Median Neuropathy at the Wrist

Median nerve entrapment at the wrist is the most common of all entrapment neuropathies and, consequently, is one of the most frequent reasons for referral for an electrodiagnostic (EDX) study. In nearly all patients, the usual site of compression occurs in the carpal tunnel and results in a constellation of symptoms and signs known as the carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS). Lesions of the C6–C7 nerve roots or, less often, the brachial plexus and the proximal median nerve may be confused clinically with median neuropathy at the wrist, especially in early or mild cases.

For an electromyographer, familiarity with the various nerve conduction and electromyographic patterns associated with CTS is essential. It has long been recognized that in any individual patient with CTS, there may be little correlation between the degree or frequency of clinical symptoms or signs and the abnormalities seen on nerve conduction studies. For example, an occasional patient will have only mild or trivial clinical symptoms yet will have clear signs on physical examination (e.g., dense numbness, wasting of thenar muscles) and evidence of severe axonal loss on nerve conduction and needle electromyography (EMG) studies. On the other hand, there are patients whose clinical history clearly indicates CTS but who show few or no abnormalities on neurologic examination or on routine median motor and sensory nerve conduction studies. It is in these latter patients with early or electrically mild CTS that additional more sensitive nerve conduction studies must be performed to demonstrate median nerve slowing at the wrist. By appropriately applying the various electrophysiologic techniques available to study the median nerve, a definite diagnosis can usually be reached, and lesions of the nerve roots, proximal median nerve, or brachial plexus can be excluded. In addition, neuromuscular ultrasound is an especially useful adjunct to nerve conduction studies in the diagnosis of CTS and will be discussed later in the chapter.

**ANATOMY**

Understanding the anatomy of the median nerve is the first step toward being able to differentiate entrapment of the median nerve at the wrist from lesions of the proximal median nerve, brachial plexus, and cervical nerve roots, on both clinical and electrophysiologic grounds. The median nerve is formed by a combination of the lateral and medial cords of the brachial plexus (Table 20.1, Fig. 20.1). The lateral cord is made up of C6–C7 fibers and supplies median sensory fibers to the thenar eminence, thumb, index, and middle fingers, and motor fibers to the proximal median forearm muscles. The medial cord, composed of C8–T1 fibers, supplies motor fibers to the median muscles of the distal forearm and hand, as well as sensory fibers to the lateral half of the ring finger.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 20.1</th>
<th>Median Nerve Innervation.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Muscle</strong></td>
<td><strong>Median Branch</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronator teres</td>
<td>(Main median nerve)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor carpi radialis</td>
<td>(Main median nerve)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor digitorum sublimis</td>
<td>(Main median nerve)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor digitorum profundus (2,3)</td>
<td>Anterior interosseous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor pollicis longus</td>
<td>Anterior interosseous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronator quadratus</td>
<td>Anterior interosseous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abductor pollicis brevis</td>
<td>Recurrent thenar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opponens pollicis</td>
<td>Recurrent thenar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor pollicis brevis (superficial head)</td>
<td>Recurrent thenar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Sensory Area**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thenar eminence</th>
<th>Palmar cutaneous</th>
<th>Lateral</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>C6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Medial thumb</td>
<td>Digital branch</td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>Upper</td>
<td>C6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Index finger</td>
<td>Digital branches</td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>C6–C7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle finger</td>
<td>Digital branches</td>
<td>Lateral</td>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>C7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral ring finger</td>
<td>Digital branch</td>
<td>Lateral/medial</td>
<td>Middle/upper</td>
<td>C7–C8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The median nerve descends in the upper arm, giving off no muscular branches. In the antecubital fossa, the nerve lies just medial to the brachial artery. As it passes into the forearm, the median nerve runs between the two heads of the pronator teres (PT) before giving off muscular branches to the PT, flexor carpi radialis (FCR), flexor digitorum sublimis (FDS), and, in some individuals, the palmaris longus muscles. The anterior interosseous nerve is given off next in the proximal forearm, innervating the flexor pollicis longus (FPL), the lateral head of the flexor digitorum profundus (FDP) to the index and middle fingers, and the pronator quadratus (PQ) muscles. The anterior interosseous nerve is considered a pure motor nerve clinically because it carries no cutaneous sensory fibers. However, deep sensory fibers are carried in the anterior interosseous nerve, supplying the wrist joint and interosseous membrane.

Just proximal to the wrist and carpal tunnel, the palmar cutaneous sensory branch arises next, running subcutaneously to supply sensation over the thenar eminence. The median nerve then enters the wrist through the carpal tunnel. Carpal bones make up the floor and sides of the carpal tunnel, and the thick transverse carpal ligament forms the roof (Fig. 20.2). In addition to the median nerve, nine flexor tendons traverse the carpal tunnel as well (FDP: four tendons; FDS: four tendons; FPL: one tendon). In the palm, the median nerve divides into motor and sensory divisions. The motor division travels distally into the palm, supplying the first and second lumbricals (1L, 2L). In addition, the recurrent thenar motor branch is given off. This branch turns around (hence, recurrent) to supply muscular branches to most of the thenar eminence, including the opponens pollicis (OP), abductor pollicis brevis (APB), and superficial head of the flexor pollicis brevis (FPB). The sensory fibers of the median nerve that course through the carpal tunnel supply the medial thumb,
index finger, middle finger, and lateral half of the ring finger. The index and middle fingers are each supplied by two digital branches (one lateral and one medial); the thumb and ring fingers receive only one branch each (Fig. 20.3).

**CLINICAL**

Patients with CTS may present with a variety of symptoms and signs (Table 20.2). Women are affected more often than men. Although CTS usually is bilateral both clinically and electrically, the dominant hand usually is more severely affected, especially in idiopathic cases. Patients complain of wrist and arm pain associated with paresthesias in the hand. The pain may be localized to the wrist or may radiate to the forearm, arm, or, rarely, the shoulder; the neck is not affected. Some patients may describe a diffuse, poorly localized ache involving the entire arm. Paresthesias are frequently present in the median nerve distribution (medial thumb, index, middle, and lateral ring fingers). Although many patients report that the entire hand falls asleep, if asked directly about little finger involvement, most will subsequently note that the little finger is spared.

Symptoms are often provoked when either a flexed or extended wrist posture is assumed. Most commonly, this occurs during ordinary activities, such as driving a car or holding a phone, book, or newspaper. *Nocturnal paresthesias are particularly common.* During sleep, persistent wrist flexion or extension leads to increased carpal tunnel pressure, nerve ischemia, and subsequent paresthesias. Patients frequently will awaken from sleep and shake or wring their hands out or hold them under warm running water.

Sensory fibers are involved early in the majority of patients. Pain and paresthesias usually bring patients to medical attention. Motor fibers may become involved in more advanced cases. Weakness of thumb abduction and opposition may develop, followed by frank atrophy of the thenar eminence. Some patients describe difficulty buttoning shirts, opening jars, or turning doorknobs. However, development of significant functional impairment from loss of median motor function in the hand is unusual.

The sensory examination may disclose hyposthesia in the median distribution. Comparing sensation over the lateral ring finger (median innervated) to that over the medial ring finger (ulnar innervated) is often helpful. *Sensation over the thenar area is spared because this area is innervated by the palmar cutaneous sensory branch, which arises proximal to the carpal tunnel* (Fig. 20.4). The *Tinel’s sign* is often present when tapping over the median nerve at the wrist, which results in paresthesias in the median-innervated fingers (Fig. 20.5). The *Phalen’s maneuver*, whereby the wrist is held passively flexed, may also provoke symptoms (Fig. 20.6, top). A wide range of sensitivities and specificities for the Tinel’s sign and Phalen’s maneuver have been reported in the literature. A Tinel’s sign is present in more...
than half of patients with CTS; however, false-positive Tinel’s signs are common in the general population. A Pha-
len’s maneuver usually produces paresthesias within 30 seconds to 2 minutes in CTS; it is more sensitive than the
Tinel’s sign and has fewer false-positive results. Most com-
monly, the Phalen’s maneuver will produce paresthesias in the middle or index fingers. It should be noted, however,
that because the Phalen’s maneuver often is performed with the elbow flexed as well (a provocative maneuver for
ulnar neuropathy at the cubital tunnel), this position occasion-
ally may produce ulnar paresthesias in patients with ulnar neuropathy.

The motor examination involves inspection of the hand, look-
ing for wasting of the thenar eminence (severe cases) and test-
ing the strength of thumb abduction and opposition (Fig. 20.7). Isolating the actions of the APB and OP (median-innervated
muscles distal to the carpal tunnel) may be difficult because
thumb abduction is also subserved by the abductor pollicis lon-
gus (radial nerve) and thumb opposition by a combination of the
deep head of the FPB (innervated by the ulnar nerve) and the
FPL (innervated by the anterior interosseus nerve).

It is important to emphasize that CTS is a clinical diag-
nosis. It represents a constellation of clinical symptoms and
signs caused by compression and slowing of the median
nerve at the wrist. However, there are patients who have
median nerve slowing at the wrist on nerve conductions but who have no clinical signs or symptoms. Such patients
do not have CTS per se and do not need directed therapy.
This situation is encountered most often in patients with an
underlying polyneuropathy in whom preferential slowing
at common sites of compression is not unusual. Often,
patients with an underlying polyneuropathy may be found
to have incidental slowing at several entrapment sites,
including the median nerve at the wrist, ulnar nerve at the
ep, and peroneal nerve at the fibular neck. For example,
a patient with numbness and tingling of both feet from a mild alcohol-induced or diabetic polyneuropathy may have relative slowing of the median nerve across the wrist on nerve conduction studies yet may have no complaints of pain, paresthesias, or weakness in the hands. According to the EDX studies, such a patient has a median neuropathy at the wrist superimposed on an underlying polyneuropathy, but the patient does not have CTS. This distinction is important because in this case, treatment with splinting, injection, or surgery is not appropriate. The point is again underscored that nerve conduction and EMG studies can be properly performed and interpreted only with knowledge of the clinical history and physical examination.

**ETIOLOGY**

The reported causes of CTS are numerous (Box 20.1). Despite this exhaustive list, most cases are idiopathic. Indeed, idiopathic cases present with the same signs and symptoms as CTS caused by the other conditions listed in Box 20.1. Although the etiology of idiopathic cases was long considered to be tenosynovitis under the transverse carpal ligament, pathologic evaluation typically shows little evidence of inflammation. In most cases, edema, vascular sclerosis, and fibrosis are seen, findings consistent with repeated stress to connective tissue. Compression results in symptoms by way of ischemia and demyelination and, if it is severe enough, wallerian degeneration and axonal loss.

**Box 20.1 Conditions Associated With Carpal Tunnel Syndrome**

- Idiopathic disorders
- Repetitive stress
- Occupational
- Endocrine disorders
- Hypothyroidism
- Acromegaly
- Diabetes
- Connective tissue disease
- Rheumatoid arthritis
- Tumors
- Ganglia
- Lipoma
- Fibrolipoma
- Schwannoma
- Neurofibroma
- Hemangioma
- Congenital disorders
  - Persistent median artery
  - Congenital small carpal tunnel
  - Anomalous muscles (palmaris longus, flexor digitorum sublimis)
- Infectious/inflammatory
  - Sarcoid
  - Histoplasmosis
  - Septic arthritis
  - Lyme
  - Tuberculosis
  - Tenosynovitis
- Trauma
  - Fractures (especially Colles’ fracture)
  - Hemorrhage (including anticoagulation)
- Other
  - Spasticity (persistent wrist flexion)
  - Hemodialysis
  - Amyloidosis (familial and acquired)
  - Pregnancy
  - Any condition that increases edema or total body fluid

Occupations or activities that involve repetitive hand use clearly increase the risk of CTS (e.g., typists, data entry workers, mechanics, and carpenters). From the exhaustive list given in Box 20.1, the conditions most often associated with CTS, other than idiopathic, are diabetes, hypothyroidism, rheumatoid arthritis, amyloidosis, and pregnancy. One important clue to an underlying cause other than idiopathic is the presence of CTS in the nondominant hand. In idiopathic cases, the dominant hand is nearly always the affected hand; if symptoms are bilateral, then the dominant hand is more affected than the contralateral hand. CTS that is significantly worse in the nondominant hand should raise a red flag to look for a specific underlying cause other than idiopathic CTS. This is one of the situations where neuromuscular ultrasound should be undertaken.

