Ry. v. Ellis, 165 U.S. 150, 165 (1897) (holding that a classification must be "based upon some reasonable ground—some difference which bears a just and proper relation to the attempted classification—and is not a mere arbitrary selection").
117. See Lee, 891 F. Supp. at 1431, 1433. The plaintiffs also claimed that the ODDA violated the First Amendment right to freedom of religion and the Americans with Disabilities Act. See id. at 1431. However, the district court only addressed the equal protection issue. See id. at 1437.
118. These laws included OR. REV. STAT. § 426.070 (1996), which establishes the
minally ill. The court determined that there was no rational relation between certain safeguards of the ODDA and a legitimate state interest. Specifically, the court referred to § 3.01 of the ODDA, which makes the attending physician the person responsible for determining a patient's mental condition. The court found that there was no mandate for the attending physician to seek the opinion of a trained psychiatrist or social worker before prescribing the lethal dose of medication for the patient.

The ODDA safeguards that prevent a terminally ill individual from committing suicide differ from the civil commitment process in which a suicidal, non-terminally ill individual is judged to be competent or incompetent. In Oregon civil commitment proceedings, a trained mental health professional assesses the patient's mental status. The ODDA, however, does not require such an assessment. The Lee court concluded that it was "unable to conceive of a set of facts [in the physician-assisted suicide context] under which it would be rational to not require mental and social evaluations by appropriately trained professionals." In the eyes of the court, the status of a person as "terminally ill" should not prevent him or her from receiving the same protections as healthy individuals (namely, an assessment by a psychiatrist or social worker).

119. See Lee, 891 F. Supp. at 1438.
120. For a classic example of rational basis review, see Railway Express Agency, Inc. v. New York, 336 U.S. 106 (1949), which held that New York City could ban advertisements displayed on vehicles where the advertising is unrelated to the business for which the automobile is used.
121. See Lee, 891 F. Supp. at 1431 n.2, 1437. The District Court examined the issue using rational basis review because the plaintiffs argued the Act was not rationally related to a legitimate state interest, but the court did not specify a level of scrutiny to be applied in the future to the issue of assisted suicide. See id.
122. See OR. REV. STAT. § 3.01(4) (1995) (stating that the attending physician shall "[r]efer the patient for counseling if appropriate pursuant to Section 3.03").
123. See Lee, 891 F. Supp. at 1434 ("The problem is that the procedures designed to differentiate between the competent and incompetent are not sufficient.").
124. See id. at 1434 (describing the various commitment procedures of the state of Oregon).
125. See OR. REV. STAT. § 426.110 (1995) ("The judge shall appoint one qualified examiner" who must be either "[a] physician licensed by the Board of Medical Examiners for the State of Oregon who is competent to practice psychiatry" or who is "[c]ertified as a mental health examiner qualified to make examinations for involuntary commitment proceedings by the Mental Health and Developmental Disability Services Division.")
127. See id. at 1438.
The court then turned its attention to the "good faith" section of the ODDA. Normally, the conduct of physicians in Oregon is measured against the general standard of care expected of physicians "in the same or similar circumstances in the [medical] community of the physician." In contrast, the ODDA simply requires the attending physician to act in good faith under the law. Therefore, the court decided that the ODDA creates the inference that it is irrelevant whether the physician acts reasonably and cautiously, or callously and negligently. According to the court in Lee, there is no rational justification for a difference between the standards expected of a physician treating a healthy individual and a physician treating a terminally ill patient.

In its conclusion, the court stated, "[the ODDA] withholds from terminally ill citizens the same protections from suicide the majority enjoys." It also declared that in matters concerning physician-assisted suicide, "[the] 'good results' [of ending the suffering of some competent, terminally ill persons] cannot outweigh other lives lost due to unconstitutional errors and abuses." The court issued an injunction that prevented any portion of the ODDA from taking effect. As a result, the ODDA was not utilized for nearly three years. In early 1997, the Court of Appeals of the Ninth Circuit vacated the lower court's ruling after finding that the plaintiffs lacked standing. The Supreme Court of the United States settled the legal battle, at least temporarily, when it allowed the Ninth Circuit's decision to stand.

