

EASILY MISSED?

Motor neurone disease

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This is one of a series of occasional articles highlighting conditions that may be more common than many doctors realise or may be missed at first presentation. The series advisers are Anthony Harnden, university lecturer in general practice, Department of Primary Health Care, University of Oxford, and Richard Lehman, general practitioner, Banbury. To suggest a topic, please email us at practice@bmj.com

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Previous articles in this series

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- ▶ Copper deficiency (*BMJ* 2014;348:g3691)
- ▶ Subdural haematoma in the elderly (*BMJ* 2014;348:g1682)
- ▶ Lisfranc injuries (*BMJ* 2013;347:f4561)

A 59 year old man initially presented with weakness in his right leg and occasional trips. He had a longstanding history of mild low back pain and had a magnetic resonance image performed under the orthopaedic team that showed some cervical spondylolisthesis sparing the spinal cord. Four months after this, he went back to the general practitioner with progressive difficulty buttoning his shirt.

What is motor neurone disease?

Motor neurone disease is a devastating, incurable neurodegenerative disease of the motor neurones that primarily affects people in their 60s or 70s.<sup>1</sup> Of the four subtypes of motor neurone disease, the most common is amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.<sup>2</sup> The subtypes vary clinically because they predominately affect different areas and have varying rates of progression.

Why is motor neurone disease missed?

Although motor neurone disease is a relatively well known rare disease, most GPs will diagnose only one or two cases in their career. There is a lack of awareness of the symptoms at presentation, when symptoms are often subtle.<sup>3</sup> The disease affects different anatomical regions, and it is estimated that about half of all patients with motor neurone disease are initially referred to non-neurology secondary care clinics. These are typically ear, nose, and throat clinics, because of bulbar symptoms such as dysarthria, and orthopaedics because of limb symptoms such as foot drop, which are often attributed to damage from spinal disease. A lack of continuity of care can compound the delay in diagnosis further,<sup>3</sup> because it is the progressive and multisystem nature of the symptoms that are the most indicative of the diagnosis.

The diagnosis is a difficult clinical one, and rates of misdiagnosis are high outside motor neurone disease specialist centres. Therefore, it is recommended that if motor neurone disease is suspected, doctors refer urgently directly to someone with a special interest in the disease.

Why does this matter?

The median survival for patients with motor neurone disease has been reported as 30 months but varies with subtype.<sup>2, 3</sup> The diagnostic delay thus represents a substantial proportion of patients' overall survival. Treatments that modify the

disease and support services are available for patients once a diagnosis is made, so it is important to recognise the symptoms and signs early. Good clinical care of symptoms through specialist multidisciplinary teams and motor neurone disease centres improves both quality of life and life expectancy.

How is motor neurone disease diagnosed?

Clinical features

Motor neurone disease causes a painless progressive weakness. It is helpful to think of symptoms in terms of systems affected.

Limb involvement is present at onset in about 70% of patients.<sup>4</sup> This can be subtle, with a mild foot drop or a loss of manual dexterity leading to trips and difficulty with buttons or jar lids, respectively. On examination, there is a mixture of upper and motor neurone signs. Wasting and fasciculations can be seen.

At presentation, 20% of patients have bulbar features,<sup>4</sup> with dysarthria usually preceding dysphagia. Patients might also mention excessive salivation or a choking sensation when lying flat. Patients' voices can become weak and slurred, particularly when tired.

Respiratory involvement tends to be a late feature of motor neurone disease. Chest wall weakness causes hypoventilation and carbon dioxide retention, resulting in type II respiratory failure. This can present as lethargy, early morning headache, or dyspnoea.

Cognitive symptoms, especially changes in behaviour such as apathy and loss of social awareness, might be present at diagnosis and are increasingly recognised as important.<sup>4, 5</sup>

Investigations

Neurophysiological studies—for example, electromyography and nerve conduction studies—and magnetic resonance imaging are often used as an adjunct to diagnosis and to exclude differential diagnoses. The diagnosis is largely clinical, however, and is usually made by an experienced neurologist.<sup>1, 2, 5</sup>

How is motor neurone disease managed?