**DIFFERENTIAL DIAGNOSIS**

There are several peripheral as well as central nervous system (CNS) lesions that may result in symptoms similar to CTS. The peripheral lesions in the differential diagnosis include median neuropathy in the region of the elbow,

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**Figure 20.7 Muscle testing in carpal tunnel syndrome.** Thumb abduction (A) and opposition (B) may be weak in more advanced cases of carpal tunnel syndrome.
brachial plexopathy, and cervical radiculopathy. The most common among the disorders that may be confused with CTS is cervical radiculopathy, especially lesions of the C6 or C7 root, which may cause both pain in the arm and parasthesias similar to those that characterize CTS. Important clinical clues that suggest radiculopathy rather than CTS are pain in the neck, radiation from the neck to the shoulder and arm, and exacerbation of symptoms by neck motion. Key points in the physical examination that suggest radiculopathy are abnormalities of the C6–C7 reflexes (biceps, brachioradialis, triceps), diminished power in proximal muscles (especially elbow flexion, elbow extension, arm pronation), and sensory abnormalities in the palm or forearm, which are beyond the distribution of sensory loss found in CTS.

Median neuropathy at the elbow and brachial plexopathy are very uncommon, especially in comparison to the incidence of CTS. If present, however, they may easily lead to clinical confusion. Important clues on physical examination that suggest a more proximal lesion of the median nerve are sensory disturbance over the thenar eminence and weakness of median innervated muscles proximal to the carpal tunnel, especially distal thumb flexion (PPL), arm pronation (PT and FQ), and wrist flexion (FCR). In brachial plexus lesions, the neurologic examination may reveal abnormalities similar to those noted in cervical radiculopathy, although the distribution of reflex abnormalities, weakness, and sensory loss may be more widespread, beyond the distribution of one spinal segment.

As for CNS disorders, transient paresthesias may be seen in patients with focal seizures, migraine, and transient ischemic attacks and occasionally are misinterpreted as symptoms of CTS. In exceptional cases, patients referred to the EMG laboratory for suspicion of CTS will be found to have a small lacunar infarct involving the lateral thalamus and internal capsule, causing hand clumsiness and sensory disturbance predominantly affecting the median-innervated digits. In addition to the presence of other evidence of CNS dysfunction, such as limb spasticity and brisk reflexes, the major differentiating factor is the lack of pain. One should always question the diagnosis of CTS in the absence of pain.

ELECTROPHYSIOLOGIC EVALUATION

The electrophysiologic evaluation of a patient suspected of having CTS is directed toward the following:

1. Demonstrating focal slowing or conduction block of median nerve fibers across the carpal tunnel
2. Excluding median neuropathy in the region of the elbow
3. Excluding brachial plexopathy predominantly affecting the median nerve fibers
4. Excluding cervical radiculopathy, especially C6 and C7
5. If a coexistent polyneuropathy is present, ensuring that any median slowing at the wrist is out of proportion to slowing expected from the polyneuropathy alone

The nerve conduction strategy for evaluating possible CTS is outlined in Box 20.2. The pathophysiology of CTS typically is demyelination, which, depending on the severity, may be associated with secondary axonal loss. In moderate to advanced cases, the electrodiagnosis usually is straightforward. On routine median studies, a demyelinating lesion at the carpal tunnel results in slowing of the distal motor and sensory latencies. If there is either demyelination with conduction block or axonal loss, the distal compound muscle action potential (CMAP) and sensory nerve action potential (SNAP) amplitudes, stimulating the median nerve at the wrist, will be decreased as well.

In patients with typical CTS, the median distal motor and sensory latencies, and minimum F-wave latencies, are moderately to markedly prolonged. However, there are a group of patients with clinical symptoms and signs of CTS in whom these routine studies are normal (approximately 10%–25% of patients with CTS). In such patients, the electrodiagnosis of CTS will be missed unless further testing is performed using more sensitive nerve conduction studies. Those studies usually involve a comparison of the median nerve to another nerve in the same hand. The ulnar nerve is the nerve most commonly used for comparison; less often, the radial nerve is used.

The common median-versus-ulnar comparison tests are (1) median-versus-ulnar palm-to-wrist mixed nerve latencies, (2) median-versus-ulnar wrist–to–digit 4 sensory latencies, and (3) median (second lumbrical)-versus-ulnar (interosseous [INT]) distal motor latencies. In each of the comparison studies, identical distances between the stimulator and recording electrodes are used for the median and ulnar nerves. These techniques create an ideal internal control in which several variables that are known to affect conduction time are held constant, including distance, temperature, age, and nerve size. Ideally, the only factor that varies in these paired median-versus-ulnar comparison studies is the median nerve traverses the carpal tunnel, whereas the ulnar nerve does not. Thus, any preferential slowing of the median nerve compared with the ulnar nerve can be attributed to conduction slowing through the carpal tunnel. The diagnostic yield increases from approximately 75% using routine motor and sensory studies to approximately 95% using these more sensitive techniques.

These sensitive median-versus-ulnar comparison studies are considered abnormal if very small differences between the median and ulnar latencies are found (typically 0.4–0.5 ms). Therefore, meticulous attention must be paid to all technical factors, especially distance measurement, stimulus artifact, supramaximal stimulation, and electrode placement, to obtain reliable and reproducible data. Furthermore, it is essential to avoid overstimulation, which can cause unintentional stimulus spread to an adjacent nerve. In the three studies outlined in the following section, overstimulation with unintentional spread of current to the adjacent nerve may yield a waveform that appears perfectly normal yet obscures the true latency difference between the median and ulnar potentials.
Box 20.2 Recommended Nerve Conduction Study Protocol for Carpal Tunnel Syndrome

Routine studies:

1. Median motor study recording the abductor pollicis brevis, stimulating the wrist, below groove, and above groove
2. Ulnar motor study recording abductor digitii minimi, stimulating the wrist, below groove, and above groove
3. Median and ulnar F responses
4. Median sensory response, recording digit 2 or 3, stimulating the wrist
5. Ulnar sensory response, recording digit 5, stimulating the wrist
6. Radial sensory response, recording snuffbox, stimulating over the lateral radius

The study is highly suggestive of isolated carpal tunnel syndrome if the median studies are abnormal, showing marked slowing across the wrist (prolonged distal motor and sensory latencies) and prolonged minimum F-wave latencies. The median compound muscle action potential and sensory nerve action potential amplitudes may be diminished if there is secondary axonal loss or if demyelination has led to conduction block at the wrist.

and

The ulnar motor, sensory, and F-wave studies are normal and the radial sensory response is normal (making a brachial plexopathy or polyneuropathy unlikely)

No further nerve conductions are necessary, proceed to electromyography (EMG).

If the median studies are completely normal or equivocal, proceed with the median-versus-ulnar comparison tests, the median-versus-radial comparison test, or the median segmental sensory study.

Median-versus-ulnar comparison studies:
1. Comparison of the median and ulnar mixed palm-to-wrist peak latencies, stimulating the median and ulnar palm one at a time 8 cm from the recording electrodes over the median and ulnar wrist, respectively
2. Comparison of the median lumbrical and ulnar interossei distal motor latencies, stimulating the median and ulnar wrist one at a time at identical distances (8–10 cm), recording with the same electrode over the 2L/interossei
3. Comparison of the median and ulnar digit 4 sensory latencies, stimulating the median and ulnar wrist one at a time at identical distances (11–13 cm) and recording digit 4

Median-versus-radial comparison study:
1. Comparison of the median and radial digit 1 sensory latencies, stimulating the median nerve at the wrist and the superficial radial sensory nerve at the forearm one at a time at identical distances (10–12 cm) and recording digit 1

Median segmental sensory study:
1. While recording digit 3, stimulate the median nerve at the wrist and in the palm (with the palm-to-digit distance being one-half of the wrist-to-digit distance). Then calculate the wrist-to-palm conduction velocity and compare it to the palm-to-digit conduction velocity.

If two or more of the previous studies are abnormal, there is a high likelihood of carpal tunnel syndrome. Proceed to EMG. If these studies are normal, consider alternative diagnoses, especially cervical radiculopathy (note: a small number of patients with CTS can have normal nerve conduction studies).

Other important considerations:
1. If there is a co-existent polyneuropathy, the case will be more challenging. The question will be: is the median nerve slowing out of proportion to the slowing associated with the polyneuropathy? It is possible that all the motor and sensory latencies may be prolonged from the polyneuropathy itself. In addition, it would not be uncommon that the sensory and mixed studies may be absent, in which case the palmar mixed, digit 4, and digit 1 comparison studies cannot be used. In this situation, the lumbral-interosseous comparison is often the most useful internal comparison study, as these motor responses usually remain present in a polyneuropathy.

2. In the unusual situation wherein there is a co-existent ulnar neuropathy at the wrist, all of the median versus ulnar internal comparison studies may be unhelpful, as both the median and ulnar latencies may be prolonged. In this situation, the median versus radial internal comparison study or the median segmental sensory study would be most useful.

3. If there is a co-existent ulnar neuropathy at the elbow (which would not be uncommon), the ulnar mixed and sensory responses may be absent, in which case the palmar mixed and digit 4 studies cannot be used. In this situation, the median versus radial internal comparison study, the median segmental sensory study, or the lumbral-interosseous comparison would be most useful.

4. If the distal median motor or median sensory amplitudes are low, this may denote either axonal loss or distal conduction block. The only way to differentiate between these two is to stimulate the median nerve in the palm and compare the amplitudes with wrist stimulation. Any palm-to-wrist ratio >1.6 for sensory and >1.2 for motor amplitudes denotes some conduction block.

This technique takes advantage of measuring the mixed nerve potential. Mixed nerve potentials consist of both motor and sensory fibers. The sensory fibers in the mixed nerve potential carry both cutaneous sensory fibers, which are measured in routine sensory studies, as well as muscle sensory fibers, which are not measured in routine sensory studies. This is important because the muscle sensory fibers include the Ia afferents from muscle spindles, which are the largest and fastest-conducting fibers and hence have the greatest quantity of myelin sheath. These fibers are very susceptible to demyelination, the primary pathology in CTS. The mixed nerve study also takes advantage of conducting over a very short distance of 8 cm. Because such a short distance is used, most of the conduction time is computed over the area of pathology. Only a short length of normal nerve is included that potentially could dilute any slowing present across the carpal tunnel.