128. See supra note 110 and accompanying text.
129. See Lee, 891 F. Supp. at 1436.
130. See OR. REV. STAT. § 4.01(3) (1995).
132. See id. ("The court finds that there is no set of facts under which it would be rational for terminally ill patients under Measure 16 to receive a standard of care from their physicians under which it did not matter whether they acted with objective reasonableness, according to professional standards.").
133. Id. at 1438.
134. Id. at 1439.
135. See id. This has been followed by renewed opposition to the ODDA in other arenas. In April 1997, the Oregon Medical Association voted to denounce the ODDA after assuming a neutral stance on the issue for the previous three years. See Goldberg, supra note 84, at A12. The Oregon Legislature returned the issue to the voters in November 1997 for a new vote. See Egan, supra note 87, at A26. The law was upheld with 60% of the vote. See id.
136. See Lee v. Oregon, 107 F.3d 1382, 1390 (9th Cir. 1997).
137. See Linda Greenhouse, Assisted Suicide Clears a Hurdle in Highest Court, N.Y. TIMES, Oct. 15, 1997, at A1 (explaining the Court's decision and describing how it is consistent with the Court's opinion in Washington v. Glucksberg, 117 S. Ct. 2258 (1997), in which the Court decided there is no constitutional right to die).
This did not settle the issue of the ODDA’s final status. In a second referendum prompted by efforts to repeal the ODDA, Oregon voters upheld the law by a significant majority.\textsuperscript{138}

IV. Analysis

A. The Disabled and the Courts

In \textit{Lee v. Oregon},\textsuperscript{139} the district court found the ODDA unconstitutional as a violation of equal protection.\textsuperscript{140} \textit{Lee} did not specifically address how the ODDA may affect the disabled. The court’s analysis, however, can be extended in order to illustrate how the Equal Protection Clause is a double-edged sword in the context of the relationship between physician-assisted suicide and the disabled.

Although Oregon is the first state to legalize physician-assisted suicide by statute, in recent years the courts and society have permitted people with severe disabilities to commit suicide.\textsuperscript{141} In \textit{Bouvia v. Superior Court},\textsuperscript{142} a young woman named Elizabeth Bouvia sought a court order to require a local hospital to administer morphine to her while she starved herself to death.\textsuperscript{143} Bouvia was twenty-eight at the time and had severe cerebral palsy which had left her a quadriplegic.\textsuperscript{144} She had suffered many personal setbacks, including desertion by her husband, a miscarriage and the inability to find the means to live independently after her parents were no longer able to care for her.\textsuperscript{145} As a result of these personal tragedies, Bouvia admitted herself to a hospital for the purpose of starving herself to death.\textsuperscript{146}

\textsuperscript{138} See Egan, supra note 87, at A26.
\textsuperscript{139} 891 F. Supp. 1429 (D. Or. 1995).
\textsuperscript{140} See id. at 1438.
\textsuperscript{141} See infra notes 150-157.
\textsuperscript{142} 225 Cal. Rptr. 297 (Cal. App. 1986).
\textsuperscript{144} See Bouvia, 225 Cal. Rptr. at 299.
\textsuperscript{145} See id. at 300.
\textsuperscript{146} See id. Some might argue that Bouvia’s request for the withholding of medical treatment differs substantially from the Oregon Death with Dignity Act’s provision, which actively assists the individual to die (passive euthanasia versus active euthanasia). This author regards the difference as insignificant and irrelevant. The state must endorse the killing for either method to be without criminal liability. Also, the result is the same whether by act of commission or omission. This Article focuses more on state endorsement of euthanasia rather than a specific method of suicide. The Oregon Death with Dignity Act is simply one example of state action.
The California Court of Appeals granted Bouvia her request to die, stating that the "quality of her life has been diminished to the point of hopelessness, uselessness, unenjoyability and frustration."147 The court reasoned that it would be unbearable for Bouvia to bear the perceived indignities of her disability for the rest of her life.148 Thus, the court concluded that Bouvia had the right to die as an extension of her constitutional right to privacy.149

In McKay v. Bergstedt,150 the Nevada Supreme Court granted permission for a thirty-one-year-old quadriplegic, Kenneth Bergstedt, to have his ventilator turned off.151 The court's opinion described his situation as being "imprisoned by paralysis" and as requiring "a total dependency upon others."152 The opinion also stated that situations similar to that of Bergstedt's "may rob life of much of its quality."153

Similarly, in Georgia v. McAfee,154 a Georgia court allowed a quadriplegic, Larry McAfee, to have his ventilator turned off.155

The liberty interest in the right to refuse medical treatment that will prolong life has been established. See Cruzan v. Missouri Dep't of Health, 497 U.S. 261 (1990) (affirming the right to refuse medical treatment). It is beyond the scope of this Article to specifically address and refute the asserted liberty interest in the right to actively seek death. It is this author's belief, however, that the refusal of medical treatment, at least in the case of severely disabled persons, is by implication a form of suicide, rather than a "natural death," as some would believe. The reasons for this will be addressed in the sociological analysis section of this Article. See infra Part IV.C.

