



# Chronic Pain Syndromes: Neck Pain

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## Introduction

Neck pain is a common source of pain with an overall prevalence of up to 86.6% and a mean of 23.1% [1]. Neck pain was identified as the main cause in 20.4% of chronic pain patients [2]. There are several risk factors for neck pain including female gender, high-income countries, urban location, age, occupation, and previous musculoskeletal pain [1, 3].

The cervical spine is composed of seven vertebrae and eight cervical nerve roots. Each vertebra is connected to the adjacent level via the facet joints, uncinat process, and the intervertebral disc except for the atlantooccipital (C0–C1) articulations and the atlantoaxial (C1–C2) articulation.

Pain referral can pose another challenge in the assessment of neck pain. This phenomenon is attributed to the convergence theory of pain [4]. Neck pain not only refers pain distally but can also refer pain cranially causing cervicogenic headaches [5] via the cervicotrigenal convergence [6].

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## Etiology

The differential diagnosis for neck pain can be either categorized from an anatomical perspective or from a disease perspective (Table 7.1). Anatomically, innervated structures include the bones, intervertebral discs, facet joint, ligaments, muscles, and nerves can be a source of pain.

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**Table 7.1** Differential diagnosis for neck pain

Mechanical	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Osteoarthritis</li> <li>• Cervical strain and sprain</li> <li>• Adjacent level arthritis post-spinal fusion</li> <li>• Radiculopathy and radiculitis</li> <li>• Superficial cervical plexopathy</li> </ul>
Inflammatory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seronegative spondyloarthropathy</li> <li>• Connective tissue disease</li> <li>• Rheumatoid arthritis (atlantoaxial)</li> <li>• Diffuse idiopathic skeletal hyperostosis</li> <li>• Longus colli tendinitis</li> </ul>
Infectious	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Vertebral osteomyelitis</li> <li>• Diskitis</li> <li>• Cervical Pott's disease from tuberculosis</li> <li>• Granulomatous process</li> <li>• Epidural, intradural, and subdural abscesses</li> <li>• Retropharyngeal abscess</li> </ul>
Tumors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Benign osseous tumors</li> <li>• Malignant tumors</li> <li>• Metastasis</li> <li>• Intradural and extradural tumors</li> </ul>
Congenital	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Down's syndrome</li> <li>• Ehrlers Danlos syndrome</li> <li>• Chiari malformation</li> </ul>
Syndromes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Myofascial pain syndrome</li> <li>• Fibromyalgia and widespread pain syndrome</li> <li>• Hypermobility syndrome</li> </ul>

## Clinical Evaluation

### History

The evaluation for neck pain includes a thorough history and physical examination. The history should include details about the pain. Aggravating or alleviating features that are not activity related or positional should prompt the physician to consider nonmechanical sources of pain. Associated features such as headaches or dizziness are commonly reported and would necessitate further characterization of these symptoms. Red flags should be elicited to rule out potentially devastating etiologies of pain which includes neurologic compromise, vertebrobasilar insufficiency, craniovertebral ligament instability, infections, and malignancy.

There is a bidirectional effect of pain with mood [7] and sleep [8]. Identification and treatment of these concurrent issues are important in helping a patient with pain. Additionally, many of the pain-modulating medications can also affect mood and sleep.

Certain medical conditions may be pertinent in the patient with neck pain. For example, cervical instability may be present in patients with Down's syndrome [9], Rheumatoid Arthritis [10], and among others [11–16] and patients with

hypermobility syndrome [17] or fibromyalgia may present with generalized pain include pain in the cervical region. There are several inherited conditions that may predispose a patient to neck pain. These include rheumatological [10, 12, 14], hypermobility [16–18], and cervical dystonia [15] to name a few. Lastly, a history of bleeding diathesis and anticoagulation use may limit neuroaxial interventional options [19].

One must be mindful of drug–drug interactions (see Pharmacology chapter). Although commonly used for pain management, cannabis is only recommended for use in specific pain conditions [20, 21]. Antidepressants and gabapentinoids used for pain modulation can also increase the risks of suicidality.