The technique is performed by stimulating the median nerve in the palm, recording the median nerve at the wrist, and comparing it with the ulnar nerve stimulated in the palm and recorded over the ulnar nerve at the wrist (Fig. 20.8). Each nerve is stimulated supramaximally in the palm at a distance of 8 cm from its respective recording electrodes. The median nerve is stimulated in the palm on a line connecting the median nerve in the middle of the wrist to the web space between the index and middle fingers. The ulnar nerve is stimulated in the palm on a line connecting the ulnar nerve at the medial wrist (lateral to the flexor carpi ulnaris tendon) to the web space between the ring and little fingers. Supramaximal responses are obtained for each
Median- Versus-Ulnar Digit 4 Sensory Latencies

The technique of comparing median-versus-ulnar digit 4 sensory latencies takes advantage of the fact that, in most individuals, the sensory innervation to the fourth digit (ring finger) is split, with the lateral half innervated by the median nerve and the medial half innervated by the ulnar nerve (Fig. 20.9). Thus, if identical distances are used, the latencies stimulating each nerve can be directly compared. The antidromic technique is performed by stimulating the median and ulnar nerves at the wrist, one at a time, with recording ring electrodes placed over digit 4 (G1 over the metacarpophalangeal joint and G2 over the distal interphalangeal joint). Identical distances must be used for both (range 11–13 cm). Supramaximal responses are obtained, and the difference between the median and ulnar onset or peak latencies is recorded. The study also can be done orthodromically, stimulating with the ring electrodes over digit 4 as just described and recording the median and ulnar nerves at the wrist at identical distances. We do not recommend the latter method because, with orthodromic stimulation at digit 4, co-stimulation of the median and ulnar nerves cannot be avoided, and spread of the potential from the adjacent nerve may contaminate the recorded SNAP at the wrist.

Median Second Lumbrical-Versus-Ulnar Interossei Distal Motor Latencies

The technique of comparing the second lumbrical (2L) versus-interosseous distal motor latencies takes advantage of two facts: (1) motor fibers are easy to record and more resistant to compression than sensory fibers, and (2) the median 2L muscle lies just above the ulnar INT. In some cases of generalized polyneuropathy with superimposed CTS, the SNAPs and mixed nerve potentials may be absent. In severe cases, the routine median CMAP recording the APB may also be absent, whereas the motor fibers to the second lumbrical and ulnar INT are still recordable. CMAPs from both the median-innervated 2L and the uln-innervated INT can easily be recorded by placing an active electrode (G1) slightly lateral and distal to the midpoint of the third metacarpal, with the reference electrode over the proximal interphalangeal joint of the second digit,
and stimulating the median and ulnar nerves at the wrist, respectively (Fig. 20.10). The motor point to the 2L is identified when the active recording electrode has been placed such that stimulation of the median nerve at the wrist elicits a waveform with the fastest rise time and an initial negative deflection. Because the 2L cannot be seen or palpated, moving the active electrode slightly may be necessary to ensure the electrode is optimally placed. In some individuals, if the sensitivity is increased, a small mixed nerve potential will be seen slightly before the onset of the 2L CMAP. This is a normal finding, especially in younger patients. If this small mixed nerve potential is present, the latency should be measured from the onset of the 2L CMAP, not from the onset of the mixed nerve potential. The ulnar nerve is then stimulated supramaximally at the wrist, at the same distance, leaving the recording electrodes in place. A CMAP from the underlying ulnar INT muscles will be easily elicited. The ulnar CMAP is generally larger than the median CMAP. Identical distances (range 8–10 cm) must be used to compare the difference between the distal latencies.

The normal values for the three median-versus-ulnar comparison studies are given in Table 20.3. In our laboratory, the palmar mixed nerve peak latency difference is the most sensitive study, followed closely by the digit 4 sensory and 2L-INT motor studies. However, there is a very high degree of correlation among the results of the three studies. In one comparison study, two of the three studies yielded abnormal results in 97% of all patients with mild CTS. In a patient in whom only one of the median-versus-ulnar comparison studies is abnormal, one should be hesitant to make a definite electrodiagnosis of CTS (see Chapter 9).

Wrist-to-Palm Versus Palm-to-Digit Sensory Conduction Velocity (Segmental Sensory Conduction Studies Across the Wrist)

Another extremely sensitive internal comparison study includes the wrist-to-palm versus palm-to-digit sensory conduction velocity (segmental sensory conduction studies across the wrist). This test is more technically challenging than the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Nerve</th>
<th>Stimulate</th>
<th>Record</th>
<th>Distance (cm)</th>
<th>Significant Difference (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palmar mixed</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Median palm</td>
<td>Median nerve at wrist</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>≥0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ulnar</td>
<td>Ulnar palm</td>
<td>Ulnar nerve at wrist</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Digit 4 sensory</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Median nerve at</td>
<td>Digit 4</td>
<td>11–13</td>
<td>≥0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ulnar</td>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>Ulnar nerve at wrist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumbrical-interossei</td>
<td>Median</td>
<td>Median nerve at</td>
<td>Lateral to the mid-third metacarpal (over the second lumbrical and interossei)</td>
<td>8–10</td>
<td>≥0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ulnar</td>
<td>wrist</td>
<td>Ulnar nerve at wrist</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Must use the identical distance for median and ulnar nerve stimulation.
Fig. 20.11 Segmental sensory conduction studies across the wrist. Using this technique, sensory conduction velocities (CVs) can be obtained for the wrist-to-digit and palm-to-digit segments and then the wrist-to-palm CV can be calculated (see Fig. 20.12). Left, The median nerve is stimulated at the wrist at a fixed distance and at the palm at half that distance; recording the median sensory nerve action potential with ring electrodes over digit 3. G1, Active recording electrode; G2, reference recording electrode; S1, median stimulation point at the wrist; S2, median stimulation point in the palm. Placing the recording electrodes more distally on the finger helps reduce stimulus artifact when stimulating in the palm. Right, In patients with carpal tunnel syndrome, the calculated CV from wrist to palm (38 m/s) is slower than the CV from palm to digit (68 m/s). Any slowing ≥10 m/s is considered abnormal.

Fig. 20.12 Calculation of the wrist-to-palm velocity in segmental sensory studies. There is no direct way to stimulate the median cutaneous sensory fibers at the wrist and record them at the palm. The wrist-to-palm conduction velocity (CV) can be calculated from knowledge of the wrist-to-digit and palm-to-digit CVs, both of which can be directly measured. If the palm-to-digit distance is half the wrist-to-digit distance, the calculation is simplified. In normal nerves, one expects the proximal segments to conduct at the same velocity or faster than the distal segments, due to larger nerve diameters and warmer temperatures (see Chapter 8). In carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS), there is a reversal of this pattern: the wrist-to-palm CV (across the carpal tunnel) is slower than the palm-to-digit CV. Any slowing ≥10 m/s is considered abnormal.

Other Useful Studies

Inching Across the Wrist and Palmar Stimulation

Another technique useful in demonstrating CTS, first described by Kimura and later by others, involves segmental stimulation ("inching") of the median nerve across the carpal tunnel (Fig. 20.13). One looks for an abrupt change in latency or increase in amplitude above normal control values, recording either a median CMAP at the APB or a median digital SNAP at the index or middle finger.

Kimura’s method begins at 4 cm proximal to the distal wrist crease and continues to 6 cm distal to the wrist crease, with segmental stimulation at 1-cm increments. For each 1-cm increment, latency usually increases 0.2 to 0.3 ms. Any abrupt change in latency greater than this is highly suggestive of focal demyelination. Although the inching
technique has the advantage of showing the exact site of the lesion, its effectiveness often is limited by difficulty stimulating the nerve at the sites just distal to the wrist crease. The technique is particularly difficult to perform recording the median CMAP because stimulation of motor fibers at 1-cm increments following the course of the recurrent thenar branch of the median nerve can be quite difficult. Furthermore, stimulation in the palm often requires rotation of the anode to prevent excessive stimulus artifact (Fig. 20.14).

Rather than measuring a change in latency, comparing the CMAP or SNAP amplitudes stimulating at the wrist and palm can be technically easier and can yield additional information about the underlying pathophysiology (Fig. 20.15). Wrist and palmar stimulation can be performed for either median motor or sensory studies. Only single palm and wrist stimulations are required, whereas inching requires stimulation at multiple 1-cm increments. Several technical factors must be taken into account. First, as noted earlier for motor studies, the anatomy of the recurrent thenar motor branch is such that for stimulating the motor branch in the palm, the stimulator often must be placed beyond the thenar eminence with the anode rotated distally to prevent excessive stimulus artifact (Fig. 20.14). Second, the examiner must be aware of normal values when comparing amplitudes proximal and distal to the carpal tunnel. There is always some drop in amplitude...
SECTION VIII Clinical Disorders

Fig. 20.16 Change in compound muscle action potential (CMAP) and sensory nerve action potential (SNAP) amplitude across the carpal tunnel. To assess possible conduction block across the carpal tunnel, either the median CMAP or SNAP can be recorded with stimulation of the wrist and palm. Note that in normal controls, there is only a slight increase in amplitude between wrist and palm stimulation sites. A large difference in amplitude between wrist and palm sites in patients with carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) signifies conduction block. For motor studies, a normal palm to wrist amplitude ratio is ≤1.2 and for sensory studies it is ≤1.6. (Adapted with permission from Lesser EA, Venkatesh S, Preston DC, et al. Stimulation distal to the lesion in patients with carpal tunnel syndrome. Muscle Nerve. 1995;18:503.)

![Diagram showing CMAP and SNAP amplitudes across wrist and palm stimulation sites for control and CTS cases.]

Fig. 20.17 Distal conduction block mimicking axonal loss. Low distal amplitudes usually are attributed to axonal loss. However, if conduction block is present distal to the typical distal stimulation site, it can mimic the pattern of axonal loss. Such is often the case in carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS) in which the lesion is distal to the usual distal stimulation site. Left, Median motor study, stimulating the wrist and antecubital fossa. Note that this appears to be a typical axonal loss pattern. Right, Median motor study, stimulating the palm and wrist. In this patient with CTS, a markedly higher-amplitude CMAP is evoked stimulating the palm, signifying conduction block. The identification of conduction block not only localizes the lesion but also denotes a much better prognosis than axonal loss. The clinical clue to the presence of conduction block in a patient with CTS is a weak thumb abduction and relatively intact muscle bulk (i.e., no atrophy) of the abductor pollicis brevis muscle, with a low median CMAP stimulating at the wrist.

![Diagram showing CMAP and SNAP amplitudes across wrist and elbow stimulation sites for proximal and distal stimulation.]
obtained with wrist and palmar stimulation can easily sort out these two possibilities. Take the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>t0030</th>
<th>Case A</th>
<th>Case B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CMAP (stimulate wrist, record APB)</td>
<td>2 mV</td>
<td>2 mV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CMAP (stimulate palm, record APB)</td>
<td>6 mV</td>
<td>2 mV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

p0700 In both cases, when the median nerve is stimulated at the wrist, the recorded CMAP is low (normal value >4.0 mV). When the palm is stimulated in case A, however, the CMAP amplitude increases by an additional 200%; the distal-to-proximal amplitude ratio is 3.0, signifying conduction block. In contrast, there is no change in amplitude in case B, signifying that the low amplitude is secondary to axonal loss.

s0075 Median-Versus-Radial Digit 1 Sensory Latencies

p0705 Comparison of the median-versus-radial digit 1 sensory latencies takes advantage of the fact that, in most individuals, digit 1 (the thumb) is innervated by both the median and radial nerves (Fig. 20.18). The basic concept is the same as in the median-versus-ulnar digit 4 sensory study: the median and radial nerves are stimulated at the wrist, using identical distances, with recording ring electrodes over digit 1 (G1 over the metacarpophalangeal joint and G2 over the interphalangeal joint). The radial nerve is stimulated at the wrist along the lateral border of the radial bone. Using the same distance, the median nerve is stimulated at the wrist in the usual location. Supranaximal responses are obtained at each stimulation site, and the onset or peak latencies are compared. Although this technique is popular in some laboratories, stimulating the nerves at identical distances may be difficult because the median nerve travels to the thumb at an angle, which can hinder measurement of its true distance. Any difference between the median and radial latencies greater than or equal to 0.5 ms is considered abnormal.