147. Bouvia, 225 Cal. Rptr. at 304.
148. See id. at 305.
Although alert, bright, sensitive, perhaps even brave and feisty, she must lie immobile, unable to exist except through physical acts of others. Her mind and spirit may be free to take great flights but she herself is imprisoned and must lie physically helpless subject to the ignominy, embarrassment, humiliation and dehumanizing aspects created by her helplessness.

149. See id. However, Bouvia eventually chose not to die. See Coleman, supra note 143, at 56. ("[B]y the time the appellate decision was handed down, Ms. Bouvia's suicidal crisis had passed, and she did not carry out her plan of self-starvation."); Miller, supra note 53, at 58 n.43 (explaining Bouvia's eventual decision not to die).
151. See id. Kenneth Bergstedt had been a quadriplegic and ventilator-dependent since the age of 10. Apparently, he had spent most of the intervening 21 years in bed, watching television, reading and working with a voice-operated computer. His father had been his primary caretaker. When his father developed a terminal illness, Kenneth decided that he would rather die than be "under the care of strangers." Id. at 624.
152. Id.
153. Id. at 621.
154. 385 S.E.2d 651 (Ga. 1989).
155. See id.
The court stated that there was "no hope that Mr. McAffee's condition will improve with time, nor is there any known medical treatment which can improve his condition."\textsuperscript{156} In other Western countries, family members who assist disabled people in dying have been granted great leniency in court, with physician-assisted suicide advocates calling for "tolerance" and "understanding."\textsuperscript{157} Essentially, the courts grouped these disabled plaintiffs into the same category as the terminally ill.\textsuperscript{158} It is likely that if the plaintiffs had not been disabled and had petitioned the court for sanctioned suicide,\textsuperscript{159} they would have received suicide prevention counseling.\textsuperscript{160} Because of their disabilities, however, the courts saw them as beyond any hope of having a decent quality of life and as being kept alive by "extraordinary" means.\textsuperscript{161}

Consider the following hypothetical. A young man in his twenties, named Smith, becomes a quadriplegic after a diving accident. He is completely dependent on others for his care and daily needs. He is despondent and petitions the court to allow his physician to administer a lethal dose of medication to end his life. Smith lives in the fictional state of Polygon. The Polygon Legislature has recently passed an act which is exactly like Oregon's

\textsuperscript{156} Id.

\textsuperscript{157} See HUMPHRY & WICKETT, supra note 54, at 160.

\textsuperscript{158} See Deel v. Syracuse V.A. Medical Ctr., 729 F. Supp. 231 (N.D.N.Y.1990) (ruling that a man with cancer has the right to be removed from a ventilator); Gray v. Romeo, 697 F. Supp. 580 (R.I. 1988) (ruling that a woman who is in a permanent vegetative state has the right to have her feeding tube removed). Note that these decisions draw no distinction between the terminally and non-terminally ill.

\textsuperscript{159} Again, the distinction between suicide and "passive euthanasia" has no meaning when it comes to people such as McAfee and Bergstedt. They are not terminally ill in any sense of the term. With proper care and equipment they could lead long and productive lives. See, e.g., John R. Bach & Margaret C. Tilton, *Life Satisfaction and Well-Being Measures in Ventilator Assisted Individuals with Traumatic Tetraplegia*, 75 ARCHIVES OF PHYSICAL MED. & REHABILITATION 626 (1994) (explaining that people who are ventilator assisted as a result of traumatic injury are generally satisfied with their lives). When someone on a ventilator chooses to have it turned off, it is the same thing as asking a doctor to administer a lethal injection. Both actions interrupt life and cause death artificially. It should not matter that a disabled person relies on mechanical aids such as a ventilator or feeding tube.

