

The Bárány Society position on ‘Cervical Dizziness’

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Abstract. This paper describes the Bárány Society Classification OverSight Committee (COSC) position on Cervical Dizziness sometimes referred to as Cervical Vertigo. This involved an initial review by a group of experts across a broad range of fields, and then subsequent review by the Bárány Society COSC. Based upon the so far published literature, the Bárány Society COSC takes the view that the evidence supporting a mechanistic link between an illusory sensation of self-motion (spinning or otherwise) and neck pathology and/or symptoms of neck pain - either by affecting the cervical vertebra, soft tissue structures or cervical nerve roots - is lacking. When a combined head and neck movement triggers an illusory sensation of spinning, there is either an underlying common vestibular condition such as migraine or BPPV or less commonly a central vestibular condition including, when acute in onset, dangerous conditions such as a dissection of the vertebral artery with posterior circulation stroke and, exceedingly rarely, a vertebral artery compression syndrome. The Committee notes however, that migraine, including vestibular migraine, is by far, the commonest cause for the combination of neck pain and vestibular symptoms. The committee notes that since head movement aggravates symptoms in almost any vestibular condition, the common finding of increased neck muscle tension in vestibular patients, may be linked as both cause and effect, to reduced head movements. Additionally, there are theoretical mechanisms, which have never been explored, whereby cervical pain may promote vaso-vagal, cardio-inhibitory reflexes and hence by presyncopal mechanisms, elicit transient disorientation

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and/or imbalance. The committee accepts that further research is required to answer the question as to whether those rare cases in which neck muscle spasm is associated with a vague sense of spatial disorientation and/or imbalance, is indeed linked to impaired neck proprioception. Future studies should ideally be placebo controlled and double-blinded where possible, with strict inclusion and exclusion criteria that aim for high specificity at the cost of sensitivity. To facilitate further studies in "cervical dizziness/vertigo", we provide a narrative view of the important confounds investigators should consider when designing controlled mechanistic and therapeutic studies. Hence, currently, the Bárány COSC, refrains from proposing any preliminary diagnostic criteria for clinical use outside a research study. This position may change as new research evidence is provided.

Keywords: Cervical, cervicogenic, neck, dizziness, vertigo, vestibular

1. Introduction

The relationship between imbalance and dizziness (or overt vertigo - see 3rd paragraph below) with neck problems has long been debated, but the first modern hypothesis was elaborated by Barré and Lieou of a cervical spondylotic irritation of the sympathetic plexus affecting blood flow in the brainstem [1] and then by Ryan and Cope [2] of a spondylosis-related modulation of cervical afferent signals synapsing in the vestibular nuclear complex. A key concept common to these explanations was that of a neck problem causing dizziness and imbalance.

Note that this paper considers *vascular vertigo* - i.e., the exceedingly rare syndrome of spondylotic occlusion of the vertebral arteries during head turns [3] - a separate entity and this is not considered here. Whiplash is also beyond the scope of this document primarily because acceleration of the neck is always accompanied by acceleration to the head (and brain) thus definitive statements on the neck contribution to symptoms and signs are difficult, particularly since emerging data show that vestibular *system* dysfunction (from the labyrinth to the cerebral cortex) is extremely common in traumatic brain injury (TBI) [4], but also that at least acutely, traumatic brain injury disrupts patient's perception of vertigo [5] explaining the poor correspondence between symptoms and signs in acute TBI [6]. Hence studies that included patients with whiplash, ziness including associative terms, e.g., cervical dizziness or cervical vertigo; or terms with aetiological implications, e.g., cervicogenic dizziness or cervicogenic vertigo. Regarding neck-related dizziness, the following are consistent features described in the literature [7-11]:

1. Neck stiffness and pain are aggravated during neck movements.
2. Neck movements* trigger transient imbalance and/or light-headedness and/or illusory self-

motion (* studies do not distinguish combined head-neck movement from isolated neck movement).

3. Neck-directed therapy improves neck pain, neck stiffness and dizziness.

This means that the cervical dizziness (see paragraph below on the use of the terms of dizziness and vertigo) can be excluded if:

1. There is no neck pain or discomfort.
2. The dizziness ever occurs spontaneously (i.e., can occur without head or neck movement), or if the dizziness is exclusively positional (i.e., when the head orientation with respect to gravity changes).