Electromyographic Approach

The recommended EMG approach to a patient with CTS is outlined in Box 20.3. The EMG strategy is designed with the clinical differential diagnosis in mind (i.e., proximal median neuropathy, brachial plexopathy, C6–C7 radiculopathy). The key muscle to check is the APB. In mild or early cases of CTS, the APB often is normal. In later or more severe cases, EMG may reveal secondary axonal loss resulting in denervation and reinnervation. In general, the hand muscles are best approached with a smaller-gauge needle. Because examination of the APB often is painful for patients to tolerate, it is best to begin the study with a different C8–T1-innervated muscle, such as the first dorsal interosseous...
(FDI). The APB can be examined next. Although some electromyographers may prefer to study the APB toward the end of the examination, there is the potential problem that the patient may quit the study before this key muscle can be studied, especially if the patient is generally intolerant of the EMG examination.

If the APB is abnormal, proximal median-innervated muscles and at least two other non-median C8–T1/lower trunk-innervated muscles should be sampled. In addition, C6-C7-innervated muscles should be sampled to exclude a cervical radiculopathy. The PT and FCR are very helpful muscles to sample because they can be used both as proximal median-innervated muscles (e.g., first dorsal interosseous, extensor indicis proprius) to exclude a lower trunk brachial plexopathy, polynuropathy, or C8–T1 radiculopathy. Note: If the carpal tunnel syndrome is superimposed on another condition (e.g., polyneuropathy, plexopathy, radiculopathy), a more detailed electromyographic examination will be required.

The APB study frequently is painful and difficult for some patients to tolerate. It is best not studied first but also best not left for the end of the electromyographic study in case the patient is unable to tolerate the entire examination.

What happens to nerve conduction study abnormalities after successful carpal tunnel release surgery? In general, the distal latencies and amplitudes improve both for median motor and sensory studies. However, this may take many weeks to months, and in some studies, improvement continues up to a year after surgery. However, some slowing may persist indefinitely. In the authors’ experience:

1. Median distal motor latencies improve and usually return to the “normal” range. Never do distal latencies remain in the demyelinating range (i.e., >130% the upper limit of normal) after successful carpal tunnel release.
2. Median sensory latencies improve and usually return to the “normal” range. Never do conduction velocities remain in the demyelinating range (i.e., <75% the lower limit of normal) after successful carpal tunnel release.
3. Median motor amplitudes improve and return to the normal range.
4. Median sensory amplitudes may or may not improve. Many remain in a slightly reduced or borderline normal range.
5. The sensitive internal comparison studies (i.e., palmar mixed studies, digit 4 study, digit 1 study, lumbrical-interosseus study, and segmental sensory study) remain abnormal indefinitely, showing some slowing of median conduction across the carpal tunnel.

Although these findings are seen most often after carpal tunnel release surgery, analogous findings are seen for other entrapments. This begs the question: after successful release surgery, why do the median conduction not completely return to normal? The answer involves knowledge of normal myelination, demyelination, and then remyelination (Fig. 20.20). As noted in Chapter 2, the process of myelination begins in utero, and full myelination of peripheral nerves does not occur until approximately age 3. Thus,
by age 3, all the myelin and all the internodes have been laid down (Fig. 20.20A). However, between childhood and adulthood, while the limb grows in length, resulting in longer internodes, the number of internodes does not change (Fig. 20.20B). In entrapment neuropathies, such as CTS, demyelination occurs at the site of compression, resulting in interruption of the internodes at the site of compression (Fig. 20.20C). When the compression is successfully released, remyelination can then occur. However, the new internodes are short, the same distance apart that they were when originally laid down as a child (Fig. 20.20D). Therefore, more nodes are required to remyelinate the original site of compression. When remyelination is completed, nerve impulses can once again travel successfully up and down the nerve. However, remember that the time of conduction (and hence conduction velocity) is completely dependent on the depolarization time at the nodes of Ranvier. The greater the number of nodes of Ranvier, the more depolarizations, and hence, the longer total time of depolarization. Thus, conduction velocity across the remyelinated area of prior compression will be slower than normal because of the increase in the number of nodes. In any situation where there has been demyelination and then remyelination, sensitive techniques will always demonstrate a slightly slower conduction time across the remyelinated segment. Accordingly, one must always be cautious when interpreting any mild “slowing” on nerve conduction studies in patients who have undergone carpal tunnel release.

ULTRASOUND CORRELATIONS

Of all neuromuscular conditions, ultrasound has been most studied in median neuropathy at the wrist. Ultrasound has been validated to be highly accurate in the diagnosis of median neuropathy at the wrist when used by itself, but also adds complementary structural information, which in some cases results in a precise etiologic diagnosis.

The median nerve is conventionally imaged with ultrasound in the short axis, starting at the proximal carpal tunnel at the distal wrist crease (Fig. 20.21). At this location, the median nerve is easily visualized near the center of the screen with the underlying tendons of the FDS, FDP, and FPL below. At approximately the 7:00 o’clock position to the median nerve is the tendon to the FPL. This can easily be checked by having the patient repetitively flex their thumb. Just radial to the median nerve is the large tendon of the FCR. Sometimes, one can confuse the FCR tendon with the median nerve itself as they are often of similar size and shape (Fig. 20.22). However, nerve has a honeycomb appearance, whereas tendon has a highly compact fibrillar appearance. When rocking the probe, prominent anisotropy (dark, hypoechoic signal) also aids in identifying the tendon. Just above the median nerve is the transverse carpal ligament (a.k.a. the flexor retinaculum), which is normally extremely thin. However, since it is connective tissue, similar to tendon, it also has prominent anisotropy. Thus, the flexor retinaculum can sometimes be seen as a very thin, dark, hypoechoic line that covers the carpal tunnel (Fig. 20.23). The small tendon of the palmaris longus inserts on the flexor retinaculum above the median nerve. It can often be seen and followed proximally to its muscle belly in the proximal forearm.

There are several parameters that can be assessed when evaluating the median nerve (Table 20.4). The most important and highly validated measure is the cross-sectional area (CSA). As described in Chapter 18, this is measured using a tracing method just inside the hypoechoic epineurium. A normal CSA at the wrist is typically up to 10 mm², with 11 or 12 mm² considered borderline.
adjacent to the entrapment site. Echogenicity is judged on a subjective scale as being normal or mildly, moderately, or severely hypoechoic. As the nerve becomes more hypoechoic with larger fascicles, the normal fascicular pattern is lost. Thus, the classic ultrasound image of median neuropathy at the wrist is an enlarged and hypoechoic nerve adjacent to the entrapment site with loss of the normal fascicular architecture (Fig. 20.24). The true carpal tunnel is located slightly distal in the palm with the flexor retinaculum attaching to four carpal bones: the trapezium and hamate distally and the scaphoid and pisiform distally. The floor of the carpal tunnel is formed by the lunate proximally and the trapezoid and capitate distally. The actual entrapment site occurs within the carpal tunnel, although the most prominent ultrasound abnormalities are usually present just proximally.

After one has identified the median nerve at the distal wrist crease, the ultrasound probe should be moved distally in the palm while trying to follow the nerve. In some cases, the entrapment is more distal and the area of maximal enlargement is actually distal to the entrapment.

Table 20.4  Ultrasound Assessments of the Median Nerve.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cross-sectional area</th>
<th>Distal wrist crease (proximal carpal tunnel)</th>
<th>Palm (distal carpal tunnel)</th>
<th>Forearm</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Echogenicity</td>
<td>District wrist crease proximal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Palm distal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mobility</td>
<td>District wrist crease proximal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Palm distal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vascularity</td>
<td>District wrist crease proximal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Palm distal carpal tunnel</td>
<td>Forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>“Notch sign” on long axis imaging</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flattening ratio</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenting (bowing) of the flexor retinaculum</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muscle intrusion</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexor digitorum sublimis with finger extension</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumbricals with finger flexion</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anomalies</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilateral median nerve</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent median artery</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reversed palmaris longus</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of structural lesions</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ganglion</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenosynovitis</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radiocarpal joint abnormalities</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effusion</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bone spurs</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Synovial hypertrophy</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroma</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intraneural and extraneural scar</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumor</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schwannoma</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neurofibroma</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fibrolipoma</td>
<td>Test monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test distal monophasic ratio</td>
<td>Test forearm</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most laboratories would consider 13 mm$^2$ or more to be unequivocally abnormal.

Next, the echogenicity is assessed. With entrapment neuropathies, nerves tend to enlarge and become hypoechoic.

The carpal tunnel inlet is where the tendons and median nerve enter the carpal tunnel adjacent to the distal wrist crease. The outlet is where they emerge from under the flexor retinaculum in the distal palm. It is often confusing to keep “inlet” and “outlet” straight. A much easier way to refer to these areas is the proximal and distal carpal tunnel, to avoid any ambiguity.
Another secondary measure of median neuropathy at the wrist is that of the flattening ratio, which was also described in Chapter 18. The maximal width of the nerve is divided by the maximal height (AP diameter) on short axis imaging in the forearm at a location approximately 12 cm proximal to the distal wrist crease. As one sweeps the probe from the wrist toward the forearm, the median nerve moves slightly radially and then deep to lie in the fascial plane between the FDS and FDP (Fig. 20.25). The WFR is a very sensitive measure for median neuropathy at the wrist. A normal ratio is up to 1.4. Ratios between 1.4 and 2.0 are considered borderline. It is important to emphasize that the WFR is a very sensitive test, meaning that if the test is negative (i.e., normal), there is an extremely low likelihood that the patient has a median neuropathy at the wrist. However, the opposite of this is not true—a slightly positive test does not necessarily indicate that the patient has a median neuropathy at the wrist. This test is especially useful when one is trying to determine if there is a superimposed median neuropathy at the wrist in patients who have diffusely enlarged or borderline enlarged nerves secondary to polyneuropathy. In many ways, this test is similar to the very sensitive internal comparison EDX studies for median neuropathy at the wrist described earlier, when used in patients with polyneuropathy. To diagnose median neuropathy at the wrist in these patients, one must demonstrate median nerve slowing at the wrist out of proportion to any slowing from the polyneuropathy. T o diagnose median neuropathy at the wrist in these patients, one must demonstrate median nerve slowing at the wrist out of proportion to any slowing from the polyneuropathy.

Another secondary measure of median neuropathy at the wrist is that of the flattening ratio, which was also described in Chapter 18. The maximal width of the nerve is divided by the maximal height (AP diameter) on short axis imaging.
Next, vascularity with color Doppler should be assessed. Color Doppler can be used to visualize arteries but more importantly can indicate increased blood flow in or around the median nerve. Increased vascularity has been reported in patients with median neuropathy at the wrist, although this has not been the authors’ experience. However, assessment with Doppler is still useful, especially in cases with co-existent tenosynovitis where increased flow on Doppler indicates active inflammation.