\textsuperscript{160} See JOSEPH P. SHAPIRO, NO PITY: PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES FORGING A NEW CIVIL RIGHTS MOVEMENT 260 (1993) ("A nondisabled man who asked the state to help him take his life would get suicide-prevention counseling . . . ").

\textsuperscript{161} See Coleman, supra note 143, at 65. Coleman criticizes the new definition of "natural death" for persons with disabilities by positing that such quality-of-life judgments devalue those individuals who require mechanical assistance to live. See id. Coleman hypothesizes that the same definition could eventually apply to people who require dialysis, pacemakers or insulin, implying that these types of medical assistance are not typically thought of as "permanently disabling." Id.
Death with Dignity Act. The citizens of Polygon are much more complacent than those in Oregon, however, and the law does not face any legal challenges.

Smith bases his request to die on the Polygon Death with Dignity Act, but his attorney reminds him that the PDDA only addresses the terminally ill, as does the ODDA.162 The young man decides that this classification is unreasonable and a violation of his equal protection rights. He challenges the PDDA in court, raising an equal protection claim and a demand for relief. His basic assertion is that the distinction between the terminally ill and the non-terminally ill is not rationally related to any legitimate state interest.163 He claims he should not be denied the right to die simply because his disability is not terminal.

Will his legal challenge be successful? The United States Supreme Court has struck down other classifications which it deemed to be unreasonable.164 Smith could argue that a distinction between the terminally ill and the disabled is also unreasonable. Smith might point out that the quality of life of a terminally ill individual and a severely disabled person such as himself is the same, and, therefore, the state has no legitimate reason to differentiate between the two classes. In Smith's mind, his potential for achievement and productivity might seem as limited as someone with a terminal illness. Why should the state of Polygon prevent him from dying when it is perfectly legal for his neighbor with pancreatic cancer to request physician-assisted suicide?

The court hearing Smith's case might agree with him and fulfill Smith's death wish. After all, the Supreme Court has already ruled that the disabled are not a suspect class and are therefore not worthy of heightened protection.165 Classifying the disabled as a suspect class, however, would not ensure that laws such as the

162. See OR. REV. STAT. § 1.01(12) (1995).
163. See Railway Express Agency, Inc. v. New York, 336 U.S. 106 (1949) (holding that New York City could ban advertisements displayed on vehicles where the advertising is unrelated to the business for which the automobile is used).
164. See, e.g., City of Cleburne v. Cleburne Living Ctr., 473 U.S. 432 (1985) (striking down a city zoning regulation which prevented the establishment of a community residence for the mentally disabled); Craig v. Boren, 429 U.S. 190 (1976) (holding that an Oklahoma law prohibiting the sale of 3.2% beer to males under 21 but not to females between 18 and 21 was constitutional); Weinberger v. Weisenfeld, 420 U.S. 636 (1975) (striking down a Social Security regulation which delivered benefits to a widow and her children if the father died, but gave benefits only to minor children if the mother died).
Polygon Death with Dignity Act would be considered inapplicable to those with disabilities. When it comes to the nexus between the disabled and legalized physician-assisted suicide, the Equal Protection Clause is the quintessential double-edged sword.

B. A Legal Perspective—Equal Protection

The only Supreme Court decision to rule on the equal protection status of disabled Americans is *Cleburne v. Cleburne Living Center*. The Court justified its decision by stating that the mentally disabled are a large and diverse class with widely varying needs and determining how the disabled are to be treated is such a "technical" question that only legislatures are competent to deal with the matter. Nevertheless, the Court also noted that there continues to be "irrational prejudice against the mentally retarded," and that there is a "history of 'unfair and often grotesque mistreatment'" of the mentally disabled. It seems that the Court wants to have it both ways; it is reluctant to grant quasi-suspect classification to the disabled but realizes that there has been serious and invidious discrimination against the disabled.

As a consequence of this failure to recognize the disabled as a suspect class, the hypothetical Smith is in murky legal territory when a court considers his petition to die. It is possible, indeed likely, that the court will consider his petition as a request to terminate his suffering rather than as a request to commit suicide. This type of judicial treatment of disabled persons who request suicide is not without precedent, as discussed above.