Urgent referral of patients with symptoms and signs suggestive of motor neurone disease to a neurologist (see figure), preferably one within the motor neurone disease care

KEY POINTS

Motor neurone disease is relatively rare and should be considered in patients presenting with painless progressive weakness or progressive dysarthria

Awareness of the limb, bulbar, respiratory, and cognitive features of motor neurone disease might help reduce diagnostic delay

If suspected, refer urgently for specialist neurology review

A multidisciplinary team approach to care is required once the diagnosis is made

HOW COMMON IS IT?

- The incidence of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis is estimated to be 2.6 per 100 000 person years across Europe<sup>2</sup>
- A GP working full time for 30 years might expect to see one or two cases in his or her career<sup>1, 2</sup>
- Diagnostic delays of 12-19 months from presentation have been reported. Two retrospective studies involving 130 patients showed that 27-61% of patients eventually diagnosed with motor neurone disease had been misdiagnosed, contributing to about 9-13 months of this delay<sup>3</sup>

1. Does the patient have one or more of these symptoms?

**Limb features**

Falls/trips - from foot drop  
Loss of dexterity  
Muscle wasting  
Muscle twitching/fasciculations  
Focal weakness  
Cramps  
No sensory features

**Bulbar features**

Dysarthria  
Slurred or quiet speech often when tired  
Swallowing difficulties  
Liquids and/or solids  
Excessive saliva  
Choking sensation especially when lying flat  
Tongue fasciculations

**Respiratory features**

Hard to explain respiratory symptoms  
Shortness of breath on exertion  
Excessive daytime sleepiness  
Fatigue  
Early morning headache  
Orthopnoea

**Cognitive features (rare)**

Behavioural change  
Emotional lability (not related to dementia)  
Fronto-temporal dementia

2. Is there progression?

**If yes to 1 and 2 query motor neurone disease and refer to neurology**

If you think it might be motor neurone disease please state this explicitly in the referral letter  
Common causes of delay are initial referral to ear, nose, and throat or orthopaedic services

Factors supporting a diagnosis of motor neurone disease include asymmetry, age (motor neurone disease can present at any age), a positive family history of motor neurone disease or other neurodegenerative disease

Factors not supportive of a diagnosis of motor neurone disease include bladder or bowel involvement or both, prominent sensory symptoms, double vision or ptosis, improving symptoms

Features suggestive of motor neurone disease. The figure is adapted from an algorithm created by the Royal College of General Practitioners with the Motor Neurone Disease Association, which is based on expert consensus of opinion from clinicians in the field<sup>6</sup>

centre, is crucial so that a multidisciplinary team approach to their care can be initiated if necessary. Riluzole, a glutamate release antagonist, and non-invasive ventilation are currently the only treatments for motor neurone disease approved by the National Institute for Health and Care Excellence.<sup>7</sup> A Cochrane review (four randomised controlled trials involving 1477 patients) concluded that riluzole probably prolongs survival by two or three months<sup>8</sup>; another Cochrane review (one randomised clinical trial, 41 patients) suggests that non-invasive ventilation prolongs survival (perhaps by many months) and improves or maintains quality of life in those with better bulbar function.<sup>9</sup> GPs have an important role as care coordinators once the diagnosis is made. This includes identifying and treating symptoms, supervising treatment, facilitating frank discussions about end of life care and advanced decisions, and making referrals to palliative and other community services.<sup>1 2 10 11</sup>

DELAYS IN DIAGNOSIS FROM A PATIENT'S PERSPECTIVE

"I just need to know now, I'm really struggling to work but until I get a diagnosis I can't afford to just stop working. I know it sounds silly but now I've stopped crying and, as the prof said, we are one step away from knowing. I feel like I'm close to getting control back. Not that I want it to be MND [motor neurone disease] because it's almost like a death sentence, but not knowing is like a living hell that, for me, is worse."