Lastly, in short axis, note should be made of any “bowing” or “tenting” of the flexor retinaculum. When the carpal tunnel is under pressure, the flexor retinaculum sometimes develops a convex shape (Fig. 20.28). There is some literature that describes how to quantitate the amount of bowing by identifying bony landmarks and drawing a line between them and then drawing and measuring a perpendicular line to the flexor retinaculum. In practice, however, this is often difficult. As this is a lesser established criterion for the ultrasound evaluation of median neuropathy at the wrist, we prefer a subjective description. It is important to note, however, that tenting of the flexor retinaculum can be a normal finding in patients who have undergone surgical release of the carpal tunnel. All contents within the carpal tunnel may be displaced in a volar direction.

After the previously mentioned measures have been assessed on short axis, it is important to assess the median nerve on long axis. This can easily be done, although it takes practice to accurately place the probe precisely over the nerve. The width of the ultrasound beam is no more than the width of a credit card. However, with practice, one can align the probe directly over the nerve and visualize the hyperechoic borders of the epineurium and the hyperechoic parallel lines of the perineurium inside the nerve. The longitudinal view becomes more difficult as one moves distally into the palm and the nerve becomes deep in the palm and takes on a concave shape. The heel-to-toe maneuver is usually required to minimize anisotropy and to be able to better visualize the median nerve. In patients with median neuropathy at the wrist, the nerve will be hypoechoic and enlarged, which then tapers down as the nerve enters the...
Carpal tunnel. When visualizing the nerve in long axis, one of the most important findings in median neuropathy at the wrist is that of the “notch sign” (Fig. 20.29). With the notch sign, one sees an enlarged and hypoechoic median nerve, which then tapers down to a much thinner nerve as the nerve enters the carpal tunnel and then may expand after the constriction point. The notch sign, when well seen, is pathognomonic for ongoing compression.

Fig. 20.28 Bowing of the flexor retinaculum. Short axis view of the median nerve at the wrist. Top, Native image. Bottom, Same image with the median nerve in yellow and the flexor retinaculum in green. Note that the nerve is enlarged and hypoechoic with loss of the normal fascicular architecture. Also note the bowing (more convex appearance) of the flexor retinaculum, which is also thickened.

Fig. 20.29 “Notch sign.” Median nerve at the distal wrist crease, long axis view. Note the enlarged and hypoechoic median nerve, which tapers down to a much thinner nerve (yellow arrows) and then expands after the constriction point. The notch sign is pathognomonic for ongoing compression.

**Recommendation**: If available, neuromuscular ultrasound measurement of median nerve CSA at the wrist may be offered as an accurate diagnostic test for CTS (Level A).

**Conclusion 2**. Based on Class II evidence, neuromuscular ultrasound of the wrist probably adds value to EDX studies when assessing CTS as it can detect structural abnormalities.

**Recommendation**: If available, neuromuscular ultrasound should be considered to screen for structural abnormalities at the wrist in those with CTS (Level B).

Thus, there is significant evidence-based medicine to support the use of neuromuscular ultrasound in CTS, both as a diagnostic test and as an aid to detect structural abnormalities (see later).

**Special Situations**

There are several clinical and EDX situations in which neuromuscular ultrasound is truly invaluable in the assessment of a potential median neuropathy at the wrist. Among these are the following.

**Nonlocalizing Median Neuropathy**

The ability of EDX studies to localize a mononeuropathy to a specific segment of nerve relies upon the demonstration of demyelination: either focal slowing or conduction block. However, in some mononeuropathies, the underlying pathology is that of axonal loss. Thus, while the lesion can be localized to one particular nerve, the location along the nerve where the lesion is specifically located remains uncertain. When the SNAP amplitude is reduced, one knows that the lesion is at or distal to the dorsal root ganglion (i.e., the peripheral nerve). If there are abnormalities on needle EMG, then the localization must be at or proximal to the take-off to the most proximal abnormal muscle on EMG. It is in this situation that neuromuscular ultrasound is extremely helpful. Ultrasound can quickly screen the median nerve from the palm to the axilla. In axonal loss lesions, the nerve is still most often enlarged and hypoechoic at its entrapment site.
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s0110  **Severe Median Neuropathy With Absent Median Responses on EDX Studies**
p0860  This situation is basically a variation of the nonlocalizable median neuropathy discussed earlier. However, in such cases, the median neuropathy is so severe that it results in absent median motor and sensory responses. In this situation, it is very dissatisfying to not be able to localize the median neuropathy. In these cases, ultrasound is typically dramatically abnormal at the lesion site, which is usually at the wrist.

s0115  **Clinical Suspicion of CTS but With Normal EDX Studies**
p0865  In this situation, the EDX studies are normal but the clinical history is extremely suggestive of CTS. For example, the patient describes classic symptoms of awakening from sleep in pain with their fingers numb and tingling and needing to shake them out. During the day, holding a phone or driving results in similar symptoms. Clinically, it is basically certain that the patient has CTS. However, their EDX studies, including sensitive internal comparison studies, are normal! This happens about 5% of the time. Presumably in these cases, intermittent compression results in nerve ischemia, and subsequent pain and paresthesias, but without any demyelination or axonal loss that EDX studies can detect.

p0870  In one study of 14 individuals and 22 wrists with normal EDX studies (median motor, median sensory, and either palmar mixed or segmental sensory conduction studies across the wrist) and a high clinical suspicion of CTS, 92.3% had an enlarged median CSA at the wrist, 82.4% had decreased median nerve echogenicity, and all had an increased WFR. This underscores the potential added benefit of neuromuscular ultrasound in this group of patients to increase the yield of identifying median neuropathy at the wrist.

s0120  **CTS in the Nondominant Hand**
p0875  Most cases of CTS are idiopathic, implying that they are the result of overuse and “wear and tear.” They occur as the result of repetitive activities (e.g., typing) and/or positioning of the wrist. Thus, they almost always present in the dominant hand. If the symptoms are bilateral, then the dominant hand is usually more affected than the contralateral hand. Patients in whom CTS predominately affects the nondominant hand are distinctly unusual. In such patients, this should strongly suggest a specific underlying cause that is not idiopathic. Ultrasound should be routinely added in these cases.

p0880  **Persistent Symptoms or Recurrent Symptoms After Carpal Tunnel Release Surgery**

s0125  It is not uncommon for patients to be sent to the EMG laboratory for evaluation of CTS after they have had carpal tunnel release surgery. Some will have had EDX studies before the surgery, but many have not. Two groups of patients are seen: (1) those who received no benefit from surgery and (2) those who improved but later developed recurrent symptoms. In the first group, the initial diagnosis may have been incorrect, the nerve was not completely released during surgery, or the nerve was damaged during surgery. In the second group, there may be a recurrence of CTS possibly due to remote surgical scarring or new pathology.

As noted earlier in the chapter, nerve conduction studies commonly remain abnormal even after successful carpal tunnel release surgery. The median motor and sensory latencies improve compared to their preoperative values and often return to the upper limit of normal range. However, the sensitive internal comparison studies tend to remain abnormal. A similar situation is seen for neuromuscular ultrasound after carpal tunnel release surgery. A previously enlarged median nerve will typically improve but may not return to normal. Thus, if one does not have a preoperative study, it is not clear how to interpret an enlarged median nerve on a postoperative ultrasound. In general, the larger and the more hypoechoic the nerve, the more likely it is that it is still abnormal. Unfortunately, there are no good cutoff values. However, the ultrasound finding reported to be the most specific for ongoing compression is the notch sign. A notch sign seen on long axis imaging is strong evidence for ongoing compression (Fig. 20.30).

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**Fig. 20.30 Median neuropathy after carpal tunnel release.** In patients with persistent symptoms after carpal tunnel release, the initial diagnosis may have been incorrect, or the nerve may not have been completely released during surgery, or the nerve was damaged during surgery. The presence of a “notch sign” on long axis imaging is the most specific finding on ultrasound for ongoing compression. *Left,* Median nerve in long axis, showing a prominent notch sign in a patient with persistent symptoms after carpal tunnel release. *DWC,* Distal wrist crease. *Right,* Photograph demonstrating a compressed median nerve found at surgery that was the result of an incomplete release of the carpal tunnel. (Photograph courtesy of Dr. Stephen Lacey, MD, Department of Orthopedic Surgery, University Hospitals Cleveland Medical Center.)
COMMON ANOMALIES

When assessing the median nerve on ultrasound, it is essential that one be familiar with common anomalies of nerve, blood vessel, and muscle. These may or may not be causative in developing a median neuropathy at the wrist, although statistically they are more commonly seen in symptomatic median neuropathy at the wrist. The most common anomaly of the median nerve is that of a bifid nerve (Fig. 20.31). In most individuals, the median nerve is round or oval in shape and contains many fascicles. However, in 8%–15% of individuals, the median nerve at the wrist is bifid (i.e., there are two distinct bundles). In rare patients, it may be trifid (Fig. 20.32). When measuring the CSA, the CSAs of the two bundles should be added together. Sometimes, a bifid median nerve seen on ultrasound is also seen at surgery (Fig. 20.33), but most often it is not. Presumably, in these cases, the two bundles run within the same epineurium. When a bifid median nerve is present, it is not infrequent that there is an accompanying vascular anomaly—a persistent median artery (Fig. 20.34). This artery is most often located between the two bundles. Several arteries in the body present in utero during fetal development later become atretic and disappear. However, in some individuals, they may persist. Although a persistent median artery does not cause CTS per se, it is one more structure that takes up space within the confined space of the carpal tunnel, which is usually not there. There are also rare patients in whom the persistent median artery becomes thrombosed. In these patients, the patient develops CTS, either by ischemia or additional swelling within the carpal tunnel.
the carpal tunnel. It may be very difficult to demonstrate flow in a persistent median artery, which does not necessarily mean that the artery is thrombosed. Thrombosis should be considered in atypical cases of CTS, often with an abrupt onset, where flow in the persistent median artery is well seen in the forearm down to the wrist, but which then abruptly cannot be demonstrated distally. Although a persistent median artery is most often seen between the two bundles of a bifid median nerve, it can also be seen adjacent to the median nerve, usually just to the ulnar side of the median nerve (Fig. 20.35).

The most common anomaly of muscle was discussed earlier: intrusion of the FDS or the lumbricals into the carpal tunnel with finger extension and flexion, respectively. However, there are rare cases wherein the median nerve is compressed by an unusual anomalous muscle. One of the most common situations is that of a reversed palmaris longus. The palmaris longus frequently has an anomalous structure or may even be absent in some individuals. Normally, it originates from the medial epicondyle with a small muscle belly in the proximal forearm, which ends in a long tendon that inserts into the middle of the flexor retinaculum. In the reversed palmaris longus, there is a long tendon from the medial epicondyle with the muscle belly/tendon insertion adjacent to the median nerve at the wrist. In this situation, if the muscle is large enough, it can compress the underlying median nerve in the carpal tunnel (Fig. 20.36).

**Important Structural Abnormalities**

There are a variety of structural abnormalities that ultrasound can easily image that are either the cause of or a major participant in developing CTS. The most common are listed here.

- **Ganglion Cyst**
  - Ganglion cysts are common at the wrist but most often affect the dorsal side and do not interfere with the median nerve. However, occasionally, ganglion cysts are present on the volar side, arising from the radiocarpal or one of the
carpal-carpal joints. In these locations, they can compress the median nerve. Those at the wrist usually arise from the radial side of the wrist. Rarely, they may arise distally in the palm. Ganglion cysts are recognized as hypoechoic or anechoic structures with prominent posterior acoustic enhancement. They may be single or multi-lobular.