Herein lies the paradox. The Equal Protection Clause, designed to protect citizens from discrimination, is currently null and void when it comes to protecting the rights, indeed the very lives,
of the disabled. Ultimately, the Equal Protection Clause could be used as an instrument to expand assisted suicide laws to apply to non-terminal but disabled individuals. In this current legal paradigm, it is conceivable that our fictional Smith could be successful in his request to die and that pieces of legislation, such as the ODDA, could be expanded to meet the needs of people similarly situated to Smith.

Rather than protecting the disabled from the dangers of physician-assisted suicide, the Equal Protection Clause could serve as an instrument for hastening the deaths of severely disabled individuals. Laws such as the ODDA apply only to people who are terminally ill, but this definition could easily be expanded to include people with disabilities. Ironically, granting suspect classification to the disabled would possibly make it easier for disabled individuals to claim that they are entitled to the benefits of laws such as the ODDA, benefits already enjoyed by the terminally ill.173

C. Quality of Life—A Social Perspective

There are numerous reasons why the disabled are automatically equated with the terminally ill. Often a disability is seen as a sickness rather than an integral part of the individual.174 For many, the concepts of "disability" and "dignity" are impossible to reconcile.175 It is a deep-seated belief in nearly every human culture that physical or mental imperfection is something to be ashamed of, a trait that is a signifier of inherent inferiority.176 Many aboriginal cultures put this belief into practice by abandoning, or even killing, their disabled brethren.177 In modern Western cultures, particularly the United States, the disabled are regarded with ambivalence.178 For example, a 1969 study showed that

173. As noted earlier, courts must closely scrutinize any law which might have a discriminatory effect on a suspect class. See supra note 175. Assuming the disabled are granted suspect classification, the government must present a compelling reason why the disabled are excluded from physician-assisted suicide laws rather than a simply rational justification. This heightened judicial scrutiny could very well extend such laws to the disabled.
174. See Miller, supra note 53, at 52.
175. See id. at 53.
176. See id. at 54. ("Society has a rigid code of acceptable norms in which disability, as a visible difference, is assumed to be a sign of inferiority.").
177. See GALLAGHER, supra note 14, at 28-30. Gallagher describes how the Inuit killed their deformed children, as well as the infanticide practiced by the Masai. See id. at 28-29. However, not all aboriginal cultures mistreat their disabled. For example, among the Dahomeans of Western Africa, "the state constables are selected from persons with deformities." Id. at 29.
178. See id. at 34. ("American society has both positive and negative feelings
ninety-three percent of the sample population would accept a physically-disabled person as a work partner, but only seven percent would accept that same physically-disabled person as a marriage partner.\textsuperscript{179}

This ambivalence has resulted in societal treatment of the disabled that is well-intentioned yet patronizing and dehumanizing. American society decided in the 1800s that its cripples should not be forced to beg on the streets; instead, it sent them to institutions where they were brutalized and isolated from mainstream society.\textsuperscript{180} When the disabled began to attend public schools, they were usually sent to segregated schools where they had little or no contact with able-bodied children and where they received a substandard education.\textsuperscript{181} When it was time to enter the work world, the disabled were relegated to sheltered workshops,\textsuperscript{182} performing menial tasks, or else they did not work at all. In nearly every facet of life, the disabled were forced to accept the role of second-class citizens.

As a result of this ambivalence, past and present, the disabled have incorporated the mainstream's distorted view of what it means to be disabled.\textsuperscript{183} Is it any wonder, in a culture that is so disapproving of disability, that President Franklin D. Roosevelt chose to disguise his paraplegia?\textsuperscript{184} As one commentator notes, for persons who acquire a disability later in life "internalization of society's prejudice [about disability] is especially present."\textsuperscript{185} This is because that individual has spent his or her entire life accepting