Regarding terminology, we propose to use the term **Cervical Dizziness** for several reasons. First, the Bárány Society uses the term 'vertigo'[12] to indicate illusory self-motion of any cause. Illusory self-motion (i.e., 'vertigo') is however not ubiquitous (nor common) in this syndrome as described in the literature. Patients instead always complain of at least one (or more) of imbalance, light-headedness, and disorientation [13] or presyncope [7], i.e., 'dizziness'. While we do include reports of illusory self-motion ('vertigo') in this position paper, their relative frequency compared to the more common reports of dizziness means that it is *more appropriate* to use the word **Dizziness**. Put another way, there is always 'dizziness', and in some cases, there is in addition 'vertigo', hence using the term 'Cervical Vertigo' only satisfies a minority of the literature and using the cumbersome term 'Cervical Dizziness/Vertigo', although descriptively correct for some cases, manifests redundancy in terms of identifying the patients. Thus, it should be understood that the specific term 'Cervical Dizziness' will include the minority of cases with vertigo, even if not indicated in the name, for the reasons above (note that this use still satisfies

113 the Bárány Society distinction between *vertigo* and
 114 *dizziness* as we have defined our use of the terms as
 115 above). Secondly, as the aetiology is unclear, or at
 116 least the data to support underlying mechanisms in
 117 humans are inconclusive, and there is no diagnos-
 118 tic test, the term *Cervicogenic* implies a mechanistic
 119 knowledge that is currently lacking. Hence, we pro-
 120 pose to use the term **Cervical**.

121 2. Methods

122 The work presented here is part of an ongoing
 123 project to develop an International Classification of
 124 Vestibular Disorders (ICVD). The ICVD uses a struc-
 125 tured process to develop consensus diagnostic criteria
 126 for vestibular symptoms and disorders. The process
 127 of establishing criteria is overseen by the Classifi-
 128 cation Committee of the Bárány Society. For each
 129 diagnostic category, an international team of con-
 130 tent experts from multiple disciplines is established
 131 to propose initial criteria based on the best available
 132 scientific evidence. For cervical dizziness, a literature
 133 review was performed, and an initial document pro-
 134 duced that was commented upon by the subcommittee
 135 members in March 2017. Comments were gathered
 136 and combined into an initial position paper which
 137 was presented in Berlin to the Classification Commit-
 138 tee in November 2019. The position presented here is
 139 supported by a process of discussion and refinement
 140 as established by the classification committee for the
 141 ICVD. The sections presented below have been care-
 142 fully considered to account for broad applicability
 143 to the international community of otolaryngologists,
 144 physical therapists, neurophysiologists, audiologists,
 145 neurologists, neurosurgeons, cardiologists, and gen-
 146 eral physicians, who may be seeing patients with this
 147 syndrome.

148 3. Epidemiology

149 There are no high-quality epidemiological data for
 150 cervical dizziness for the simple reason that (a) there
 151 is no accepted consensus diagnosis; (b) there is no
 152 agreed diagnostic test; (c) and patients present in
 153 different ways to different specialists. The Global
 154 Burden of Disease study [14] showed that neck
 155 pain was the fourth commonest condition worldwide
 156 (with a global point prevalence of 5%). One study
 157 assessing a population sample of 797 people found
 158 a one-year prevalence of neck pain of 68.4% [15].

159 Conversely, dizziness (including disequilibrium) and
 160 vertigo, affects 11–20% of the population every year
 161 [16, 17]. It follows that a significant proportion of the
 162 population will have dizziness and neck pain purely
 163 coincidentally.

164 Proponents of cervical dizziness will point to time-
 165 locked triggering of neck pain and dizziness on
 166 head movements, however, head movement aggra-
 167 vates almost all vestibular conditions, providing a
 168 means by which vestibular patients with co-existent
 169 neck pain may appear to have a cervical-mediated
 170 dizziness – especially if there is not an exhaustive
 171 attempt to exclude concurrent vestibular disorders.
 172 Indeed, Ryan and Cope [2] who first proposed the
 173 somatosensory hypothesis of cervical vertigo in 1955,
 174 are likely to have based their observations primarily
 175 upon cases with benign paroxysmal positional ver-
 176 tigo (BPPV) who had coincident neck pain (although
 177 BPPV was previously described by Robert Bárány in
 178 1908, it had only come to the fore in 1952 following
 179 Dix and Hallpike’s publication [18]). Furthermore,
 180 neck pain is a recognised feature of vestibular distur-
 181 bances of almost any cause, as patients’ avoidance of
 182 natural head movements (that worsen their vertigo)
 183 can lead to neck stiffness and pain [19]. Migraine
 184 requires a special mention, being a common cause
 185 of dizziness (particularly imbalance [20]) and ver-
 186 tigo, it is also independently associated with neck
 187 pain with a 76% one-year prevalence of neck pain
 188 in migraineurs [15]. It follows that there are several
 189 reasons why dizziness and neck pain can be linked
 190 even if there is not a cervical genesis to the problem.

191 4. Pathophysiology

192 Here, we review the proposed pathophysiology of
 193 cervical dizziness to provide a rational approach to
 194 the investigation and management of this syndrome.

195 4.1. The Somatosensory input hypothesis

196 It is generally accepted that the vestibular sys-
 197 tem is part of a multimodal sensorimotor system
 198 in which signals generated by the labyrinth interact
 199 with other sensory inputs, implying that vestibular
 200 inputs and hence symptoms may also originate from
 201 a variety of non-labyrinthine end-organs or systems
 202 (e.g., limb and proprioception – discussed below).
 203 Despite this, that a structure is shown to be intimately
 204 bound to vestibular signaling, does not automatically
 205 predict what kind of symptoms may originate from

206 disturbance to this structure. For example, extra-
207 ocular eye muscles are densely innervated by muscle
208 spindles with projections to the vestibular nuclei [21],
209 yet vestibular syndromes do not generally occur with
210 eye muscle disease nor with interventions such as
211 strabismus surgery or Botox injections.