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UNCERTAINTIES PAGE

What is the optimal pharmacological management of retained placenta?

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The third stage of labour is the period between childbirth and delivery of the placenta. It can be managed physiologically, with early cord clamping, cutting of the cord, and controlled cord traction, or it can be managed actively, with the addition of prophylactic oxytocics (oxytocin 10 IU intramuscularly). In the United Kingdom, the National Institute of Health and Care Excellence (NICE) defines the third stage of labour as prolonged if the placenta is retained after 30 minutes of active management or 60 minutes of physiological management.<sup>1</sup> Retained placenta affects 0.1-3.3% of births, depending on the population studied.<sup>2</sup>

The incidence of retained placenta is rising because an increasing number of women with risk factors, including advancing maternal age and previous caesarean section, are giving birth.<sup>3</sup> Retained placenta can result in severe maternal morbidity, including life threatening haemorrhage and sepsis.

Drugs, such as intraumbilical or intravenous oxytocin, are often used in the management of placental retention. Oxytocics cause myometrial contraction, which generates a shearing force that detaches the placenta from the uterine wall. However, after placental detachment, cervical

This is one of a series of occasional articles that highlight areas of practice where management lacks convincing supporting evidence. The series adviser is David Tovey, editor in chief, the *Cochrane Library*. To suggest a topic for this series, please email us at [uncertainties@bmj.com](mailto:uncertainties@bmj.com).

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Previous articles in this series

- ▶ Should we advise patients with sutures not to swim? (BMJ 2014;348:g3171)
- ▶ Whom should we “test and treat” for *Helicobacter pylori*? (BMJ 2014;348:g3320)
- ▶ Should doctors prescribe cannabinoids? (BMJ 2014;348:g2737)
- ▶ Is adrenaline safe and effective as a treatment for out of hospital cardiac arrest? (BMJ 2014;348:g2435)
- ▶ What is the most effective operation for adults with severe and complex obesity? (BMJ 2014;348:g1763)

constriction may trap the placenta within the uterus. Smooth muscle relaxants (such as glyceryl trinitrate) can release this entrapment and allow placental delivery. In practice, a variety of the drugs are used.

Despite active pharmacological management, if a retained placenta is not delivered, the placenta must be removed manually. This invasive surgical procedure physically removes the placenta from the uterine cavity and requires regional or general anaesthesia. The procedure can be complicated by haemorrhage, pain, infection, uterine inversion or perforation, and their sequelae. In the absence of bleeding, the timing of this intervention varies considerably. In Spain, obstetricians perform the procedure at 30 minutes, in the UK NICE recommends that it is carried out at 60 minutes, whereas in Dutch hospitals obstetricians wait 60 minutes or more.<sup>4</sup> The natural course of retained placenta suggests that placentas that remain in situ 60 minutes after delivery of the baby will remain undelivered if a further 30 minutes is allowed to elapse.<sup>2</sup>

**What is the evidence of the uncertainty?**

We searched Embase, Medline, the Cochrane Library, and the Current Clinical Trials databases from database inception to July 2014 to identify published and ongoing randomised controlled trials (RCTs) and systematic reviews on the effectiveness and safety of drugs for the management of retained placenta.

**Intraumbilical oxytocin**

Current NICE guidelines recommend the use of an oxytocin infusion, given through the placental umbilical vessels, to increase myometrial contraction when the placenta is undelivered at 30 minutes after childbirth.<sup>1</sup> This recommendation was based on a review that found a reduction in

**RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

**Participants:** Women diagnosed with retained placenta after active or physiological management of the third stage of labour

**Interventions and comparisons:** Intervention that promotes uterine contraction (such as intravenous oxytocin or intraumbilical prostaglandin), followed by a second line intervention that promotes uterine and cervical relaxation (such as oral or sublingual nitroglycerin) if needed. The comparator should be standard care based on current practice (intraumbilical oxytocin)

**Outcome:** Primary: delivery of the placenta within 60 minutes, avoiding the need for manual removal of the placenta. Secondary: postpartum haemorrhage, adverse events, and side effects

