

1 **Electromyography and muscle biopsy in paediatric**  
2 **neuromuscular disorders – evaluation of current practice and**  
3 **literature review**

4

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## 41 HIGHLIGHTS

- 42 • In the detection of myopathies in children, a concise EMG protocol is as accurate as a
- 43 muscle biopsy.
- 44 • In children under the age of two years, the accuracy of EMG is superior to previous studies.
- 45 • Sedation is not required for a successful EMG recording in children at all ages.

46

47 ABSTRACT

48 The conduct and interpretation of electromyography in children is considered difficult and therefore  
49 often avoided. We assessed the diagnostic accuracy of the paediatric electromyography protocol  
50 used in our tertiary reference centre and compared it to muscle biopsy results and clinical diagnosis.  
51 Electromyography was performed in unsedated children with suspected neuromuscular diseases  
52 between January 2010 and September 2017 and was analysed quantitatively. Muscle pathology was  
53 classified into seven groups based on existing histopathology reports. The clinical diagnosis,  
54 including myopathic, neurogenic and non-neuromuscular categories was used as the gold standard.  
55 171 children between the age of 12 days to 17.4 years were included in the analysis. 41 children  
56 (24%) were under the age of two years at the time of electromyography. 98 (57%) children were  
57 diagnosed with a myopathic disorder, 18 (11%) with a neurogenic disease and 55 (32%) as not  
58 having a primary neuromuscular disorder.

59 In detecting myopathic disease, electromyography performed as well as muscle biopsy (sensitivity  
60 87.8% for electromyography vs 84.5% for muscle biopsy; specificity 75.7% vs 86.4%). This also  
61 applied to children under the age of two years (sensitivity 81.8% vs 86.4%). Quantitative analysis of  
62 a limited electromyography protocol performed in unsedated children is a very valuable diagnostic  
63 tool.

64

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72

73

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78

## 79 **1. Introduction**

80 The diagnostic approach to neuromuscular diseases in children is often challenging. Medical  
81 history, clinical examination, laboratory tests, electromyography (EMG) and muscle biopsy are well  
82 known components of the functional classification of neuromuscular diseases whilst imaging and  
83 genetic testing are increasingly gaining importance [1-3]. These tests have individual advantages  
84 and limitations, and are used in a complementary fashion to efficiently diagnose patients with  
85 neuromuscular diseases. EMG plays a pivotal role in differentiating between neurogenic and  
86 myopathic diseases and disorders of neuromuscular transmission, in localising lesions in the  
87 peripheral nervous system, in grading severity, in monitoring disease progress and in excluding  
88 conditions without neuromuscular involvement. However, whilst in adults EMG is widely used and  
89 has well-defined parameters, EMG in children is considered to be difficult and thus is often  
90 avoided. This is due to the greater technical challenges, the smaller number of children being  
91 examined, age-dependent changes in muscle fibre dimensions and thus interpretation of EMG  
92 results, and the different spectrum of diseases that have to be considered.

93 Muscle biopsy has historically been considered to be the gold standard in the diagnosis of muscle  
94 disease, a position which is being superseded by molecular genetics. Whilst biopsies are more  
95 invasive than EMG, imaging and genetic testing, they permit the precise characterisation of muscle  
96 disorders through histological, biochemical, immunocytochemical and ultrastructural analyses.  
97 There are however a number of challenges in accurate pathological characterisation of disease

98 including overlapping morphological signatures across different diseases, absence of specific  
99 pathological features, and the small sample size available for assessment.

100 Multiple studies on the accuracy and utility of EMG and muscle biopsy in paediatric neuromuscular  
101 diseases have been performed over the last decades [4-14]. Different EMG protocols have been  
102 evaluated in a range of paediatric populations and compared against muscle biopsy and/or clinical  
103 diagnosis. However, the diagnostic approach to neuromuscular disorders has evolved. In patients  
104 with recognisable phenotypes such as Duchenne muscular dystrophy or spinal muscular atrophy,  
105 molecular genetic testing without preceding EMG and muscle biopsy have become the clinical  
106 standard [8, 11]. In our experience, children referred for EMG and muscle biopsy are now younger  
107 and have more heterogeneous phenotypes, making it necessary to recognise early and subtle  
108 changes.