212 Neck proprioceptive signals are an integral com-
213 ponent of the vestibular system, with animal data
214 showing that cervical afferents provide input to sec-
215 ondary vestibular neurones in the vestibular nuclear
216 complex [22–27]. Ryan and Cope [2] proposed that
217 this physiological link could manifest as dizziness
218 such that abnormal neck joint proprioception could
219 modulate vestibular neuronal activity and hence lead
220 to dizziness and imbalance. Brown [28] considered
221 that abnormal neck muscle proprioception, including
222 from muscle disease or reduced movement relating
223 to pain [10], could contribute to cervical dizziness,
224 including via a mismatch between signals of expected
225 (efference copy) and actual (including vestibular and
226 proprioceptive inputs) head movements. Indeed, dur-
227 ing active head movements in primates, suppression
228 of vestibular afferent input is found in vestibular
229 nuclei neurones that generate vestibulo-spinal
230 reflexes [29, 30], as well as in the ascending posterior
231 thalamocortical vestibular pathway [31]. Notably,
232 this suppression of vestibular afferent input only
233 occurs when there is congruence between expected
234 and real neck proprioceptive feedback and is medi-
235 ated by cerebellum-dependent mechanisms [32].

236 In conditions where vestibular afferent input
237 becomes less reliable in primates (e.g., with periph-
238 eral vestibular lesioning), neck inputs including neck
239 proprioceptive and neck motor efference copy sig-
240 nals, partially substitute for the labyrinthine-derived
241 signals at the level of single neurones in both reflex
242 and ascending vestibular pathways [31, 33–36]. Thus
243 overall, the substitution by neck proprioceptive and
244 motor efference signals inputs in vestibular path-
245 ways, and/or a mismatch between intended and real
246 head-on-neck movements, may provide the basis by
247 which distorted brainstem vestibular signaling could
248 be transmitted via vestibular thalamic relay pathways
249 to cortical regions. It should be noted that vestibular
250 cortical processing - shown to be anatomically diffuse
251 across the cerebral cortex in animals [37] and humans
252 [38, 39] - is employed for both perceptual and non-
253 perceptual mechanisms, such as postural control [5].
254 Thus, locating a vestibular signal at cortical level does
255 not automatically indicate its relevance for perception
256 and hence symptom generation. Although abnormal
257 brainstem plasticity may contribute to chronic

258 vestibular symptoms, in humans, higher order pro-
259 cesses - including perceptual and non-perceptual
260 mechanisms - likely dominate bottom-up processes
261 [38, 40, 41] in the success or failure of symptomatic
262 recovery from peripheral vestibular dysfunction [42,
263 43].

264 One cross-species study involved the injection
265 of local anaesthetic in or around the upper cervi-
266 cal muscles which led to a gait ataxia in lower
267 mammals, primates and one healthy human subject
268 [44]. Nystagmus was evoked in animals but not in
269 the healthy human who did, however, report a sen-
270 sation of tilting, disequilibrium and disorientation,
271 and position-induced tilting sensation (over several
272 hours), but there was no frank illusory sensation of
273 spinning. Importantly, there was no report of pain by
274 the human subject. Indeed, the use of local anaesthe-
275 sia in this study undermines its suitability as a model
276 for cervical dizziness. Importantly, the more modern
277 approach using Botox (Botulinum Toxin A) to neck
278 muscles for dystonia, affecting muscle spindles via
279 gamma motor neurones, does not induce vertigo [45].

280 Cervical inputs can generate a weak cervico-ocular
281 reflex (COR) nystagmus in humans during trunk rota-
282 tions in the dark, with the head fixed in space. One
283 study noted equivalent COR responses in 40 healthy
284 subjects versus 30 patients with problems of the
285 upper cervical spine [46]. The COR, which is more
286 prominent in patients with peripheral vestibular dys-
287 function [47], can be enhanced in such patients with
288 neck muscle vibration [48] or following vestibular
289 rehabilitation exercises [49], indicating the COR's
290 plasticity. An enhanced COR in patients with pre-
291 served vestibular function is also found in cerebellar
292 disorders - however, trunk-on-head or head-on-trunk
293 rotation failed to induce dizziness or vertigo [50],
294 indicating that a prominent COR may not be accom-
295 panied by symptomatic complaint.