**Design:** Multi-centre randomised controlled trial with factorial design

the rate of manual removal compared with placebo (relative risk 0.82, 95% confidence interval 0.67 to 1.00; nine RCTs, 650 participants).<sup>1</sup> However, after this guideline was produced, a high quality RCT that compared intraumbilical oxytocin with placebo found no significant difference in rates of manual removal of the placenta (0.98, 0.87 to 1.12; 577 participants).<sup>5</sup> When the review was updated with these new data, no significant difference was seen in rates of manual removal (0.85, 0.72 to 1.00; 10 RCTs; 1227 participants) (table).<sup>6</sup> There were also no significance differences in postpartum haemorrhage, defined as estimated blood loss over 0.5 L (1.03, 0.73 to 1.47; five RCTs; 860 participants); infection (1.33, 0.93 to 1.91; three RCTs; 577 participants); or surgical evacuation of retained products of placenta (0.89, 0.55 to 1.42; two RCTs; 814 participants).<sup>6</sup> Unfortunately, intravenous infusion of oxytocin, although common practice, has not been evaluated in RCTs.

**Intraumbilical, intravenous, and oral prostaglandin**

Other drugs to increase myometrial contraction that act on uterine receptors, including prostaglandins, have not been as rigorously scrutinised (table). A small RCT found no reduction in the need for manual removal of the placenta when intraumbilical prostaglandin was compared with placebo (0.91, 0.62 to 1.33; 99 participants; table). The trial reported no significance difference in postpartum haemorrhage, defined as estimated blood loss over 1 L (0.80, 0.50 to 1.27) but did not report infection, surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta, or maternal mortality. A small RCT found no reduction in the need for manual removal of the placenta when intravenous prostaglandin was compared with placebo (1.20, 0.67 to 2.16; 95 participants; table). The trial reported no significance difference in postpartum haemorrhage, defined as estimated blood loss over 1 L (0.80, 0.44 to 1.46) but did not report infection, surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta, or maternal mortality. A meta-analysis of two small RCTs of oral misoprostol, a synthetic prostaglandin, found a reduction in the need to perform manual removal compared with placebo (0.61, 0.41 to 0.90; 84 participants).<sup>4</sup> However, other relevant outcomes including postpartum haemorrhage, infection, surgical evacuation of retained products of placenta, and maternal mortality were not reported.

Meta-analysis of the effectiveness and safety of interventions to treat retained placenta <sup>4,6,9</sup>				
Trials and outcomes	RCTs		RR (95% CI)	P value
	(N)	Participants		
<b>Intraumbilical oxytocin v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	10	1227	0.85 (0.72 to 1.00)	0.06
Postpartum haemorrhage (estimated blood loss >0.5 L)	5	860	1.03 (0.73 to 1.47)	0.86
Postpartum haemorrhage (estimated blood loss >1 L)	2	707	1.11 (0.71 to 1.74)	0.66
Infection	3	814	1.33 (0.93 to 1.91)	0.12
Surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta	2	761	0.89 (0.55 to 1.42)	0.62
Maternal mortality	5	782	2.93 (0.12 to 71.59)	0.51
<b>Intraumbilical prostaglandin v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	1	99	0.91 (0.62 to 1.33)	0.63
Postpartum haemorrhage (estimated blood loss >1 L)	1	99	0.80 (0.50 to 1.27)	0.34
<b>Intravenous prostaglandin v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	1	95	1.20 (0.67 to 2.16)	0.54
Postpartum haemorrhage (estimated blood loss >1 L)	1	95	0.80 (0.44 to 1.46)	0.46
<b>Oral prostaglandin v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	2	84	0.61 (0.41 to 0.90)	0.01
<b>Intravenous glyceryl trinitrate v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	1	40	1.06 (0.80 to 1.41)	0.68
Surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta	1	40	7.00 (0.38 to 127.32)	0.19
<b>Intravenous oxytocin then sublingual glyceryl trinitrate v placebo</b>				
Manual removal of the placenta	2	135	0.66 (0.51 to 0.86)	0.002
Postpartum haemorrhage (estimated blood loss >1 L)	1	111	1.88 (1.07 to 3.30)	0.03

CI=confidence interval; RCT=randomised controlled trial; RR=relative risk.