109 In our tertiary reference centre, referring clinicians often use EMG results to guide the direction of  
110 further investigation, which may include muscle biopsy. The accuracy of EMG findings is thus  
111 pivotal to the diagnostic pathway. Here, we assessed the diagnostic accuracy of the concise  
112 paediatric EMG protocol used over recent years in our institution and compared it to muscle biopsy  
113 results and the final clinical diagnosis.

114

## 115 **2. Methods**

### 116 2.1 Patients

117 The records of children under 18 years of age who had undergone an EMG of tibialis anterior and a  
118 muscle biopsy between January 2010 and September 2017 were screened retrospectively. Inclusion  
119 criteria were a definite or probable diagnosis of a myopathy or a neurogenic disorder, or a  
120 conclusion that there was no neuromuscular disorder as assessed by a paediatric neuromuscular  
121 specialist. The study was performed at Great Ormond Street Hospital, United Kingdom.

122

### 123 2.2 Audit registration.

124 The project was registered by the Clinical Governance and Safety Team, Great Ormond Street NHS  
125 Foundation Registration Number: 1856

126  
127 2.3 Materials

128 All studies were acquired on a Medtronic KeyPoint EMG machine (Natus Medical, Pleasanton, CA,  
129 USA). For nerve conduction studies, reusable hand-held felt pad stimulating electrodes (bi-polar  
130 stimulation electrode (part number STIM1571), Unimed, Farnham, UK) were used with an inter-  
131 electrode distances of 10mm (under 2 years) or 26mm (over 2 years). Single-use, self-gelled ECG  
132 electrodes were used for surface recordings (part number NF-10-SC/12; Ambu A/S, Ballerup,  
133 Denmark). EMG recordings were performed using single-use 30G concentric needle electrodes  
134 (Ambu Neuroline, part number 74025-30/25; Ambu A/S, Ballerup, Denmark). EMG signals were  
135 band-pass filtered from 2Hz to 10kHz and stored for offline analysis. EMG data were analysed  
136 using the proprietary automatic and manual motor unit potential (MUP) detection and interference  
137 pattern (IP) analysis programmes built into the KeyPoint.Net software.

138  
139 2.4 Procedure

140 2.4.1 Electromyography

141 Parental consent and patient assent were obtained following detailed explanation of the reasons for  
142 the investigation. All EMG studies were performed in the Department of Clinical Neurophysiology  
143 with the majority of the studies performed by the senior author (MCP); some studies were  
144 performed by other neurophysiologists under his supervision. Studies were conducted in the  
145 conscious, un-sedated state.

146 All studies followed the departmental protocol for investigation of generalised weakness [15]. As a  
147 minimum, this included assessment of one sensory nerve and one motor nerve in the leg and EMG  
148 of tibialis anterior. If the lower limb nerve conduction studies were abnormal, median or ulnar  
149 sensory studies (orthodromic, palm to wrist) were performed with motor nerve conduction studies  
150 of the ulnar nerve recording from ADM. For EMG analysis at least 20 MUPs were analysed

151 quantitatively, but fewer MUPs were evaluated in the presence of very pronounced abnormalities or  
152 where the recording was too short.

153

#### 154 2.4.2 EMG data analysis and conclusion

155 EMG analysis was performed offline after the departure of the patient. When using either the  
156 manual or the automatic MUP analysis program at least three identical repetitions of a MUP were  
157 required to confirm the MUP was unique. Non-identical MUPs were discarded. Duration  
158 measurement was performed at a sensitivity of 100 $\mu$ V per cm. Automatic placement of cursors was  
159 accepted unless clearly inaccurate. IP analysis (including turns/amplitude and number of short  
160 segments/amplitude measurement) was initially not performed in every case but was included  
161 routinely after 2014. Finally, a qualitative assessment of the interference pattern was made.