296 One study [51] investigating a cervical propri-
297 oceptive hypothesis for cervical dizziness found
298 that following an uncomfortable EMG-guided saline
299 injection into paraspinal muscles at C2/3 in healthy
300 subjects, there was a degraded accuracy (compared
301 to baseline) in subjects' positioning their head at
302 30° eccentrically. The subjects' accuracy in head
303 positioning in the neutral position was however
304 unaffected post-injection. Although the finding of
305 impaired positioning in the head-eccentric condition
306 is supportive of a proprioceptive model for cervical
307 dizziness, there were several limitations of this study
308 [51] including: (a) a baseline asymmetry in head-in-
309 space positioning; (b) the lack of report upon whether

310 the degree of head-positioning accuracy correlated
 311 with extent of pain; (c) the persistence of the per-
 312 formance deficit even after the pain had subsided
 313 (weakening the link between pain and impaired head-
 314 on-neck positioning performance); (d) only 4 of 11
 315 subjects reported dizziness and imbalance, indicat-
 316 ing that head-on-neck positioning impairment was
 317 not consistently linked to symptoms (pain) and signs
 318 (imbalance), features that are typically associated
 319 with putative cervical dizziness.

320 Despite supportive animal physiology discussed
 321 above and experimental human data [44, 51], there are
 322 also important confounds that need to be controlled
 323 when experimentally assessing the Somatosensory
 324 Hypothesis in humans. For example, laboratory
 325 experiments have demonstrated arthrokinetic nys-
 326 tagmus accompanied by vertigo [52], yet there
 327 is no indication that patients with chronic upper
 328 limb pain may complain of dizziness (just as there
 329 are many patients with severe neck pain without
 330 dizziness). Indeed, the "Somatosensory Hypothesis"
 331 should predict that most patients with severe cervical
 332 radiculopathy should have dizziness and the degree
 333 of dizziness should correlate with the extent of the
 334 measured neck proprioceptive deficit. On the other
 335 hand, as most cervical radicular disease is chronic in
 336 nature, related proprioceptive deficits might not cause
 337 dizziness due the adaptive plasticity of vestibular cir-
 338 cuits. These questions remain unanswered however,
 339 as there are no prospective, blinded, and controlled
 340 studies that have assessed the mechanisms and inci-
 341 dence of dizziness in patients with severe cervical
 342 radiculopathy and their progress, following surgical
 343 intervention.

344 An additional complication in humans is the pow-
 345 erful influence of top-down effects that can induce not
 346 only illusory sensations of vertigo but also induce a
 347 nystagmus in the absence of any peripheral vestibular
 348 activation or any actual movement of the head
 349 or body by mere 'suggestion' [41]. Indeed, the cou-
 350 pling between vestibular sensation and vestibular
 351 reflex responses in humans is not straightforward
 352 and maybe affected by central adaptive processes
 353 in healthy subjects [38] or by brain disease [5].
 354 For example, in healthy subjects, although meas-
 355 ures of vestibular-perceptual and VOR thresholds
 356 to self-motion overlap in magnitude [53], perceptual
 357 thresholds are generally greater than VOR thresh-
 358 olds, but this perceptuo-reflex disparity is hugely
 359 amplified in patients with a brain dysfunction who
 360 manifest 'vestibular agnosia' [5, 54] (in vestibular
 361 agnosia, significant peripheral vestibular activation

362 may not be accompanied by a vertigo sensation).
 363 Some healthy subjects who are adapted to vestibular
 364 stimulation from training (e.g., pilots and ballet
 365 dancers [38, 55]) may also show a reduced percep-
 366 tual sensitivity to vestibular activation. Conversely,
 367 patients with functional dizziness ('PPPD' - persis-
 368 tent postural-perceptual dizziness [56]) may have a
 369 heightened sensitivity to vestibular sensations includ-
 370 ing that emanating from expectation [57, 58]. The
 371 powerful influence of cognition on outcome measures
 372 may explain the equivalent impact upon neck position
 373 proprioceptive performance (obtained by a blinded
 374 assessor) in 45 patients with neck pain [59], following
 375 one of three different interventions, comprising two
 376 different mental training interventions or neck vibra-
 377 tion. All three interventions improved neck position
 378 proprioceptive performance, although only vibration
 379 reduced neck pain [59]. It follows that in humans,
 380 sensations of illusory self-motion, imbalance, spa-
 381 tial disorientation and even neck proprioception, are
 382 influenced by powerful top-down cognitive mech-
 383 anisms. This thus mandates that all interventional
 384 studies in cervical dizziness, must be double-blinded
 385 and for treatment studies, controlled with placebo or
 386 some other intervention. Furthermore, the confounds
 387 of the effects of central adaptation in healthy subjects
 388 [38, 55] and the impact of brain disease in patients
 389 [4–6, 60] (e.g., TBI) on perceptuo-reflex uncoupling
 390 underline the importance of patient selection in stud-
 391 ies of cervical dizziness.