**Intravenous glyceryl trinitrate**

A small RCT found no reduction in the need for manual removal of the placenta when intravenous glyceryl trinitrate was compared with placebo (1.06, 0.80 to 1.41; 40 participants; table). The trial reported no significance difference in surgical evacuation of retained products of placenta (7.00, 0.38 to 127.32) but did not report postpartum haemorrhage, infection, surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta, or maternal mortality.

**Intravenous oxytocin combined with intravenous or sublingual glyceryl trinitrate**

Two small RCTs have evaluated a strategy of using intravenous oxytocin to induce uterine contraction, followed by intravenous or sublingual glyceryl trinitrate to induce uterine and cervical relaxation. Meta-analysis showed lower rates of manual removal of the placenta, although higher rates of postpartum haemorrhage were observed (table). The included RCTs did not report infection, surgical evacuation of retained products of the placenta, or maternal mortality.

**Is ongoing research likely to provide relevant evidence?**

There is genuine uncertainty regarding drug treatments for the management of retained placenta. The box outlines the most relevant research needed to answer these questions. RCTs evaluating the effectiveness of drug treatments are feasible, but no such trials have been registered with the World Health Organization (WHO) International Clinical Trials Registry.

**What should we do in the light of uncertainty?**

Despite the uncertainty about the optimal management of retained placenta, WHO recommends the use of intra-umbilical oxytocin infusion at diagnosis and manual removal of the placenta if retention persists.<sup>10</sup> If placenta accreta is thought to be the cause of retention, management should

be in accordance with existing guidelines, including consideration of intrauterine balloon tamponade, pelvic embolisation, and hysterectomy.<sup>11</sup> Because there is currently no robust evidence to recommend any individual drug treatment, clinicians should participate in suitable clinical studies to identify the optimum management.

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**ALL THINGS CONSIDERED**

**Seasickness: the bane of cruises**

“I should never have come on this cruise,” she groaned. “It was my husband who wanted us to go. I hate ships and loathe the sea, and now I feel sooo ... ill.” This is Stage 1, or mild seasickness—nausea accompanied by self pity and, most importantly, the conviction that it is all someone else’s fault.

In Stage 2, moderate seasickness, I am called out in the night to a darkened cabin where, as the ship gently rolls along, I can see the huddled shadow of a human form crumpled in the bed. “Get me off this

ship,” they moan between bouts of retching. “I don’t care what it costs—charter me a helicopter—whatever it takes.” Meanwhile, their partner stands in the corner of the cabin wringing their hands at the misery they have caused by booking this cruise, and the expense that they think is about to be incurred by a medical evacuation.

Stage 3 is the full monty. The patient is now quite still and has come to terms with their imminent demise. “Doc,” they whisper, as if we are acting out the finale

of a Jane Austen novel, “I just want this all to be over as quickly and painlessly as possible.” They may have only vomited half a dozen times, but the soul is broken and the spirit is ready to depart.

We know very little about what does and does not work for seasickness, except that ondansetron, so valuable in hospital, is ineffective.

On one of our rougher cruises I saw little of the passengers for the first days apart from a glimpse of gluteals in a darkened cabin as I raced from door



to door giving injections. On day three, as we sailed serenely through calm seas, I came to sit with four rather redoubtable women who had at last appeared for dinner. I introduced myself as the ship’s doctor. “Oh, but we know you,” they chorused together. “You came and gave us injections last night.”

Embarrassed by my lapse in memory, I spoke before I had time to think. “Yes,” I replied, “but I fear that I know you all better by your buttocks than your faces.”

There was a horrid moment of silence as the implication of my remark sank in and then, thank heavens, they all had the grace to laugh.

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