162 All quantitative and qualitative data were taken into consideration when formulating the conclusion  
163 of the EMG. In general, neurogenic EMGs showed a combination of large amplitude, long duration  
164 high firing units seen in a reduced interference pattern, while myopathic EMGs had a predominance  
165 of short duration low amplitude units recruiting early in a full interference pattern.

166

#### 167 2.4.3 Muscle biopsy

168 Muscle biopsies were performed locally using a needle technique under general anaesthesia; the  
169 quadriceps muscle was sampled in the majority of cases. Where muscle biopsy had already been  
170 performed by the referring institution, the biopsy specimens were transferred for a second opinion  
171 by the local pathology service. Based on a retrospective review of pathology reports, muscle  
172 pathology was categorised into seven groups: (1) non-diagnostic or end-stage, (2) neurogenic, (3)  
173 myopathic, (4) ambiguous –mixed features precluding definite categorisation of the underlying  
174 disease process, (5) minimal change – implying subtle morphological departure from normality, (6)  
175 histologically normal and (7) type II/fast fibre atrophy.

176

#### 177 2.4.4 Clinical Diagnosis

178 The clinical diagnosis was established from the digital patient records. A definite diagnosis of a  
179 neurogenic or a myopathic disorder required the relevant pathogenic genetic mutation to have been  
180 detected. A probable diagnosis was made when a multidisciplinary team of paediatric  
181 neuromuscular specialists considered the diagnosis highly likely, taking into account, in varying  
182 combinations, a typical clinical presentation, muscle biopsy, EMG and other paraclinical tests  
183 including laboratory parameters and imaging, where available. If there was no indication of a  
184 primary neuromuscular disorder and children had been discharged from the neuromuscular clinics,  
185 they were labelled as not having a primary neuromuscular disorder. Cases were excluded if a  
186 diagnosis was not found yet or if further diagnostic results were pending.

187

#### 188 2.5 Statistical methods

189 The diagnostic performance of EMG and biopsy in detecting neuromuscular disorders was assessed  
190 using the sensitivity, specificity, and positive and negative likelihood ratios as compared to the  
191 above gold standard [16]. Confidence intervals for the positive and negative likelihood ratios were  
192 calculated using the log method, and confidence intervals for sensitivity and specificity were  
193 calculated using the Clopper and Pearson method [17]. The pretest probabilities for myopathic,  
194 neurogenic and normal studies were calculated from the distribution of diagnoses in the cohort of  
195 171 patients. All calculations were performed in Excel (Microsoft, Redmond, WA, USA).

196

### 197 **3. Results**

198 We identified 235 children within the study period, of which 171 children (mean age 6.8 years, 54  
199 girls, 117 boys) fulfilled the inclusion criteria. In the majority of cases (n=123, 72%) EMG  
200 preceded the muscle biopsy. 41 children (24%) were under the age of two years at the time of EMG.  
201 Using the clinical criteria for diagnosis described, 98 (57%) children were diagnosed with a



202 myopathic disorder, 18 (11%) with a neurogenic disease and 55 (32%) as not having a primary  
203 neuromuscular disorder. Genetic confirmation was available in 33/171 patients (19%).