4.2. Triggered migraine hypothesis

392
 393 The consensus definition of vestibular migraine
 394 [61] includes a '*head motion-induced vertigo, occur-*
 395 *ring during head motion*', which if combined with
 396 neck pain and stiffness would produce a clinical
 397 picture of cervical dizziness. Since neck pain is a
 398 core feature of cervical dizziness then pain inputs to
 399 trigeminal circuits will be ubiquitous in these patients
 400 and trigeminal nociceptive activation is implicated in
 401 migraine mechanisms. This could provide an indirect
 402 means for neck-pain mediated dizziness via a trig-
 403 gered vestibular migraine. Conversely, migraine can
 404 cause a secondary neck stiffness [15] again producing
 405 a clinical picture of cervical dizziness. Additionally,
 406 during acute vestibular migraine, 95% of patients dis-
 407 play a gait ataxia, in addition to dizziness [62]. Thus,
 408 migraine is an important confound for the diagno-
 409 sis of cervical dizziness. Indeed, as Goadsby argued
 410 [63], neck pain may trigger migraine and hence pro-
 411 vide a mechanism by which migraine symptoms can

412 result from a neck problem. Moreover, the pres- 462
 413 ence of neck discomfort in the premonitory phase 463
 414 of migraine, where the headache has not yet started 464
 415 [64, 65], complicates the interpretation of vertigo 465
 416 in that setting. Additionally, it is not sufficient to 466
 417 exclude patients with only vestibular migraine but 467
 418 since it is likely that "... migraine subtypes represent 468
 419 a spectrum..." [66], it would be prudent to exclude 469
 420 all migraineurs from studies of cervical dizziness. 470
 421 Although a minority of interventional trials of cervi- 471
 422 cal dizziness have migraine in their exclusion criteria 472
 423 [8], it is not clear whether in these studies, a thor- 473
 424 ough neurological history was obtained to exclude 474
 425 less severe migraine phenotypes. 475

426 It follows that any pain input mediated by 476
 427 trigeminal circuits could potentially provoke dizzi- 477
 428 ness via a triggered migraine. Consistent with this, 478
 429 supra-orbital pain (i.e., non-neck pain) induced 479
 430 experimentally by cutaneous electrical stimulation, 480
 431 triggered a vestibular nystagmus in 8 out of 10 481
 432 migraineurs but not in any non-migraineur controls 482
 433 [67]. Importantly, median nerve origin pain did not 483
 434 trigger nystagmus in any of the subjects (symp- 484
 435 toms of dizziness and disequilibrium were however 485
 436 not recorded). Proponents of a neck mediated cer- 486
 437 vical dizziness may point to the lack of patients 487
 438 with e.g., supraorbital pain complaining of dizzi- 488
 439 ness. However, it is relatively easy to avoid touching 489
 440 a painful point on the scalp whereas it is diffi- 490
 441 cult to completely suppress the habit of making a 491
 442 head turn that may trigger neck pain (and dizziness). 492
 443 That such a scenario (e.g., supra-orbital tenderness- 493
 444 related-dizziness) could evade empirical observation 494
 445 is not so difficult to imagine given the effect of cog- 495
 446 nitive biases in patients and clinicians in supressing 496
 447 the recognition of diagnoses not previously entertained. 497

448 4.3. Trigeminal Hypothesis not invoking 498 449 migraine 500

450 Since neck pain is a ubiquitous feature in cer- 501
 451 vical dizziness then trigeminal involvement must 502
 452 be obligatory. Although trigeminal stimulation is 503
 453 intimately involved in migraine mechanisms, theoret- 504
 454 ically, trigeminal mechanisms may independently of 505
 455 migraine – at least in non-migraineurs – be involved 506
 456 in cervical dizziness. It is instructive to note that 507
 457 the neurophysiological rationale used for explain- 508
 458 ing the origin of cervical headache has significant 509
 459 overlap with that used in explaining the origin of 510
 460 cervical dizziness, particularly that concerning the 511
 461 somatosensory hypothesis [63, 68]. Cervicogenic 512
 513

462 headache is considered to be referred pain (localised 463
 464 to the cranium) emanating from the cervical spine. 464
 465 Nociceptive afferents from the ophthalmic trigem- 465
 466 inal division and from spinal nerves C1, C2 and 466
 467 C3, converge onto second-order neurones in the 467
 468 trigeminocervical nucleus [69–71]. This convergence 468
 469 enables C1-3 origin pain to be referred over much of 469
 470 the cranium. 470

471 There are no prospective controlled studies assess- 471
 472 ing the incidence of dizziness in patients with high 472
 473 cervical lesions (nerve root or otherwise) present- 473
 474 ing primarily with pain, and whether treatment 474
 475 (surgical or medical) for their cervical-related pain 475
 476 alleviated their dizziness. In one small study of 476
 477 17 patients assessed for vertigo post-surgery for 477
 478 cervical discectomy or spondylosis, there were no 478
 479 reported vestibular symptoms [72]. Baron [73] per- 479
 480 formed a retrospective case note review of 147 480
 481 patients attending a tertiary "otoneurology/headache 481
 482 clinic" undergoing greater-occipital nerve injection 482
 483 and/or nearby trigger-point injection, based upon 483
 484 palpation-induced symptoms. The authors' premise 484
 485 was that greater-occipital nerve injection-related 485
 486 improvements were primarily treating cervicogenic 486
 487 symptoms. The patients' chief complaint was dizzi- 487
 488 ness in 93% with headache being the chief complaint 488
 489 in 3%. Dizziness of any severity affected 97% 489
 490 and headache of any severity affected 88% of 490
 491 patients. The authors reported that half of the patients 491
 492 reported improved dizziness with greater-occipital 492
 493 nerve injection, an improvement that was a little 493
 494 less marked than that for improved range of neck 494
 495 movement (70%) and headache (60%). Major lim- 495
 496 itations of this study include the lack of a control or 496
 497 placebo comparison, the unblinded nature of assess- 497
 498 ments and the non-standardised approach to injection 498
 499 points. Perhaps the most important limitation, as 499
 500 the authors admit, is that the retrospective nature 500
 501 of the study meant they were unable to rigorously 501
 502 classify headaches into strict criteria, including that 502
 503 for migraine. Given the range of headache disorders 503
 504 for which greater occipital nerve injection has been 504
 505 reported to be useful [74–76], this is a considerable 505
 506 limitation. 506