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{179} See id. at 36.
\item \textsuperscript{180} See WILLIE V. BRYAN, IN SEARCH OF FREEDOM: HOW PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES HAVE BEEN DISENFRANCHISED FROM THE MAINSTREAM OF AMERICAN SOCIETY 7 (1996) ("[S]ome families with members who had a disability considered the most appropriate action was to send them to an institution and keep them away from the public.").
\item \textsuperscript{181} Cf. Mike Ervin, Getting Tough on Kids in Wheelchairs, THE PROGRESSIVE, Nov. 1995, at 27 ("States had been shirking their responsibilities so that about a million disabled kids were receiving no education at all, let alone a segregated, inferior one.").
\item \textsuperscript{182} See generally Marvin Rosen et al., Sheltered Employment and the Second Generation Workshop, 59 J. REHABILITATION 30 (1993) (explaining the history of sheltered workshops).
\item \textsuperscript{183} See Miller, supra note 53, at 54. "The prejudice inflicted by society not only causes the community to consider life with a disability as undignified but often forces upon the disabled individual the same set of mores." Id. In other words, the person with the disability accepts and internalizes these stereotypes, creating a cycle of self-hate and self-pity in the disabled community. See id.
\item \textsuperscript{184} See generally HUGH GREGORY GALLAGHER, FDR'S SPLENDID DECEPTION (1986) (describing Franklin Roosevelt's efforts to hide his disability from the media and the general public).
\item \textsuperscript{185} Miller, supra note 53, at 54.
\end{itemize}
the stereotypes and prejudices regarding the disabled.\textsuperscript{186} Individuals with congenital disabilities, however, are just as likely to internalize society's views of the disabled.\textsuperscript{187} In a culture that links disability with helplessness and inferiority, it is nearly impossible for people with disabilities to avoid accepting these dominant stereotypes.\textsuperscript{188}

It is at this point, when the disabled person accepts society's prejudices, that we cross over into potentially lethal territory. The disabled person begins to grow tired of having to overcome every obstacle presented by an able-bodied society. Frustrations range from finding an accessible apartment to obtaining attendant care from an unsympathetic medical bureaucracy.\textsuperscript{189} The phenomenon of increasing frustrations and growing feelings of hopelessness is sometimes referred to as "disability burnout."\textsuperscript{190} The disabled person begins to consider suicide as a rational alternative to the daily struggles of living in an able-bodied world. In the case of Larry McAfee, he grew tired of being shuttled from nursing homes in Georgia to Ohio to Alabama.\textsuperscript{191} The depression he felt as a result of these events led to his wish for death. He was quoted as saying, "You reach a point where you just can't take it anymore."\textsuperscript{192}

The fact that many disabled individuals must rely on federal assistance programs such as Medicaid does not make matters easier. Many states are drastically cutting back these programs as cost-saving measures,\textsuperscript{193} which has the potential of causing many disabled individuals to lose any sense of independence they have.\textsuperscript{194} Disabled individuals who were previously able to live in

\begin{itemize}
\item \textsuperscript{186} See id.
\item \textsuperscript{187} See id. ("With society continually reinforcing its values through discriminatory cultural practices, it becomes difficult for a person with a disability, whether acquired or congenital, not to accept that stigmatized value system.").
\item \textsuperscript{188} See id. ("People with disabilities are taught that the reason for their exclusion is their own inferiority.").
\item \textsuperscript{189} See infra notes 193-194 and accompanying text.
\item \textsuperscript{190} Shapiro, supra note 160, at 261, 264 (quoting clinical psychologist Carol Gill).
\item \textsuperscript{191} See id. at 285 ("[McAfee] still was destined to bounce from one nursing home to another . . . .").
\item \textsuperscript{192} Id. at 262. McAfee, like Bouvia, ultimately chose not to commit suicide, however, and at last report was living independently. See id. at 288.
\item \textsuperscript{193} See, e.g., Ruth Conniff, Banishing the Disabled: Wisconsin Caps Home-Care Reimbursement, The Progressive, Mar. 1996, at 20 (describing how Wisconsin placed caps on community-based services that fund many home care programs, leaving many disabled individuals facing the dire possibility of entering a nursing home).
\item \textsuperscript{194} See id. at 21 ("But there's an awful lot of young people who are going to be hurt by it . . . . They're just getting started, going back to school. They're in their own apartments and now they have to give that up.").
\end{itemize}
the community may be forced to make the transition to an institutional setting. Many will feel overwhelmed by this loss of freedom and will be unwilling or unable to find substitute care from family or friends. If the disabled are not given the means to live dignified, independent lives, some may choose to commit suicide.195

The desire for death is compounded by society's tolerance and support for such a decision.196 The judge who initially heard McAfee's request to die ruled that turning off his ventilator would simply allow the "injury process to take its natural course."197 The judge equated living with a ventilator to having a life devoid of any meaningful quality.198 The same reasoning is found in McKay v. Bergstedt.199 There, the Nevada Supreme Court characterized Bergstedt's assisted ventilation as an "artificial life support system[ ] or some form of heroic, radical medical treatment."200 Both of these courts were apparently unaware of the fact that approximately 15,000 Americans live with a ventilator,201 many of whom hold jobs and raise families.202