204 Within the myopathic group there were 48 (49%) congenital myopathies, 14 (14%) muscular  
205 dystrophies, 4 (4%) inflammatory myopathies, 3 (3%) mitochondrial myopathies and 29 (30%)  
206 cases with an unspecified myopathy. 23 cases (24%) showed pathogenic mutations in the following  
207 genes: *COL6A1* (1), *COL6A2* (2), *DMD* (3), *SEPN1* (1), *RYR 1* (2), *TTN* (1), *FKTN* (1), *NEB* (1),  
208 *FHL1* (1), *PIEZO2* (1), *CAV3* (1), *MTM1* (2), *TPM2* (1), *MYH7* (1), *DNM2* (1) and *STAC3* (2),  
209 *ZC4H2* (1) (Supplementary Table 1) with EMG accurately predicting a myopathic condition in 20  
210 (87%). The three cases in which EMG did not suggest a myopathic condition included two girls  
211 with Bethlem myopathy (*COL6A2*) aged 3.4 and 11.7 years, both of whom showed neurogenic  
212 EMG changes, and a 1.7 year old girl with *RYR1*-related congenital myopathy, who had a normal  
213 EMG. In the same cohort muscle biopsy was positive for myopathy in 21 (84%). In the remainder  
214 two showed minimal non-diagnostic histological change, a 9 year old boy with a *STAC3* mutation  
215 and a 11.2 year old boy with Becker muscular dystrophy, while results were ambiguous in another  
216 9.1 year old boy with *MYH7* mutation. In the final case, the muscle biopsy in a 4 month old boy  
217 with a mutation in *PIEZO2* was normal. The accuracy of EMG and muscle biopsy overall for  
218 myopathy is shown in Table 1.

219 Given a pre-test probability of 57% for a myopathic condition, the post-test probability for either  
220 EMG or muscle biopsy detecting a myopathy is about 80%. If either EMG or muscle biopsy do not  
221 indicate a myopathy, the post-test probability of a myopathy falls below 2% (Fig. 1A).

222 In the subgroup of children under the age of two years, 22/41 patients (53.7%) were diagnosed as  
223 having a myopathy. In this subgroup, the EMG sensitivity was 81.8% (95% CI 59.7% to 94.8%),  
224 specificity 68.4% (43.4% to 87.4%). Biopsy sensitivity was 86.4% (65.1% to 97.1%), specificity  
225 84.2% (60.4% to 96.6%).

226 In the group of 18 patients with neurogenic disorders, four had pathogenic mutations in the  
227 following genes: *SMN1* (2), *DYNCH1* (1) and *PLA2G6* (1) (Supplementary Table 1). EMG

228 misdiagnosed one of these, a 17 year old boy with a homozygous deletion of exon 7 of the *SMN1*  
229 gene, as a myopathy. Muscle biopsy showed ambiguous results with combined features of  
230 myopathic and neurogenic changes. Ambiguous histological results on muscle biopsy were also  
231 found in a 2.6 years old boy with a pathogenic *DYNC1H1* mutation.

232 The sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative likelihood ratios for EMG and muscle biopsy  
233 predicting neurogenic disorders are shown in Table 1. With a very low pre-test probability of 11%  
234 in our cohort, post-test probability for EMG predicting neurogenic disorders is between 70% and  
235 80%, for muscle biopsy between 80% and 90%. When an EMG result did not predict a neurogenic  
236 condition, the post-test probability of that diagnosis is 0.5%. For the muscle biopsy the same  
237 analysis gave the post-test probability of a neurogenic disorder between 5% and 10% (Fig. 1B).

238 In the subgroup of children under the age of two years, 5 patients (12.2%) were diagnosed with a  
239 neurogenic disorder. The EMG sensitivity was 100% (46.2% to 100%), specificity 94.4% (81.3% to  
240 99.3%). Biopsy sensitivity was 40% (5.3% to 85.3%), specificity 100% (90.3% to 100%).

241 Finally, 48 patients were found to not have a primary neuromuscular disorder. In six cases,  
242 pathogenic non-neuromuscular related mutations were revealed. These were: *ATP13A2* causing  
243 parkinsonism with dystonia, *MECP2* leading to Rett syndrome, a *NRXN 1* mutation associated with  
244 Pitt-Hopkins-like syndrome 2, a pathogenic mutation in the *TWIST* gene leading to Saethre-Chotzen  
245 syndrome, a *PHOX2B* mutation causing congenital central hypoventilation syndrome and a  
246 mutation in *PEX16* causing a peroxisomal biogenesis disorder (Supplementary Table 1). Variable  
247 findings were found on muscle biopsy and EMG (Table 1). With a pre-test probability of 32%, the  
248 post-test probability when EMG predicted that there was no neuromuscular condition (normal EMG  
249 result) was about 80%. For muscle biopsy the post-test probability was between 60% and 70%. If  
250 EMG is not normal the post-test probability to still have no neuromuscular disorder lies between  
251 20% and 30%, for muscle biopsy the post-test probability is around 30%.