507 If we consider a trigeminal involvement in dizzi- 507
 508 ness, then there are two possible mechanisms by 508
 509 which Trigeminal reflexes can produce dizziness with 509
 510 neck movement. 510

511 a. Trigemino-Vestibular reflexes: There are exten- 511
 512 sive inputs (and reciprocal outputs) to the vestibular 512
 513 nuclei from trigeminal afferents [22, 77]. The data 513
 514 supporting prominent trigemino-vestibular reflexes 514

in humans is however limited. The Marano study [67] showing that supra-orbital (i.e., trigeminal) pain triggered vestibular mechanisms could support such mechanisms in humans however the effect was seen only in migraineurs (in whom mechanisms other than direct trigemino-vestibular reflexes could be implicated).

b. Trigemino-Cardiac reflexes: There is an extensive literature of the influence of trigeminal activation elicited by cranial stimulation as a potent drive to increasing vagal tone, including triggering asystole [78, 79]. Whether neck pain, aggravated by a rapid head turn could similarly affect cardiac output transiently in cases of cervical dizziness is not known since this would require continuous cardiac monitoring during head movement related neck pain and dizziness episodes, and such experiments have, to our knowledge, never been conducted. One study, however, did find that patients with neck pain and dizziness were significantly more likely to have postural hypotension compared to a control group of patients [80]. Importantly, drugs that potentiate the trigemino-cardiac reflex include opiates which are commonly prescribed in patients with chronic neck pain (other potentiators include beta-blockers and calcium channel antagonists which are also used in migraine). Compounding their potential to potentiate trigemino-cardiac responses, opiates may also compromise vestibulo-cerebellar functioning, adding to the sensed and/or real imbalance [81]. It follows that trigemino-cardiac reflexes are an important potential confound that should be considered when investigating cervical dizziness in future definitive studies.

4.4. Neurovascular hypotheses of Barré and Lieou

In 1926, Barré and Lieou hypothesised that mechanical compression by cervical spine spondylosis of the sympathetic plexus that surrounds the vertebral arteries could trigger vertigo via vertebral constriction [1]. Subsequent laboratory experiments in animals could not find evidence for this hypothesis [82, 83] and is generally considered a discredited hypothesis [84].

4.5. Carotid sinus syndrome and associated syncope-mediated hypotheses

Another hypothesis that has been mentioned but not consistently assessed is that of the carotid sinus syndrome. The carotid sinus, found in the internal

carotid artery and just superior to the bifurcation of the common carotid artery, is the main baroreceptor in the cardiovascular system. Carotid sinus syndrome is due to excessive sensitivity of the carotid sinus body whose palpation (or massage) leads to a vagally-mediated cardio-inhibitory response leading to a bradycardia and hypotension. As specialists tend to be less well acquainted with areas of medicine that they do not work within, it is possible that some of the cases diagnosed as having cervical dizziness have in fact a carotid sinus syndrome with coincident neck pain. Certainly, in such a patient, a rapid head turn could trigger both neck pain and transient bradycardia and hypotension that could cause light headedness and presyncopal symptoms. Anecdotally, cardiologists expert in syncope do not recognise seeing patients with carotid sinus syndrome with neck pain, although this could arise from referral bias or because cardiologists do not ask, or ponder, about neck pain. As previously mentioned, Morinaka [80] found (in a retrospective study of 176 patients) that patients with musculoskeletal neck pain were more likely to have orthostatic hypotension than those without neck pain, although age was a potential confound as patients with neck pain were older than those without neck pain. Physiological studies in healthy humans [85] have not shown significant modulation of cardiovascular reflexes by neck afferents, although there is evidence in animals that neck afferents modulate cardiovascular reflexes to a modest extent, hence it is theoretically possible that such modulation could exist in some rare cases. In summary, although theoretically possible, the notion that neck pain can induce cardio-inhibitory responses requires controlled studies.

