degeneration in the MRI studies. None of the patients had cardiac or pulmonary involvement. Muscle biopsies revealed nonspecific degenerative myopathic changes and some scattered necrotic fibers. Currently, there is no specific antibody against anoctamin available. The c.191dupA mutation in exon 5 is the most frequent mutation in the families studied so far. Many patients were homozygous for this mutation. In some patients, the mutation was heterozygous in combination with another variant on the other allele as in three of our patients.^{4–7} Moreover, it would appear that men are more affected than women, which is also reflected in the current literature.

In this report, we describe four additional patients with novel mutations in the *ANO5* gene. We conclude that in patients with adult onset and obviously autosomal recessive inherited muscular dystrophy with very high CK levels screening for *ANO5* mutations is worthwhile.

We thank the patients reported here for their participation and encouragement. J.S., W.K., and B.S. are supported by the German Research Association (DFG, FOR1228) and are members of the German network on muscular dystrophies (MD-NET). MD-NET is a partner of TREAT-NMD. The authors report no conflicts of interest.

REFERENCES

 Bushby K. Diagnosis and management of the limb girdle muscular dystrophies. Pract Neurol 2009;9:314–323.

- Guglieri M, Straub V, Bushby K, Lochmuller H. Limb-girdle muscular dystrophies. Curr Opin Neurol 2008;21:576–584.
- Liu J, Aoki M, Illa I, Wu C, Fardeau M, Angelini C, et al. Dysferlin, a novel skeletal muscle gene, is mutated in Miyoshi myopathy and limb girdle muscular dystrophy. Nat Genet 1998;20:31–36.
- Bolduc V, Marlow G, Boycott KM, Saleki K, Inoue H, Kroon J, et al. Recessive mutations in the putative calcium-activated chloride channel Anoctamin 5 cause proximal LGMD2L and distal MMD3 muscular dystrophies. Am J Hum Genet 2010;86:213–221.
- Deschauer M, Joshi PR, Glaser D, Hanisch F, Stoltenburg G, Zierz S. [Muscular dystrophy due to mutations in anoctamin 5: clinical and molecular genetic findings.]. Nervenarzt 2011;82:1596–1603.
- Hicks D, Sarkozy A, Muelas N, Koehler K, Huebner A, Hudson G, et al. A founder mutation in Anoctamin 5 is a major cause of limbgirdle muscular dystrophy. Brain 2011;134:171–182.
- Mahjneh I, Jaiswal J, Lamminen A, Somer M, Marlow G, Kiuru-Enari S, et al. A new distal myopathy with mutation in anoctamin 5. Neuromuscul Disord 2010;20:791–795.
- Hartzell HC, Yu K, Xiao Q, Chien LT, Qu Z. Anoctamin/TMEM16 family members are Ca2+-activated Cl- channels. J Physiol 2009;587: 2127–2139.
- Caputo A, Caci E, Ferrera L, Pedemonte N, Barsanti C, Sondo E, et al. TMEM16A, a membrane protein associated with calcium-dependent chloride channel activity. Science 2008;322:590–594.
- Duran C, Hartzell HC. Physiological roles and diseases of tmem16/ anoctamin proteins: are they all chloride channels? Acta Pharmacol Sin 2011;32:685–692.
- Galietta LJ. The TMEM16 protein family: a new class of chloride channels? Biophys J 2009;97:3047–3053.
- Schroeder BC, Cheng T, Jan YN, Jan LY. Expression cloning of TMEM16A as a calcium-activated chloride channel subunit. Cell 2008;134:1019–1029.
- Yang YD, Cho H, Koo JY, Tak MH, Cho Y, Shim WS, et al. TMEM16A confers receptor-activated calcium-dependent chloride conductance. Nature 2008;455:1210–1215.
- Tsutsumi S, Kamata N, Vokes TJ, Maruoka Y, Nakakuki K, Enomoto S, et al. The novel gene encoding a putative transmembrane protein is mutated in gnathodiaphyseal dysplasia (GDD). Am J Hum Genet 2004;74:1255–1261.