The disabled are therefore caught in a vicious cycle, which can only be made more dangerous with the addition of legislative acts such as the ODDA. Society constantly reinforces the stereotype that living with a disability is undignified and pathetic.203 Disabled individuals internalize these beliefs and begin to view themselves with pity and self-loathing.204 Some may choose death; if there are laws in place which permit physician-assisted suicide,

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195. See supra notes 187-188 and accompanying text (discussing disability burnout).
196. See Miller, supra note 53, at 52. "Thus, when a person 'chooses' death over an 'undignified' life with a disability, the system sympathizes with that individual's plight and supports his right to die, assuming his disability is the root of his supreme despair." Id.
197. SHAPIRO, supra note 160, at 269.
198. See Georgia v. McAfee, 385 S.E.2d 651 (Ga. 1989) ("According to the record there is no hope that Mr. McAfee's condition will improve with time, nor is there any known medical treatment which can improve his condition."); supra notes 154-156 and accompanying text (reviewing the McAfee case).
200. Id. at 624.
201. See SHAPIRO, supra note 160, at 260.
202. See, e.g., John R. Bach & Denise I. Campagnolo, Psychosocial Adjustment of Post-Poliomyelitis Ventilator Assisted Individuals, 73 ARCHIVES OF PHYSICAL MED. & REHABILITATION 934, 939 (1992) (stating that 39% of 148 sampled ventilator assisted individuals were married and 42% of 395 sampled ventilator assisted individuals were gainfully employed).
203. See supra note 183 and accompanying text.
204. See BRYAN, supra note 180, at 91 ("[F]eelings of inferiority and unworthiness are projected to the public by the person with a disability reinforcing societal attitudes.").
then the process will be that much easier. The courts, already expressing the belief that life with a severe disability is a life not worth living, will likely interpret these laws to include the disabled.205 Eventually, there could come a time when the disabled are euthanized without the individual even requesting death. For example, the family of a nonverbal boy with severe cerebral palsy might be able to request the euthanization of their child by pointing to his poor quality of life and the incredible burden he places on the family. The child will be unable to speak for himself and the courts might be all too willing to side with the parents. The sociology and psychology of disability may take a dark and lethal turn.

This concern is a realistic one; the scenario described above has already occurred. In the Netherlands, where physician-assisted suicide is permitted, there have been at least a thousand cases in which a doctor terminated a patient's life without receiving an explicit request from the patient.206 Of the physicians who euthanized a patient without permission, thirty-one percent stated that they did so because the patient had a "low quality of life."207 This trend has dangerous implications for the disabled. Dutch doctors are said to have "the duty to terminate meaningless lives."208 This puts added pressure on the disabled and their families. Individuals with disabilities might be seen as a burden to their families as well as a drain on society's resources. Thus, physician-assisted suicide creates an economy of death where a person's worth is measured in terms of saved expenses.209 What has already happened in the Netherlands could very well take place in the United States as laws like the ODDA take effect.

V. Solutions: A Road to Integration

If the disabled are to become a valued population in American society, free from the dangers of physician-assisted suicide, two courses of action must be taken. The first involves structural changes in society to deter individuals with disabilities, especially those who acquire their disability later in life, from considering suicide in the first place, and the second involves changing how disabled individuals view their role in society.

205. See supra Part IV.A.
206. See Keown, supra note 68, at 426.
207. Id. at 428.
208. Miller, supra note 53, at 55.
209. As mentioned earlier, some states are already cutting back on services for the disabled. See supra notes 193-194 and accompanying text.
As noted above, many people with disabilities experience isolation as a result of physical and psychological barriers that prevent them from engaging in social and recreational activities.\textsuperscript{210} According to a Harris poll, "seventeen percent of disabled people had not eaten a meal in a restaurant, although only [five] percent of nondisabled people had avoided dining out."\textsuperscript{211} Fifty-nine percent of the disabled fear going out in public because they are afraid of being mistreated.\textsuperscript{212} Forty-nine percent said that their local public transit systems were inaccessible.\textsuperscript{213} Physical barriers must be removed, as the ADA requires,\textsuperscript{214} in order to give the disabled better access to the mainstream culture. If physical barriers are removed, psychological barriers will dissolve as the able-bodied population has more frequent contact with the disabled. Studies have shown that where the disabled are in a position to have regular interaction with mainstream society, many of the prejudices about the disabled become less pronounced.\textsuperscript{215}