5. Clinical interventional studies

There have been many interventional series involving neck surgery [72, 86, 87] neck manipulation [88], assessing the impact upon dizziness and imbalance but almost all were of poor quality from a trials' criteria. A systematic review of therapeutic interventions for cervical dizziness [88] found only four studies of sufficient quality to be included [8, 89–91]. None of the studies mentioned blinding of the clinicians providing the intervention. Indeed, other studies are generally poorly controlled often without blinding, placebo intervention or randomisation. Many studies do not overtly exclude migraineurs or explicitly

state their omission including the four studies that were identified by systematic review [92]. Excluding (or controlling for) migraine as a confound in future interventional studies is important for reasons discussed previously. For example, headache rates of over 70% were reported in two interventional studies [7, 91], and the provoking factors worsening both headache/neckache and dizziness were typical migraine triggers such as stress and hormonal flux. Finally, no study [7–9, 72, 87, 89, 91, 93–101] considered cardiac and/or vaso-vagal mediated mechanisms although Malmström [91] reported presyncope in one of their healthy subjects during an experimental model of cervical dizziness.

The two randomised, blinded and controlled interventional studies in cervical dizziness were published by the same group [8, 9, 89, 98], which is problematic from a replication standpoint. In an initial small study [89], 34 patients were randomised to either a neck manipulation intervention or placebo (neck laser). Although 'migraine associated vertigo' was excluded, patients with headache – of whom there is no detail – were included in the study and therapists were not blinded to the intervention. This study [89] found reduced dizziness and pain measured by a 10-point visual analogue scale at 6 and 12 weeks but using the Dizziness Handicap Inventory (DHI), intervention and placebo differed only at 6 weeks. Notably however, there was no concomitant improvement in balance performance at any time compared to the placebo group.

In a larger treatment study of 86 patients, dizziness and pain were reported at 6 weeks [8] and at one year [98] following active treatment and placebo. The interventions used were (i) Mulligan's sustained natural apophyseal glides [102] ('SNAG', 29 patients); and (ii) Maitland's passive joint mobilisations [103] (29 patients). In the placebo group (28 patients), a deactivated laser was applied to the neck. In this study, the groups' baseline characteristics were well matched except the placebo group had greater baseline neck pain ($P=0.06$) and relatively fewer women (placebo: 36% vs. intervention groups: 52% and 62%). In the report of early outcomes [8], the intervention groups showed improvements in the primary outcome of dizziness intensity both immediately and at 12 weeks whereas no effect on dizziness intensity was noted in the placebo group. In contrast, at 12 months [98], all groups showed a significant improvement in dizziness intensity and critically, there was no difference between any of the groups' dizziness intensity at 12 months, indicating that the active

interventions were no better than the deactivated laser (placebo) for the primary outcome of dizziness intensity at one year. The secondary outcome of pain was noted to be reduced across all groups immediately and at 12 weeks. As for the primary outcome of dizziness, there was no difference between groups in pain intensity at 12 months. Finally, the immediate benefit of the intervention on dizziness was not associated with head repositioning accuracy or improved balance performance [9], weakening the "Somatosensory Hypothesis", i.e., that cervical dizziness is related to a mismatch between impaired proprioceptive and vestibular input during head upon neck movement.

In summary, the only well powered, blinded, and controlled study [8, 98], showed early symptomatic benefit but failed to find any effect in the primary outcome of dizziness intensity at 12 months. Additionally, the secondary outcomes of early benefit of pain and dizziness was not associated with improved head repositioning or balance performance [9], weakening support for the "Somatosensory Hypothesis" of cervical dizziness. All future interventional studies, to be considered as evidence, must be double blinded and placebo controlled since, as described previously, top-down effects in humans (including expectation) can provoke dizziness and nystagmus in human subjects even in the absence of any peripheral vestibular activation [41]. It follows that simply showing an effect on subjective features of dizziness by an intervention, on its own, cannot provide evidence for the existence of Cervical Dizziness and hence, using a therapeutic response cannot be part of any proposed definition to be used for research.

6. Considerations for future clinical research in Cervical dizziness

High quality data supporting the existence of cervical dizziness as a distinct entity, and the effect of intervention, are relatively few. Investigators planning clinical therapeutic and mechanistic studies should combine optimal clinical trial methodology (double-blinded, placebo-controlled therapeutic or sham-active controlled mechanistic studies) linked to specific *a priori* hypotheses. The hypothesised pathophysiological mechanism should therefore provide testable predictions measurable as primary outcomes (e.g., some clinical measure) and secondary outcomes (e.g., laboratory or mechanistically based outcome). We provide a narrative view of the

712 many confounds and their potential amelioration, that
713 researchers should consider when designing studies
714 in cervical dizziness.

715 Firstly, since cervical dizziness is a cross-cutting
716 complaint that presents to different specialities
717 in different guises, it can be viewed through
718 different speciality-specific lenses. Thus, we recom-
719 mend the research team be multi-disciplinary, with
720 representatives from (but not limited to) cardiol-
721 ogy, neurology, neurosurgery, otolaryngology, and
722 physiotherapy.