SAMPLE SIZE CONSIDERATIONS IN HUMAN MUSCLE ARCHITECTURE STUDIES

LORI J. TUTTLE, PT, PhD,¹ SAMUEL R. WARD, PT, PhD,² and RICHARD L. LIEBER, PhD³

¹Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, University of California San Diego, San Diego, California, USA

² Departments of Radiology, Orthopaedic Surgery and Bioengineering, University of California San Diego, San Diego, California, USA ³ Departments of Orthopaedic Surgery and Bioengineering, University of California San Diego and Research Service, VA San Diego

Healthcare System, San Diego, California, USA

Accepted 13 December 2011

ABSTRACT: Introduction: This report is a meta-analysis of the human muscle architecture literature that analyzes the number of muscles, number of subjects, and muscle fiber length coefficient of variation (CV) by body region. Methods: Muscle fiber length data are used to make recommendations for dissection-based architectural study sample sizes. Results: An average of 9 ± 10 (mean \pm SD) muscles and an average of 9 ± 5 subjects were reported in the 26 studies considered. Across all studies, average fiber length CV was highly variable ($18\% \pm 5\%$). This shows that sample sizes required to achieve adequate power varies by anatomical region. Conclusions: Studies involv-

Key words: architecture, fiber length variation, muscle, sample size, statistical power

Correspondence to: R.L. Lieber; e-mail: rlieber@ucsd.edu

© 2012 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

ing muscle architecture should consider regional variability and effect size and determine sample size accordingly. *Muscle Nerve* **45:** 742–745, 2012

Muscle architectural studies are used to describe and predict skeletal muscle structure and function. Human muscle architecture has been investigated using a variety of methods including ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), computed tomography (CT), histology, and dissection. While imaging methods have the advantage of being noninvasive and can be performed on living humans, dissection studies provide the gold-standard method of describing muscle architecture, because fiber length at a known sarcomere length can be quantified.¹ While large sample sizes are desirable in dissection studies, lack of access to cadavers, cost, and

Abbreviations: CT, computed tomography; CV, coefficient of variation; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging

Published online 6 January 2012 in Wiley Online Library (wileyonlinelibrary.com). DOI 10.1002/mus.23283

technically challenging methodology often limit the actual number of subjects reported per study. This can result in underpowered, inaccurate studies if variability is high between humans or between muscles of different anatomical areas. This can have significant clinical impact if these numbers are then used to create models that impact surgical decisions.

The purpose of this study was to identify all of the human muscle architecture studies in the literature, determine their sample sizes, quantify fiber length coefficient of variation (CV) and then recommend adequate sample size for such studies in human muscle.

METHODS

PubMed was used to define all human muscle architecture studies published from 1968 through July 2011. Once the studies were identified, they were separated by methodology into dissection studies, ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), biopsy/ histology, and studies using a combination of these methods. We focused on those studies that used dissection methods to define muscle architecture, because they contain accurate measurements of muscle fiber length and sarcomere length. We analyzed the number of different muscles measured per study within a subject and the number of samples per muscle (number of subjects used). We calculated the total number of samples (number of muscles multiplied by number of subjects) and calculated the within-muscle fiber length coefficient of variation (CV_m) for the *i*th region according to the equation:

$$CV_{i} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{m=1}^{n} CV_{m}$$

where the subscript i refers to the particular region (e.g., forearm or leg; numbered 1–11), and m refers to the particular muscle within a region containing n muscles. N varies from 5 to 42 in this analysis and represents the number of times fiber length has been reported in the literature in a particular region. For example, the thigh has an n of 42, because the quadriceps and hamstring muscles are often studied. The arm (excluding shoulder and forearm which are separate regions) has only been reported five times. The average CV for all muscles was simply calculated as:

$$\overline{CV} = \frac{1}{11} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{11} CV_i$$

We then used this information to determine sample sizes (number of subjects) for an independent samples *t*-test with $\alpha = 0.05$ and power $(1-\beta) = 0.80$ using the equation:²

$$n = \frac{16 \cdot (CV_i)^2}{(\ln(1-\delta))^2}$$

Short Reports

where $CV_i = i$ th region coefficient of variation and δ = percent expected treatment effect.

RESULTS

We examined the 163 human muscle architecture studies that used a variety of methods. Of these 163 studies, 26 used dissection methods, 63 used ultrasound, 4 used MRI, 18 used a combination of ultrasound and MRI, and 5 used biopsy/histology methods. An additional 47 studies were modeling studies, descriptive anatomical studies, or diffusion tensor imaging studies. Others reported fiber length data duplicated from a previous study or did not report mean and standard deviation, thus making it impossible to calculate coefficient of variation; these studies were not included in the analysis. We distilled the 163 studies down to 26 usable dissection studies.^{3–28}