252

### 253 **3. Discussion**

254 The study has evaluated the accuracy of EMG and muscle biopsy in a cohort of children with  
255 suspected neuromuscular disorders seen in a single centre over a period of over seven years and  
256 compared sensitivity, specificity, positive and negative likelihood ratios of the two tests. An  
257 important finding is that the EMG protocol used in our department with quantitative analysis of  
258 usually only one muscle performed in unsedated children with suspected neuromuscular disorders is  
259 equivalent in making a diagnosis of myopathic disorders to muscle biopsy. This is relevant for  
260 children of all ages including the very young under the age of two years. In children, neuromuscular  
261 disorders tend to be generalised and focal findings are unusual, and these results confirm that it is  
262 sufficient to examine one muscle provided this is done comprehensively. Offline quantitative  
263 analysis of stored EMG traces, performed after the departure of the patient, constitutes an important  
264 aspect of the approach. Indeed, the accuracy of our EMG results in detecting myopathies was  
265 comparable to that of EMG protocols examining at least two muscles [6, 8, 11, 18] (Table 2).

266 Looking in more detail at other studies, Gosh et al. [8] analysed the accuracy of an extensive EMG  
267 protocol including semiquantitative EMG of four or more muscles. In patients under the age of ten  
268 years, conscious sedation was used as standard. In 72 patients where a diagnosis of a myopathy - as  
269 defined by genetic testing, diagnostic biopsy or pathognomonic EMG - was made, the reported  
270 EMG sensitivity of 91.43% and specificity of 67.57% were very similar to the values we reported  
271 here. Other studies using quantitative assessment [6, 11] described comparable EMG sensitivity.  
272 The fact that the study by Rabie et al. [18] found an EMG sensitivity of 36.4% with qualitative  
273 analysis of four muscles strengthens the belief that a thorough examination of one or two muscles is  
274 superior to several muscles being examined qualitatively. The sensitivity of muscle biopsy is  
275 reduced compared with the one study shown [18].

276 41 patients (24%) of all children in our cohort were below the age of two years at the time of EMG.  
277 Subgroup analysis of 22 children under the age of two years diagnosed with a myopathy revealed a  
278 EMG sensitivity of 81.8% and a biopsy sensitivity of 86.4%. Likely due to the more demanding test  
279 conditions, EMG sensitivity in this age group is slightly below the one found in the entire

280 myopathic cohort. However, these results still clearly highlight that it is possible to accurately  
281 detect myopathic disorders with a concise EMG protocol and quantitative analysis in unседated  
282 children at all ages. Analysing others' work in children under the age of two years with  
283 neuromuscular disorders [5, 7, 12, 13], concordance rates for myopathic disorders were often low,  
284 between 10% and 56% even though multiple muscles were examined, further supporting the use of  
285 quantitative analysis on a single muscle as being clearly superior (Table 3).

286 In neurogenic disorders sensitivity for EMG diagnosis is comparable with other studies [5, 7, 11-13,  
287 18]. Only a few studies [7, 12, 18] compared muscle biopsy sensitivity and our results were inferior  
288 (Table 2). Since the purpose of this study was to compare the accuracy of EMG and muscle biopsy  
289 in detecting disease in the same cohort, patients were required to have EMG and muscle biopsy as  
290 part of their clinical investigations. This introduced recruitment bias as it would be unnecessary to  
291 perform muscle biopsy in patients with obvious neurogenic clinical features and EMG results.  
292 Hence, the neurogenic cases seen were often those with unusual and difficult presentations. Several  
293 factors precluded confident distinction between a neurogenic and myopathic process, particularly in  
294 needle biopsies from a proximal muscle such as the quadriceps (standard biopsy site in our series).  
295 These include large swathes of neurogenic fibre type grouping mimicking myopathic slow fibre  
296 predominance/uniformity, non-specific fibre size variation (pre-pathological SMA) in some cases of  
297 severe SMA I, and a constellation of pseudomyopathic architectural changes including unevenness  
298 of staining, moth-eaten fibres, mini-cores and larger cores, internal nuclei, split fibres, whorled  
299 fibres and fibro-fatty infiltration, seen in milder 5q-SMA I and SMA-LED [19, 20]. This fact as  
300 well as the small number of patients can explain the reduced biopsy sensitivity for a neurogenic  
301 diagnosis in this series.