Tenosynovitis

In the past, most cases of CTS were incorrectly attributed to tenosynovitis. In reality, however, tenosynovitis is fairly uncommon and can occur as a result of degenerative, inflammatory, or infectious etiologies. Tenosynovitis results in increased fluid within the tendon sheaths, thickening of the sheaths, and in some cases increased vascularity on Doppler. On short axis, tenosynovitis is recognized as fluid encircling the tendon(s) but below the tendon sheath (Fig. 20.37). On longitudinal imaging, it has a classic appearance as the fluid generally runs below and sometimes above the tendon. Due to gravity, the fluid forms a flat surface that respects the horizontal edge of the tendon above with a “boat-like” accumulation of fluid below (Fig. 20.38). It is important to remember that as one follows a tendon proximally, muscle tissue begins to appear adjacent to the tendon. Thus, one must not confuse normal muscle tissue for fluid from tenosynovitis. Following the tendon proximally is the best way to ensure this differentiation. As the muscle becomes more prominent, the “starry-night” appearance of muscle becomes obvious.

Neuroma in Continuity

When a nerve is completely transected, the chance of successful nerve regeneration is essentially zero. During attempted regrowth, the nerve grows into a disorganized ball of nerve fibers known as a stump neuroma. However, if the nerve is only partially damaged, with the epineurium remaining intact, only the internal fascicular architecture and perineurium are disrupted. Near or inside the carpal tunnel, this may occur from blunt trauma, partial laceration, shearing, stretch, or intraneural bleeding, with subsequent fibrous tissue growth inside the nerve. In this situation, nerve regrowth is also often not successful. The nerve fibers attempting to regrow form a disorganized tangle of nerve fibers, but in this case, within a nerve that has an intact epineurium (Fig. 20.39). This results in a neuroma in continuity. The nerve appears swollen at the point of the neuroma and appears as an enlarged, hypoechoic area within the nerve. It may be challenging to differentiate a neuroma in continuity from
swelling proximal to an entrapment. Indeed, some refer to the swelling proximal to an entrapment site as a “pseudo-neuroma,” a term we prefer not to use. However, the history of trauma and the absence of an entrapment site adjacent to the nerve enlargement favor a neuroma in continuity over nerve swelling proximal to an entrapment. Clinically, neuromas are recognized as tender, pea-sized nodules that usually produce a very prominent Tinel’s sign when tapped.

Synovial Hypertrophy at the Radiocarpal Joint

Synovial tissue surrounds the wrist joints. With degenerative and inflammatory disorders, the synovium may hypertrophy. This is occasionally seen at the radiocarpal joint and at times may be dramatic. If the amount of hypertrophy is great enough, it may deform the joint capsule, resulting in a bulging outward from the joint (Fig. 20.40). This then puts pressure on the flexor tendons immediately above the joint capsule, which then exerts pressure on the median nerve above the tendons.

Tumors

In general, it is uncommon for nerve tumors to affect the median nerve at the wrist. However, any nerve can be affected by a schwannoma or neurofibroma, both in individuals with or without neurofibromatosis. In addition, there is another “tumor” that is more commonly seen in the median nerve at the wrist, known as a neural fibrolipoma.
or fibrolipomatous hamartoma (Fig. 20.41). Although other nerves can be affected, it most commonly affects the median nerve at the wrist. This is a benign tumor that results from growth of fibrous and adipose tissue around the nerve sheath and within the nerve. Patients note a “fullness” of the median aspect of the wrist. In addition, macrodactyly is present in about two-thirds of patients. It has a characteristic appearance on ultrasound, with an enlarged nerve (often dramatically enlarged) with hypoechoic fascicles but with additional tissue between the fascicles.

**Thickened Epineurium and Intraneural Scar**

After trauma or surgery, scar formation occurs. Scar tissue is usually hypechoic and can either surround the nerve and/or form inside the nerve. When it surrounds the nerve, the epineurium becomes hypechoic and thickened (Fig. 20.42). Scar inside the nerve is recognized as an abnormal hypechoic punctate area or a small hypechoic linear patch within the nerve (Fig. 20.43). The goals of external and internal neurolysis are, respectively, removal of extraneural and intraneural fibrous scar tissue.
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Fig. 20.42  Extraneural scar.  Top, Short axis image of the median nerve in a patient s/p carpal tunnel release.  Bottom, Long axis image of the median nerve in the same patient.  Scar tissue is usually hyperechoic.  When it surrounds the nerve, the epineurium becomes hyperechoic and thickened.  Yellow arrows demonstrate marked thickening of the epineurium.

Fig. 20.43  Intraneural scar.  Top, Short axis image of the median nerve in a patient s/p carpal tunnel release.  Bottom, Long axis image.  Scar inside the nerve is recognized as an abnormal hyperechoic punctate area or a small hyperechoic linear patch within the nerve.  Note the hyperechoic area (yellow arrows) within the nerve.  This represents intraneural scarring.

EXAMPLE CASES

Case 20.1

History and Examination

A 67-year-old woman was referred for clumsiness, tingling, and pain in both hands of several months’ duration.  Symptoms were most prominent at night, often awakening her from sleep, or during hand use such as driving.  Examination showed slight wasting of both thenar eminences.  Reflexes were normal.  Thumb abduction was weak bilaterally.  Sensation was slightly reduced over the finger pads of the thumb, index, middle, and ring fingers.  There was no Tinel’s sign at the wrist on either side.  A Phalen’s maneuver elicited tingling in the middle finger bilaterally after 30 seconds.

Summary

The history of pain and paresthesias in both hands, which was worse at night and provoked by driving, is characteristic of CTS.  In addition, the examination suggests median neuropathy.  Weak thumb abduction suggests dysfunction of the APB, a distal median-innervated muscle.  Sensation is reduced over the median-innervated digits.  Although a Tinel’s sign is not present at the wrist, a Phalen’s maneuver causes paresthesias in the third digit.  A Phalen’s maneuver is thought to reproduce the situation that occurs at night when the patient is asleep, and the wrist commonly assumes a flexed posture.  Note that nothing in the physical examination or history suggests a radiculopathy (i.e., there is no neck pain or weakness in the C6 or C7 muscles, and the reflexes are normal).  One would assume that there is a high likelihood of bilateral CTS in this patient even before proceeding to the nerve conduction and EMG studies.

Both the nerve conduction studies and EMG findings are abnormal.  The median motor study on the right shows a low CMAP amplitude with a markedly prolonged distal motor latency, moderately slow conduction velocity in the forearm, and absent F responses.  The left median nerve also is abnormal but not as severely as the right, with a normal CMAP amplitude, moderately prolonged distal motor latency, borderline slow conduction velocity in the forearm, and prolonged F responses.  The right ulnar motor study is completely normal, an important finding that indicates that the median motor abnormalities are not secondary to a more widespread polyneuropathy.  The sensory studies demonstrate a similar pattern of abnormalities.  The median sensory response to digit 2 is absent on the right but present on the left, with a low-amplitude, prolonged peak latency, and a correspondingly markedly slow conduction velocity.  The right ulnar sensory response is completely normal, an important finding that indicates that the median motor abnormalities are not secondary to a more widespread polyneuropathy.  The sensory studies demonstrate a similar pattern of abnormalities.  The median sensory response to digit 2 is absent on the right but present on the left, with a low-amplitude, prolonged peak latency, and a correspondingly markedly slow conduction velocity.  The right ulnar sensory response is completely normal.  Because the median palmar mixed potential is absent on the right, the ulnar palmar mixed nerve study is not performed on that side; there would be nothing to compare it with.  The median palmar mixed nerve
### CASE 20.1 Nerve Conduction Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nerve Stimulated</th>
<th>Stimulation Site</th>
<th>Recording Site</th>
<th>Amplitude Motor = mV; Sensory = μV</th>
<th>Latency (ms)</th>
<th>Conduction Velocity (m/s)</th>
<th>F-wave Latency (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>APB</td>
<td>RT LT NL</td>
<td>Latency</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antecubital fossa</td>
<td>APB</td>
<td>3.4 8.6 ≤4</td>
<td>10.9 6.4 ≤4.4</td>
<td>41 49 ≥49</td>
<td>NR 33 ≤31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>11.2 ≥6</td>
<td>3.0 ≤3.3</td>
<td>60 ≥49</td>
<td>25 ≤32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Below elbow</td>
<td>ADM</td>
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<td>8.0 61 ≥49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Above elbow</td>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>11.1 8.0</td>
<td>60 ≥49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (s)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Index finger</td>
<td>NR 8 ≥20</td>
<td>4.9 ≤3.5 ≤49</td>
<td>NR 32 ≥50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (s)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Little finger</td>
<td>24 ≥17</td>
<td>2.9 ≤3.1 ≤62</td>
<td>≥50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (mixed study)</td>
<td>Palm</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>NR 8 ≥20</td>
<td>4.9 ≤3.5 ≤49</td>
<td>NR 32 ≥50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (mixed study)</td>
<td>Palm</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>16 ≥15</td>
<td>1.7 ≤2.2 ≤61</td>
<td>≥50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1.1 ≤0.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All sensory and mixed latencies are peak latencies. All sensory and mixed-nerve conduction velocities are calculated using onset latencies. The reported F-wave latency represents the minimum F-wave latency.

ADAM, Abductor digiti minimi; APB, abductor pollicis brevis; LT, left; m, motor study; NL, normal; NR, no response; RT, right; s, sensory study.

### CASE 20.1 Electromyography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Muscle</th>
<th>Insertional Activity</th>
<th>Spontaneous Activity</th>
<th>Voluntary Motor Unit Action Potentials</th>
<th>Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Right APB</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>+1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right FDI</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right PT</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right triceps brachii</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right FCR</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right C8 paraspinus muscles</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left APB</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Increased; II, moderately reduced; APB, abductor pollicis brevis; FCR, flexor carpi radialis; FDI, first dorsal interosseous; NL, normal; PT, pronator teres.

The study on the left demonstrates a markedly prolonged peak latency. Furthermore, not only is the median palmar mixed peak latency on the left markedly prolonged (3.8 ms) in an absolute sense, but it is also clearly prolonged out of proportion to the ulnar palmar mixed peak latency (1.7 ms), which is normal.

After completion of the nerve conduction studies, one can be fairly certain of the diagnosis of bilateral median neuropathy at the wrist, affecting both motor and sensory fibers. The localization of the lesion at the wrist, rather than more proximally, is determined by the markedly prolonged latencies with wrist stimulation. These markedly prolonged latencies signify demyelination across the wrist.

There is no suggestion of a superimposed polyneuropathy because the ulnar motor, sensory, and F-wave studies are completely normal.

The EMG study shows increased insertional activity and fibrillation potentials in the right APB, with decreased recruitment of long, large, polyphasic motor unit action potentials. Because the APB is abnormal on the right, the FDI and C8 paraspinus muscles are sampled to rule out the possibility of a coexistent C8–T1 radiculopathy. Note that if the clinical examination or history strongly suggests the possibility of a superimposed C8–T1 radiculopathy (e.g., weakness of other intrinsic hand muscles or pain radiating from the neck to the medial forearm), further sampling of other C8–T1-innervated muscles should be done. In addition, because the APB is abnormal, proximal median muscles (PT, FCR) must be sampled to ensure that the abnormalities seen in the APB are not secondary to a high median neuropathy. Sampling the PT muscle alone may not be sufficient because that muscle may be spared in the pronator syndrome, wherein compression of the median nerve occurs after the takeoff to the branch to the PT (see Chapter 21). Had there been a high clinical suspicion of a proximal median neuropathy, additional median-innervated proximal muscles should have been sampled.