The average number of muscles measured per dissection study was 9 ± 10 (mean \pm SD) with a range of 1-28 muscles measured per study (Fig. 1A). The average number of subjects per dissection study was 9 ± 5 with a range of 1–25 subjects per study (Fig. 1B). The average total number of samples (number of muscles × number of subjects per study) was highly variable, 71 ± 122 (range, 1-567). The average fiber length coefficient of variation (\overline{CV}) by region was $18 \pm 5\%$ (range of 12-27%; Fig. 1C). Using these data in a one-way analysis of variance, if a treatment was expected to change fiber length by 10%, in the muscles of the thigh (CV = 12.35%), a sample size of 22 subjects per group would be required for a power of 0.80 and $\alpha = 0.05$ to determine a difference. Of interest, given the same 10% treatment effect in the foot (CV = 26.54%), sample size increases to 102 subjects per group because foot fiber length CV is so much greater (this is primarily due to small average fiber lengths in the foot). If the size of the treatment effect is increased to 20%, the corresponding sample sizes decrease to 5 per group in the thigh and 23 per group in the foot (Fig. 1D). Regardless of the effect size, these data demonstrate anatomical variation in fiber length CV_i and point to the need for anatomical region-specific experimental design.

DISCUSSION

Here, we show that significant and systematic muscle fiber length variability exists by anatomical region, which leads to variable sample sizes required to perform adequately powered experiments. The CV is important to consider when designing studies that use muscle architecture parameters. We showed that sample sizes can vary from 5 to more than 100 depending upon the expected treatment effect and the region of the



FIGURE 1. A: Histogram representation of the number of different muscles throughout the body that were measured per study (**B**) Histogram representation of the samples studied per muscle. This typically corresponds to the number of cadaveric specimens (**C**) Mean coefficient of variation (CV; see text for details of calculation) grouped by body region; Error bars in this graph indicate SEM. (**D**) Plot of effect size and sample size by anatomical region estimating a 20% treatment effect.

body that is being studied. Indeed, no studies have ever reported sample sizes of greater than 100 subjects, which would be considered a major undertaking.

Currently, mathematical models are often implemented using data that come from studies with few samples or models that do not properly scale to account for variability between subjects or variability between body regions and muscles. The way in which any of the architectural parameters scale with body size is unknown.²⁹ Therefore, using these models to define surgical methods, rehabilitation strategies, or motor control strategies should be considered with caution.

There has been a marked increase in the number of fiber length studies published that use ultrasound, since the seminal paper by Ikai and Fukunaga.³⁰ However, it must be emphasized that none of these studies measure sarcomere length, and thus it is not clear whether long fiber lengths reported, for example, represent short fibers containing stretched sarcomeres or whether the fibers are actually long, composed of a high number of serial sarcomeres. We advocate that studies use gold-standard dissection methodology, when possible, with relatively large sample sizes (≥ 10) to define human muscle architecture. Furthermore, studies using other methods for measuring muscle architecture, such as imaging, should consider body region variability as well as any treatment effect and calculate the number of subjects needed accordingly. We use 10% and 20% treatment effect/effect size of fiber length as an example in this manuscript, but other variables of interest may have larger or smaller effect sizes. If the variable of interest in a study is a muscle architecture parameter other than fiber length, we encourage investigators to perform a similar analysis to that presented here using literature values to ensure that studies have adequate sample sizes and power.

This work was supported in part by NSMRC R24 HD650837 and by the Department of Veterans Affairs, Veterans Health Administration, Office of Research and Development, Senior Research Career Scientist Award.

REFERENCES

- Lieber RL, Friden J. Functional and clinical significance of skeletal muscle architecture.Muscle Nerve2000;23:1647–1666.
- van Belle G. Statistical rules of thumb. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons Inc; 2008. 33 p.
- Roh MS, Wang VM, April EW, Pollock RG, Bigliani LU, Flatow EL. Anterior and posterior musculotendinous anatomy of the supraspinatus. J Shoulder Elbow Surg 2000;9:436–440.
- Ward SR, Kim CW, Eng CM, et al. Architectural analysis and intraoperative measurements demonstrate the unique design of the multifidus muscle for lumbar spine stability. J Bone Joint Surg Am 2009; 91:176–185.
- Infantolino BW, Challis JH. Architectural properties of the first dorsal interosseous muscle. J Anat 2010;216:463–469.
- Lieber RL, Jacobson MD, Fazeli BM, Abrams RA, Botte MJ. Architecture of selected muscles of the arm and forearm: anatomy and implications for tendon transfer. J Hand Surg Am 1992;17:787–798.
- Lieber RL, Fazeli BM, Botte MJ. Architecture of selected wrist flexor and extensor muscles. J Hand Surg 1990;15:244–250.