302 At the time of data analysis a genetic diagnosis had been achieved in 33 of 171 patients (19%). This  
303 low proportion might reflect that genetically well described neuromuscular disorders in children are  
304 diagnosed in primary and secondary neuromuscular centres. Cases with an existing genetic  
305 diagnosis are not referred on to a tertiary centre for further diagnostic testing. Additionally, genetic

306 results from large research based genome studies are still pending in many patients. Nevertheless, it  
307 highlights the sustained importance of EMG and muscle biopsy in the diagnoses of neuromuscular  
308 disorders.

309 Likelihood ratios are an intuitive way to apply statistical results to individual patients irrespective of  
310 the prevalence of the disease [21, 22]. When comparing the positive and negative likelihood ratios  
311 of EMG and muscle biopsy in detecting the presence or absence of myopathic or neurogenic  
312 disorders, it becomes evident that the tests provide similar utility for the clinician in making a  
313 diagnosis of myopathy (Table 1, Fig. 1). These results emphasise that a concise protocol including  
314 nerve conduction studies and EMG of a single muscle in unsedated children offers a diagnostic  
315 accuracy for myopathic disorders that is equivalent to that of a muscle biopsy. Nevertheless, whilst  
316 EMG can predict myopathic conditions with similar accuracy, muscle biopsy has the advantage of  
317 permitting the detection of specific histological findings to further guide focused genetic testing. In  
318 the children in whom no neuromuscular disease was diagnosed both EMG and muscle biopsy were  
319 less accurate than when there was neuromuscular disorder. This is probably attributable to the  
320 patient population referred to a tertiary neuromuscular reference centre to rule out a neuromuscular  
321 disorder, often with complex neurological symptomatology.

322 A strength of our study is that electrophysiologists, pathologists and clinicians all worked  
323 independently and did not alter the documented reports. EMG and muscle biopsy conclusions were  
324 considered as correct when they clearly indicated a myopathic or neurogenic condition or if they  
325 found normal results. Non-conclusive minimal change, ambiguous results and mixed patterns when  
326 reported in the muscle biopsy or EMG were regarded as false negatives for the purposes of  
327 calculating sensitivity and specificity. Additionally the cohort did not include myopathic cases  
328 which were so clinically obvious such as to prompt focused genetic screening possibly without  
329 either EMG and muscle biopsy. If such cases were included, it would be anticipated that the  
330 sensitivity of both EMG and muscle biopsy would be lower. It is a measure of the strength of our  
331 findings that this did not occur.

332 In conclusion, focused EMG in children of all ages is an indispensable diagnostic tool guiding  
333 neuromuscular paediatricians in their decision-making and helping them to arrive at a prompt  
334 diagnosis. It can be achieved without anaesthesia and is as accurate in determining myopathic  
335 conditions as a muscle biopsy. EMG still remains the more accurate test when determining  
336 neurogenic abnormality. EMG and muscle biopsy complement each other and therefore myopathic  
337 EMG findings should promptly lead to muscle biopsy and focused genetic screening.

338

339

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352

353

354 **Authors' contributions**

355 MCP designed the study, acquired the data and drafted the manuscript. PH participated in the study  
356 design study and drafted the manuscript. AM and FM reviewed clinical records and contributed to  
357 the manuscript. RP participated in the study design, reviewed muscle biopsies and drafted the  
358 manuscript. RS worked on database and computer management. SJ performed statistical analyses  
359 and critically revised the manuscript. PS and CS produced pathology reports and contributed to the  
360 manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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