Sampling both the PT and the FCR serves a dual purpose in that they are both proximal median and C6–C7-innervated muscles. The fact that they are normal makes the diagnosis of a superimposed C6–C7 radiculopathy, or brachial plexopathy, unlikely. The triceps brachii often is
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Useful in this situation as well because it is very strongly innervated by C7 and typically is abnormal in C7 radiculopathy. Again, if the clinical examination or history suggests a superimposed C6–C7 radiculopathy (e.g., weakness of elbow or wrist extension, absent biceps or triceps reflex), more extensive sampling of muscles in those myotomes would have been warranted. Finally, because the symptoms are bilateral and the nerve conduction studies are abnormal bilaterally, the left APB is sampled to assess the severity of the median nerve lesion on that side. Because the APB is normal on the left and there is no clinical suspicion of a superimposed proximal median neuropathy, plexopathy, or radiculopathy, no further needle examination is needed on that side. At this point, an EDX impression can be formed.

**Impression:** There is electrophysiologic evidence of bilateral, moderately severe (right more severe than left) median neuropathies at the wrist.

Several questions deserve consideration.

**Does the Clinical-EMG Correlation Make Sense?**
The answer in this case clearly is yes. The patient’s history and physical examination are highly suggestive of CTS. There is nothing to suggest a superimposed radiculopathy, plexopathy, or polynuropathy. Nerve conduction studies and EMG both confirm the clinical impression. All the EDX abnormalities are limited to the median nerve. In addition, the markedly prolonged distal motor and sensory latencies are consistent with demyelination of the median nerve across the carpal tunnel. All findings are more severe on the right than on the left. This is the common situation in idiopathic CTS; the dominant hand is most affected. Any clear-cut case of CTS in which the nonoperative hand is more severely affected should raise a red flag that there may be an unusual etiology, such as a mass lesion. In such a situation, one must go back to the clinical history and examination to look for unusual features (e.g., a palpable mass on examination). In these individuals, imaging with ultrasound should be strongly considered.

**Is the Lesion Demyelinating or Axonal?**
In this case, there are both demyelinating and axonal features. Both distal motor latencies are markedly prolonged. The right distal motor latency (10.9 ms) is approximately 250% the upper limit of normal, and the left (6.4 ms) is approximately 145%. Any distal latency greater than approximately 130% the upper limit of normal cannot be attributed to axonal loss or dropout of the fastest fibers alone. These markedly prolonged distal latencies signify demyelination between the recording and stimulating sites (i.e., between the wrist and the APB muscle). Second, although the median sensory response is absent on the right, it is present on the left, with a demyelinating conduction velocity. The velocity of 32 m/s is less than 75% the lower limit of normal, which cannot be explained by the dropout of the fastest-conducting fibers.

The lesion must be demyelinating. However, there are also axonal changes. Note that the CMAP amplitude on the right is slightly low (3.4 mV); this may be the result of either distal conduction block or axonal loss. On EMG, there are fibrillation potentials in the right APB along with long-duration, large-amplitude, polyphasic motor unit action potentials. These are EMG signs of denervation and reinnervation that signify active and chronic axonal loss. Therefore, one can say with confidence that on the right side, the lesion is both demyelinating and axonal. On the left side, the EMG is normal. Thus, there is no definite evidence of axonal loss by EMG on that side.

The EMG abnormalities of denervation and reinnervation signify a more severe lesion. There is ongoing axonal loss occurring on the right side. Simple conservative treatment measures, such as a neutral wrist splint or steroid injection, likely would not be successful on the right side. This patient likely requires surgical decompression.

**If the Lesion Is at the Carpal Tunnel, Why Is the Forearm Median Motor Conduction Velocity Slow?**
The right median motor conduction velocity is slowed in the forearm segment (41 m/s). Because this value represents the speed of the median motor fibers in the forearm between the elbow and the wrist (i.e., proximal to the carpal tunnel), one might consider the possibility of an additional median nerve problem in the forearm segment. However, the finding of a slowed conduction velocity in the forearm segment is quite common in CTS, especially in severe cases. It may occur for two reasons. First, in cases of severe CTS with secondary axonal loss and wallerian degeneration, the wallerian degeneration may proceed proximally. If some of the fastest fibers are lost, then these fibers no longer contribute to the calculated conduction velocity. Second, forearm slowing may occur simply as a byproduct of the method by which the motor conduction velocity is computed (Fig. 20.44). In severe CTS, demyelination may result in conduction block of the fastest and largest fibers, the fibers most prone to compression. Even though these fibers are present and their underlying axons intact, demyelination at the carpal tunnel may result in complete block. Because the blocked fibers cannot carry their impulses distally, they do not contribute to the median CMAP. As a result, the conduction velocity of these blocked fibers is not included in the calculated conduction velocity. The calculated conduction velocity will be slowed, based on the speed of the fastest of the remaining normal slower-conducting fibers. In theory, if the median motor fibers in the forearm could be selectively stimulated at the antecubital fossa and recorded at the wrist, before the conduction block at the carpal tunnel, the conduction velocity would be normal. Therefore, a slowed forearm median motor conduction velocity in a patient with severe CTS is not unusual and does not imply an additional proximal lesion.
**If the Lesion Is at the Carpal Tunnel, Why Are the F Responses Absent or Prolonged?**

In this case, both median F responses are abnormal (absent on the right, prolonged on the left), especially compared to the ulnar F responses, which typically are 1–2 ms longer than the median. One usually thinks of the F responses as checking the proximal nerve segments and of prolonged or absent F responses as indicative of a proximal lesion. However, the F response travels the entire course of the axon. When the F response study is performed, the impulse follows a course initially up the nerve antidromically to the anterior horn cell, followed by retrograde travel down the motor nerve to the point of stimulation, and then past the point of stimulation to the distal nerve segment, across the neuromuscular junction, and into the muscle (Fig. 20.45). The F response is actually a small motor response, representing approximately 5% of the motor fibers. Therefore, conduction slowing anywhere along the length of the F response circuitry will result in prolonged or absent F responses. In CTS, when the median F response is elicited stimulating at the wrist, the impulse travels antidromically up to the spinal cord and back down to the wrist and then through the carpal tunnel to the muscle, where it slows or is blocked. Prolonged or absent F responses are not unusual and should be expected in severe CTS.

**Case 20.2**

**History and Examination**

A 44-year-old woman who was diagnosed with rheumatoid arthritis 6 months previously was referred for a second opinion concerning right hand and wrist pain, paresthesias, and an abnormal cervical magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) scan. The symptoms had developed over the preceding 2 months and were associated with diffuse aching of the right arm. She would arise from bed and shake her right hand for several minutes or put it under running water. During the day, driving or holding a book, newspaper, or telephone would particularly exacerbate the symptoms. The symptoms slowly worsened over 2 months until nearly all activities caused pain, paresthesias, and considerable distress.

The patient initially had been referred to an outside hospital for an EMG and nerve conduction study, with a question of CTS. Bilateral median and ulnar motor, sensory, and F-wave studies were normal. Needle EMG of both APB muscles was normal. The impression was that the study was normal, with no evidence of CTS.

In light of the continued symptoms and the normal nerve conduction and EMG studies, cervical radiculopathy...
**CASE 20.2 Nerve Conduction Studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nerve Stimulated</th>
<th>Stimulation Site</th>
<th>Recording Site</th>
<th>Amplitude Motor = μV; Sensory = μV</th>
<th>Latency (ms)</th>
<th>Conduction Velocity (m/s)</th>
<th>F-wave Latency (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>APB</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Median (s)</td>
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<td>Index finger</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (s)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Little finger</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td>Median (mixed study)</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>Palm</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** All sensory and mixed latencies are peak latencies. All sensory and mixed-nerve conduction velocities are calculated using onset latencies. The reported F-wave latency represents the minimum F-wave latency.

**CASE 20.2 Electromyography**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Muscle</th>
<th>Insertional Activity</th>
<th>Spontaneous Activity</th>
<th>Voluntary Motor Unit Action Potentials</th>
<th>Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fibrillation</td>
<td>Fasciculation</td>
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<td>Right APB</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Right FDI</td>
<td>NL</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right triceps brachii</td>
<td>NL</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right FCR</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right PT</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** APB, abductor pollicis brevis; FDI, flexor digitorum indicis; FCR, flexor carpi radialis; PT, pronator teres.

was considered as an alternative diagnosis. A cervical MRI scan was reported to demonstrate an increased T2 signal in the center of the cervical spinal cord, consistent with a syrinx. The patient was referred for further evaluation and management of her syrinx and upper extremity symptoms.

On examination, mental state and cranial nerves were normal. Motor examination revealed normal bulk and strength testing throughout. Reflexes were normal and symmetric. Sensory examination demonstrated a patchy area of decreased light touch sensation over the finger pads of the index and middle fingers of the right hand. There was no Tinel’s sign at the wrist. Phalen’s maneuver after 60 seconds of wrist flexion caused paresthesias in the finger pad of the right middle finger.

**Summary**

In many ways, the clinical history in Case 20.2 is similar to that in Case 20.1. The history of pain and paresthesias, which awakened the patient from sleep and were exacerbated by driving or holding a book, is very characteristic of CTS. In addition, the patient has a history of rheumatoid arthritis, a condition commonly associated with CTS. Rheumatoid arthritis is associated with several other peripheral nerve disorders as well, including a distal symmetric sensorimotor polyneuropathy, a vasculitic neuropathy resulting in mononeuritis multiplex, and radiculopathies. In this case, there are no symptoms or signs suggesting any of those diagnoses.

The examination also suggests the possibility of CTS. There is a patchy decrease of light-touch sensation in the index and middle fingers (median-innervated digits). Although there is no Tinel’s sign at the wrist, a Phalen’s maneuver, which is more sensitive and specific for median neuropathy at the wrist, does cause paresthesias in a median-innervated digit.

Based on the history and physical examination, the suspicion of CTS should be strong. We are then confronted with the prior nerve conduction studies showing normal median and ulnar motor, sensory, and F responses, along
with normal needle EMG findings of both APB muscles. This information was initially used to rule out the presence of CTS and unfortunately led to diagnostic confusion. Further investigations included a cervical MRI scan, which demonstrated an increased T2 signal in the center of the cervical spinal cord. With this new information, the patient’s symptoms and signs were attributed to a syrinx.

At this point, what is the next logical step? When there is a discrepancy among the clinical history, examination, and electrophysiologic findings, one should always go back to the patient’s history and physical examination. The history and physical examination clearly suggest CTS. There is nothing in the history or the examination to suggest a syrinx, despite the MRI scan result. A syrinx in the cervical cord usually is associated with a suspended, dissociated loss of pain and temperature sensation over the shoulders due to early involvement of the crossing spinohalamic fibers in the spinal cord, which lie adjacent to the central canal. In addition, there usually is asymmetric wasting and weakness of selected upper extremity muscles with reflex changes, depending on the spinal segments involved. Thus, what does one make of the initial nerve conduction and EMG studies? Despite the normal initial test results, the diagnosis of CTS should not be abandoned. There certainly are a group of patients with a history and examination very suggestive of CTS in whom the routine median motor and sensory conduction studies are normal. In this group, the more sensitive median-versus-ulnar comparison studies often are needed to make an electrodiagnosis of median neuropathy at the wrist.

Nerve conduction studies are repeated, which show normal routine median and ulnar motor and sensory conduction studies, as were reported in the initial study. The F responses are normal in an absolute sense, although the right median F response is 1 ms longer than the ulnar F. When the three median-versus-ulnar comparison studies are performed, however, each is abnormal: (1) the median-versus-ulnar palm-to-wrist latency difference, 0.6 ms, is clearly above the upper limit of normal; (2) the distal motor latencies to the median-second lumbrical versus ulnar-INT muscles at an identical distance reveal a latency difference of 0.8 ms, again clearly above the normal cutoff; and, finally, (3) the antidromic median and ulnar sensory responses recording the ring finger at identical distances reveal a peak latency difference of 0.6 ms, again above the upper limit of normal. The EMG study of the right upper extremity reveals no active denervation or reinnervation in the APB, the FDI, or in more proximal median- or C7-innervated muscles.