- Van Eijden TM, Korfage JA, Brugman P. Architecture of the human jaw-closing and jaw-opening muscles. Anat Rec 1997;248:464–474.
 Delp SL, Suryanarayanan S, Murray WM, Uhlir J, Triolo RJ. Architec-
- Delp SL, Suryanarayanan S, Murray WM, Uhlir J, Triolo RJ. Architecture of the rectus abdominis, quadratus lumborum, and erector spinae. J Biomech 2001;34:371–375.
- Ward SR, Eng CM, Smallwood LH, Lieber RL. Are current measurements of lower extremity muscle architecture accurate? Clin Orthop Relat Res 2009;467:1074–1082.
- 11. Kikuchi Y. Comparative analysis of muscle architecture in primate arm and forearm. Anat Histol Embryol 2010;39:93–106.
- Anderson JS, Hsu AW, Vasavada AN. Morphology, architecture, and biomechanics of human cervical multifidus. Spine 2005;30:E86–E91.
- Wickiewicz TL, Roy RR, Powell PL, Edgerton VR. Muscle architecture of the human lower limb. Clin Orthop Relat Res 1983;179:275–283.
- Kellis E, Galanis N, Natsis K, Kapetanos G. Muscle architecture variations along the human semitendinosus and biceps femoris (long head) length. J Electromyogr Kinesiol 2010;20:1237–1243.
- Friederich JA, Brand RA. Muscle fiber architecture in the human lower limb. J Biomech 1990;23:91–95.
- Ward SR, Hentzen ER, Smallwood LH, et al. Rotator cuff muscle architecture: implications for glenohumeral stability. Clin Orthop Relat Res 2006;448:157–163.
- 17. Murray WM, Buchanan TS, Delp SL. The isometric functional capacity of muscles that cross the elbow. J Biomech 2000;33:943–952.
- Becker I, Baxter GD, Woodley SJ. The vastus lateralis muscle: an anatomical investigation. Clin Anat 2010;23:575–585.
- Langenderfer JE, Patthanacharoenphon C, Carpenter JE, Hughes RE. Variability in isometric force and moment generating capacity of glenohumeral external rotator muscles. Clin Biomech 2006;21:701–709.
- Lovering RM, Anderson LD. Architecture and fiber type of the pyramidalis muscle. Anat Sci Int 2008;83:294–297.

- Kura H, Luo ZP, Kitaoka HB, An KN. Quantitative analysis of the intrinsic muscles of the foot. Anat Rec 1997;249:143–151.
- Jacobson MD, Raab R, Fazeli BM, Abrams RA, Botte MJ, Lieber RL. Architectural design of the human intrinsic hand muscles. J Hand Surg Am 1992;17:804–809.
- Regev GJ, Kim CW, Tomiya A, et al. Psoas muscle architectural design, in vivo sarcomere length range, and passive tensile properties support its role as a lumbar spine stabilizer. Spine (Phila Pa 1976) 2011;36:E1666–E1674.
- 24. Janda S, van der Helm FCT, de Blok SB. Measuring morphological parameters of the pelvic floor for finite element modelling purposes. J Biomech 2003;36:749–757.
- Friden J, Lieber RL. Quantitative evaluation of the posterior deltoid to triceps tendontransfer based on muscle architectural properties. J Hand Surg Am 2001;26:147–155.
- Brown SH, Ward SR, Cook MS, Lieber RL. Architectural analysis of human abdominal wall muscles implications for mechanical function. Spine (Phila Pa 1976) 2011;36:355–362.
- Friden J, Lovering RM, Lieber RL. Fiber length variability within the flexor carpi ulnaris and flexor carpi radialis muscles: implications for surgical tendon transfer. J Hand Surg Am 2004;29:909–914.
- Abrams GD, Ward SR, Friden J, Lieber RL. Pronator teres is an appropriate donor muscle for restoration of wrist and thumb extension. J Hand Surg Am 2005;30:1068–1073.
- Eng CM, Smallwood LJ, Rainiero MP, Lahey M, Ward SR, Lieber RL. Scaling of muscle architecture and fiber types in the rat hindlimb. J Exp Biol 2008;211:2336–2345.
- Ikai M, Fukunaga T. Calculation of muscle strength per unit crosssectional area of human muscle by means of ultrasonic measurement. Int Z Angew Physiol 1968;26:26–32.