Gainful employment is another structural area that must be addressed. Currently, many people with disabilities live in poverty because they are unable to find employment. Twenty-three percent of the disabled live with annual incomes between $7,501 and $15,000.\textsuperscript{216} Seventeen percent earn even less.\textsuperscript{217} Many disabled individuals are forced to live on public assistance.\textsuperscript{218} Contributing to the problem is the fact that many disabled persons do not have the necessary education to find a decent job. Twenty-five percent of the disabled have never finished high school, and only sixteen percent have finished college.\textsuperscript{219}

One reason that many disabled people consider suicide is because they feel worthless and devalued because they are unable to find employment.\textsuperscript{220} Employers must begin to realize that the disabled can be productive and valuable assets. The educational sys-

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210. See supra Part I.C. \\
211. See SHAPIRO, supra note 160, at 106. \\
212. See id. \\
213. See id. \\
215. See GALLAGHER, supra note 14, at 37 ("Observational studies of children and adults interacting with disabled children in the familiar surroundings of home, neighborhood, and integrated schoolrooms indicate that these negative perceptions can be changed."). \\
216. See BRYAN, supra note 180, at 18. \\
217. See id. \\
218. See supra notes 193-194 and accompanying text. \\
219. See BRYAN, supra note 180, at 16. \\
220. See supra notes 44-46 and accompanying text.
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tem must make a greater effort to give the disabled the skills they need to survive and prosper in today's economy.

Yet another structural change involves reshaping attitudes about disability in the legal and medical professions. We have already seen the pity and disgust expressed by many judges when confronted with a severely-disabled individual. Many health professionals have similar misconceptions about disability and quality-of-life issues. It is these same people who might one day expand physician-assisted suicide to include the disabled. Therefore, it is essential that those in the legal and medical communities receive the necessary education to inform them that disability is not a biological prison. Rather, it is a way of life that can be full of joy and accomplishment when those individuals are given the necessary tools and skills, such as assistive technology and attendant care.

The second course of action concerns how the disabled view their role in society. There must be an end to the self-pity and self-hate that is so prevalent in the disabled community. For too long, the disabled have internalized society's prejudices and accepted those views in silence. Disability should not be seen as a sign of weakness and inferiority. Most disabled people will tell you that it is not the disability itself that is the problem, but society's construction of disability. It is up to the disabled themselves to tear down this construction and build a new one; one where the foundation is not composed of pity, but of tolerance and acceptance.

Conclusion

It is difficult to visualize an assisted suicide law which would not pose a threat to the lives of disabled persons, especially the se-

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221. See supra note 151 and accompanying text; text accompanying notes 152-153.

222. See, e.g., John R. Bach, Ventilator Use by Muscular Dystrophy Association Patients, 73 ARCHIVES OF PHYSICAL MED. & REHABILITATION 179 (1992) (stating that 60 of 167 MDA clinics discouraged the use of mechanical ventilation and that clinic directors significantly underestimated the life satisfaction of those who were ventilator assisted); see also Amici Curiae Brief of Not Dead Yet and American Disabled for Attendant Programs Today in Support of Petitioners at 21, Quill v. Vacco, __ S. Ct. __ (1997) (No. 95-1858) ("As long as society, including medical professionals, demonstrates ignorance and prejudice regarding the lives of people with disabilities, no safeguards [regarding physician-assisted suicide] can be trusted to contain the torrent of discrimination that will be unleashed by lifting the ban on assisted suicide.").

223. See supra text accompanying notes 185-186.

224. See id.

225. See supra note 32 and accompanying text.
verely disabled. To varying degrees, measures like the ODDA, coupled with societal views of the quality of life of disabled people, inherently impede the efforts of the disabled to integrate themselves into society. By contributing to an atmosphere where the lives of the disabled already are devalued and placed in jeopardy, such laws invariably implicate equal protection concerns. This Article has provided one possible framework for addressing the problem. The Supreme Court has not ended the debate, and many states are struggling with the issue even as this article is being written. The passage of laws such as the ODDA should be of great concern to the disabled as they struggle to take their rightful place in mainstream society.