723 Controlled studies (placebo- or sham-controlled)
724 are especially important in cervical dizziness research
725 because, as described previously, top-down effects
726 in humans can provoke dizziness and nystagmus in
727 human subjects even in the absence of any periph-
728 eral vestibular activation [41]. Relevant reporting
729 guidelines such as CONSORT should be used to
730 ensure academic rigour when carrying out such stud-
731 ies [http://www.consort-statement.org]. Investigators
732 should involve statisticians when designing studies to
733 ensure the study is sufficiently powered to convinc-
734 ingly demonstrate positive results, and to reduce the
735 risk of false-negative findings.

736 Given the scepticism about the existence of cer-
737 vical dizziness, it is important for trialists to focus
738 upon designing studies with high specificity even at
739 the cost of low sensitivity, which means not only
740 well-defined inclusion criteria, but particular atten-
741 tion should be paid to the exclusion criteria. Thus,
742 initial studies should strive to recruit a cohort of
743 'pure' cervical dizziness patients. Thus, critical to
744 this is the demonstration that investigators have made
745 an **exhaustive** effort looking for common vestibular
746 diagnoses whose manifestations may overlap
747 with cervical dizziness. Thus, the investigators will
748 enhance credibility by looking for and excluding,
749 patients with BPPV, any form of migraine and via
750 systematic assessment, any patients with laboratory
751 measured evidence of peripheral or central vestibular
752 dysfunction (e.g., looking for reduced VOR gain or
753 cerebellar signs). The investigators, as experienced
754 vestibular clinicians, can easily list some absolute
755 exclusion criteria, e.g., the presence of spontaneous
756 vestibular symptoms, since dizziness occurring with-
757 out any head or neck movement, would seem an
758 obvious first-pass exclusion.

759 Cardiogenic diagnoses should be considered and
760 cardiac measures of pulse, blood pressure and ECG
761 (ideally all by continuous monitoring) could be mea-
762 sured. We would strongly advise that any patient with
763 significant postural hypotension (i.e., a systolic blood

764 pressure fall of >20 mmHg on standing from lying
765 [104]), be excluded. As noted, triggered cardiac con-
766 duction disturbances, e.g., via the trigemino-cardiac
767 reflex, or the sick sinus syndrome, could be screened
768 and excluded in robustly designed studies.

769 Patients' medication should be carefully docu-
770 mented in all study participants and patients on drugs
771 that may confound the results, be excluded. For
772 example, opiates, beta-blockers, and calcium chan-
773 nel antagonists, all potentiate the trigemino-cardiac
774 reflex, a potential confound as described above.

775 We would advise that patients with head and neck
776 trauma be excluded given the scope for multiple
777 vestibular diagnoses in TBI in whom there is a poor
778 correlation between objective and subjective fea-
779 tures [4–6]. In patients without a history of trauma
780 and no evidence of deficit on neurological examina-
781 tion, the role for neck imaging in the inclusion or
782 exclusion criteria seems limited, particularly since
783 systematic reviews have found no consistent relation-
784 ship between MR imaging of the cervical spine and
785 neck pain [105].

786 Once the exclusion criteria have been considered,
787 the investigators should then consider the inclusion
788 criteria. Neck pain and dizziness, both consistently
789 and simultaneously aggravated by neck movements,
790 seem a prerequisite. Investigators may then want to
791 confirm if these symptoms are also triggered when
792 the head is kept earth-fixed and the body rotated
793 beneath the stationary head, since it is in this dynamic
794 configuration that there is true neck movement with-
795 out any head motion. Depending upon investigators'
796 *a priori* hypothesis of the mechanism mediating
797 cervical dizziness, they may want to measure objec-
798 tive markers of vestibular activation (e.g., nystagmus
799 or increased postural sway) during a provocative
800 manoeuvre. In this case, investigators may consider
801 defining *a priori*, what is to be considered a positive
802 result, e.g., a triggered nystagmus that is visible in
803 at least 3 out of 5 trials (with clear definition for a trig-
804 gered nystagmus). Some researchers may consider
805 abnormal neck proprioception an inclusion-criteria,
806 and depending upon their desired measure of neck
807 proprioception, may require the development and
808 validation of appropriate tests. Of course, whether
809 researchers attempt some measure of neck proprio-
810 ception may depend upon their *a priori* hypothesis
811 mediating cervical dizziness but for investigators
812 invoking a neck proprioception deficit, some mea-
813 sure of neck proprioception would seem essential.
814 For some researchers, continuous cardiac monitor-
815 ing during a provocative manoeuvre (to exclude

cardiogenic mechanisms for dizziness) may also be considered an important consideration.

The final consideration for researchers is the duration of follow-up in prospective interventional studies. A follow-up period of at least one year would seem sensible since at least one positive interventional study showing an early benefit of intervention over placebo, found that this benefit above placebo was not sustained at one year [8, 98].

In summary, there are several confounds that make research into cervical dizziness challenging. Given the current data, we cannot at present, recommend any specific diagnostic criteria for cervical dizziness, nor can we presently recommend any specific therapy. We hope that investigators with a research interest in cervical dizziness can decrease the uncertainty over this putative clinical entity, by designing rigorous clinical trials via multi-centre, randomised, blinded, controlled studies.

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