At this point, an EDX impression can be formed.

**IMPRESSION: There is electrophysiologic evidence of a mild right median neuropathy at the wrist.**

**Does the Clinical-EMG Correlation Make Sense?**

The answer clearly is yes in the case of the second set of EMG studies performed on this patient. The patient’s clinical history and physical examination were very suggestive of CTS, and she had a clear predisposing factor, rheumatoid arthritis. The important point here is that although the routine median motor and sensory conduction studies are normal, the more sensitive median-versus-ulnar comparison studies all are abnormal, demonstrating preferential median slowing across the wrist when compared with ulnar conduction across the wrist. In cases of mild CTS, abnormalities in these three comparison studies usually are closely correlated with one another. One should be hesitant to make any diagnosis based on a single abnormality. It is easy to imagine that one distance or latency measurement may be slightly in error; one would be remiss to make a diagnosis based on a single piece of abnormal data. In this case, all three median-versus-ulnar comparison studies are abnormal. Collaborating clinical evidence that supports an electrical diagnosis is always desirable.

The initial clinical-EMG correlation did not make sense: that of a patient with intermittent paresthesias of the second and third digits provoked by sleeping or driving, with no other neurologic signs, caused by a cervical syrinx, and with normal electrophysiologic results. This case reinforces the notion that CTS is a clinical diagnosis. Rarely, there will be a patient with clinical CTS in whom all EDX tests are normal, even when the sensitive comparison studies are done (i.e., a false-negative). In these patients, there is no demyelination or axonal loss; presumably, the symptoms are caused by intermittent compression resulting in transient ischemia. In these situations, neuromuscular ultrasound may be useful to identify a median neuropathy at the wrist in some cases, as discussed earlier. This case also reinforces the fact that incidental or erroneous test results with no clinical or electrophysiologic correlate, in this case the supposed “syrinx” seen in the cervical cord on the original MRI scan, should not take on undue meaning.

**If This Patient Has CTS, Why Are the Median Motor and Sensory Distal Latencies Normal?**

This situation is not uncommon. Patient’s results are commonly compared with population normal values. For example, in this patient, the distal median motor latency is 4.2 ms, which is within the normal range. However, the word “range” must be emphasized. There is a wide range of normal values. For instance, 1 year ago, before the onset of rheumatoid arthritis and CTS, the patient may well have had a distal median motor latency of 3.5 ms. When her distal motor latency increased from 3.5 to 4.2 ms, it became markedly prolonged in relationship to its own baseline normal. However, the value still falls within the “population normal range.” It is in these cases that the median-versus-ulnar comparison studies are of greatest value because they rely on the patient’s own nerves, rather than population normal values, as a control.
Variables such as temperature, nerve length, size, age, and coexistent polyneuropathy all are controlled.

When the median motor and sensory latencies are normal in patients with CTS, the values often are near the upper limit of the normal range. Values near the upper limit of the normal range should be a clue that there may be an underlying abnormality. In the present case, the median distal motor latency of 4.2 ms is very close to the upper limit of normal (4.4 ms), and the median sensory peak latency of 3.4 ms is very close to the upper limit of normal (3.5 ms).

Case 20.3
History and Examination
A 72-year-old right-handed man was referred for tingling and pain in the left hand for the past 4 weeks. Symptoms were most prominent at night, often awakening him from sleep. He noted prominent paraesthesias in the index and middle fingers. Examination showed slight wasting of the left thenar eminence. Reflexes were normal. Thumb abduction was weak on the left. Sensation was reduced over the finger pads of the left thumb, index, middle, and ring fingers.

CASE 20.3 Nerve Conduction Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nerve Stimulated</th>
<th>Stimulation Site</th>
<th>Recording Site</th>
<th>Amplitude Motor = mV</th>
<th>Sensory = μV</th>
<th>Latency (ms)</th>
<th>Conduction Velocity (m/s)</th>
<th>F-wave Latency (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Median (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>APB</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>≥4</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antecubital fossa</td>
<td>APB</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>≥6</td>
<td>≤3.3</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Below elbow</td>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Above elbow</td>
<td>ADM</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (s)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Index finger</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>≥20</td>
<td>≤3.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (s)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Little finger</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>≥17</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>≤3.1</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Median (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Second lumbrical</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>≥1.0</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ulnar (m)</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Interosseous</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>≥2.5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lum-int difference</td>
<td>Wrist</td>
<td>Interosseous</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>≥2.5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All sensory and mixed latencies are peak latencies. All sensory and mixed-nerve conduction velocities are calculated using onset latencies. The reported F-wave latency represents the minimum F-wave latency.

ADM, Abductor digiti minimi; APB, abductor pollicis brevis; LT, left; Lum-int, lumbrical-interosseous; m, motor study; NL, normal; NR, no response; RT, right; s, sensory study.

CASE 20.3 Electromyography

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Muscle</th>
<th>Insertional Activity</th>
<th>Spontaneous Activity</th>
<th>Voluntary Motor Unit Action Potentials</th>
<th>Configuration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fibrillation</td>
<td>Fasciculation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Potentials</td>
<td>Potentials</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Activation</td>
<td>Recruitment</td>
<td>Duration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Amplitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Polyphasia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left APB</td>
<td>↑</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left FDI</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left PT</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left triceps brachii</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left FCR</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Left C8 paraspinal</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Right APB</td>
<td>NL</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>NL</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Increased; II, moderately reduced; APB, abductor pollicis brevis; FCR, flexor carpi radialis; FDI, first dorsal interosseous; NL, normal; PT, pronator teres.
Summary
This case is very similar to Case 20.1. The history of pain and paresthesias in the left hand, which was worse at night, is highly characteristic of CTS. In addition, the examination suggests median neuropathy. One would assume that there is a high likelihood of left CTS in this patient even before proceeding to the nerve conduction and EMG studies. The only aspect of this case that is unusual is that it occurs in the left (nondominant) hand.

Both the nerve conduction studies and EMG findings are abnormal. The left median motor study shows a low CMAP amplitude with a markedly prolonged distal motor latency, normal conduction velocity in the forearm, and absent F responses. The median sensory response to digit 2 is absent on the left. However, the ulnar motor and sensory responses are normal. Because there is only one piece of localizing data (the prolonged distal median motor latency), the lumbrical-INT study is also done. It shows a markedly prolonged median latency to the 2L compared to the ulnar latency to the INT.

After completion of the nerve conduction studies, one is certain of the diagnosis of a severe, left median neuropathy at the wrist. The localization of the lesion at the wrist is determined by the markedly prolonged distal median motor latency and the marked difference in the lumbrical-INT latencies. These markedly prolonged latencies signify demyelination across the wrist.

The EMG study shows increased insertional activity and marked fibrillation potentials in the left APB, with decreased recruitment of normal-appearing motor unit action potentials. All other muscles are normal, including proximal median-innervated muscles and muscles supplied by the C6–7 myotomes.

At this point, an EDX impression can be formed.

IMPRESSION: There is electrophysiologic evidence of a severe, left, subacute median neuropathy at the wrist.

Several questions deserve consideration.

Does the Clinical-EMG Correlation Make Sense?
The answer is yes. The patient’s history and physical examination are highly suggestive of CTS. There is nothing to suggest a superimposed radiculopathy, plexopathy, or polynieuropathy. Nerve conduction studies and EMG both confirm the clinical impression. All the EDX abnormalities are limited to the median nerve. In addition, the markedly prolonged distal motor latency is in the demyelinating range. On EMG, only a distal median-innervated muscle is abnormal.

How Can One Say the Lesion Is Subacute?
In this case, there are both demyelinating and axonal loss features. Because the median sensory response is absent and the median motor amplitude is reduced, these are likely signs of axonal loss. Thus enough time has passed for wallerian degeneration to have taken place (i.e., approximately 4–6 days for motor studies and 6–11 days for sensory studies). On needle EMG, fibrillation potentials are present. Although the appearance of fibrillation potentials depends on the distance between the nerve injury and the involved muscle, in general, they take several weeks to appear. However, the motor unit action potentials are normal in morphology. Reinnervation starts after denervation and generally takes many weeks to months to occur. Thus, the combination of findings marks the neuropathy as subacute, at least several weeks old but less than several months. This correlates well with the patient’s history of 4 weeks of symptoms.

Why Is the CTS Present in the Nondominant Hand?
As noted earlier, almost all cases of CTS are idiopathic, meaning they occur from overuse and stress on the transverse carpal ligament. Thus they present in the dominant hand in almost every case. If the symptoms are bilateral, then the dominant hand is more affected than the contralateral hand. It is distinctly unusual to have CTS in the nondominant hand, as in this case. It is even more unusual in this case, as the CTS is so severe. This is a situation where neuromuscular ultrasound is definitely indicated, to look for a structural lesion.

The patient subsequently underwent neuromuscular ultrasound (Fig. 20.46, top). As expected, it showed a large and hypoechoic median nerve at the wrist, confirming the diagnosis of CTS. However, on long axis imaging, it showed a distinctly unusual finding (Fig. 20.46, middle and bottom). There was a large bone spur arising from the distal radius, resulting in pressure and erosion of the flexor tendons immediately above it. Proximal to that point, there was an effusion within the tendons, consistent with tenosynovitis. The combination of the upward pressure from the bone spur and the tenosynovitis was likely applying pressure on the median nerve above the flexor tendons. This case underscores the important information that neuromuscular ultrasound can often provide, which is complementary to the information obtained by EMG.
SECTION VIII  Clinical Disorders

Suggested Readings


Fig. 20.46  follow-up ultrasound. Top, Median nerve at the wrist, demonstrating an enlarged and hypoechoic nerve. Middle, Long axis view, native image. Bottom, Long axis view with the median nerve in yellow, flexor tendons in light blue, a large bone spur arising from the radius in green (white arrow), and fluid adjacent to the flexor tendons in red, consistent with tenosynovitis. The combination of the upward pressure from the bone spur and the tenosynovitis was likely applying pressure on the median nerve above the flexor tendons.


Abstract
Median nerve entrapment at the wrist is the most common of all entrapment neuropathies and, consequently, is one of the most frequent reasons for referral for an electrodiagnostic (EDX) study. In nearly all patients, the usual site of compression occurs in the carpal tunnel and results in a constellation of symptoms and signs known as carpal tunnel syndrome (CTS). Lesions of the C6–C7 nerve roots or, less often, the brachial plexus and the proximal median nerve may be confused clinically with median neuropathy at the wrist, especially in early or mild cases. For an electromyographer, familiarity with the various nerve conduction and electromyographic patterns associated with CTS is essential. In addition, ultrasound has been validated to be highly accurate in the diagnosis of median neuropathy at the wrist when used by itself but also adds complementary structural information to EDX studies, which in some cases results in a precise etiologic diagnosis.

Keywords: Carpal tunnel release; Carpal tunnel syndrome; Digit 4 sensory; Flattening ratio; Fibrolipoma; Ganglion cyst; Lumbrical interosseous; Median nerve; Needle electromyography; Nerve conduction studies; Neuroma; Notch sign; Palmar mixed studies; Tenosynovitis; Ultrasound; Wrist-to-forearm ratio.