Previous neck surgeries may provide a clue to current neck pain. A history of cervical spinal surgery may lead to acceleration of adjacent level spondylosis and pain [22]. Additionally, previous anterior neck dissections may predispose a patient to superficial cervical plexus neuropathic pain [23].

Approaching chronic pain from the psychosocial perspective is important. Components of the social history include occupation, living situation, and ongoing litigation and worker’s compensation. It is also important to elicit a history of alcohol, smoking, and illicit drug use. A functional history includes how the pain is affecting their activities of daily living, instrumental activities of daily living, vocational demands, and avocational pursuits. Treatment of pain can also lead to improvement of function which can be a more objective measure of improvement than a pain numeric rating scale.

## Outcome Measures

Outcome measures can use to help the physician better characterize and communicate the patient’s symptoms and severity in a more objective and validated manner. Common outcome measures include the brief pain inventory, Patient Reported Outcome Measurement Information System, Numeric Pain Rating Scale, Neck Disability Index, and the Neck Pain and Disability scale.

## Physical Examination

The goal of the physical examination is to determine the main structural source of the pain, rule out neurologic deficits, and to help guide treatment. The components of a physical examination would include both musculoskeletal and neurologic maneuvers.

Musculoskeletal examination includes observation, range of motion, palpation, and special tests. The examination should include not only the cervical spine but also the joint above and below, which includes the temporomandibular joint and the shoulder joint.

Special testing of the neck includes cervical flexion rotation test (while patient is supine, the head is supported by the examiner and the cervical spine is rotated to end range with the cervical spine passively fully flexed) and Spurling’s test (axial load

with neck in extension, rotation, and lateral flexion). Cervical flexion rotation test is considered positive for C1–C2 involvement with reduction of rotation range and pain provocation. Spurling's test is considered positive for cervical nerve root involvement with reproduction of radicular arm pain.

Neurologic examination includes the cranial nerve evaluation, Horner's syndrome, as well as assessing for tone, bulk, power, deep tendon reflexes, Hoffman's, plantar response, and sensation in the limbs.

## Laboratory Studies

Laboratory studies ordered should be guided by the patient's history and physical examination. The goal of laboratory studies is to rule out systemic causes of pain. For example, a patient presenting with systemic features of malignancy or infection would benefit from a complete blood count with differential and C-reactive protein/erythrocyte sedimentation rate. Prolonged morning stiffness, polyarthralgias, and rashes may warrant a rheumatologic workup.

## Imaging Studies

Although imaging studies are commonly ordered for the evaluation of neck pain, one must be mindful of its poor sensitivity and specificity. There is good evidence that the location and degree of degenerative changes seen on imaging does not always correlate with the patient's symptoms [24].

When traumatic fractures, osteoporotic fracture, infection, or malignancy is suspected, a plain radiograph can be a helpful initial modality. Additional flexion and extension view helpful in identifying ligamentous injuries or segmental instability.

CTs or MRIs can be helpful in further evaluation of the cervical spine to assess for alternative reasons for neck pain other than spondylosis. Additionally, bone scan can be helpful in identifying pathological fractures, and inflammatory sources of pain.

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## Common Disorders

### Chronic Primary Cervical Pain

The International Association For the Study of Pain published the new ICD 11 classification in 2019 [25]. Previously, chronic primary cervical pain was known as nonspecific neck pain or mechanical neck pain. This new language in labeling attempts to be inclusive of the pain regardless of its complex biopsychosocial origins.

From a biomechanical approach, there are many structures in the neck that are innervated by nociceptive neurons and can be implicated in pain. Cervical facet mediated pain is the most implicated anatomical structure in neck pain with an estimated prevalence of 60% [26]. The most common levels implicated is the C2–3 level, followed by C5–C7 [27]. There are no pathognomonic features on history that can help the clinician differentiate facet joint pain from other sources of pain [28]. Clinically, there may be restrictions in range and pain provocation. Palpable tenderness over the suspected facet joint levels can be as diagnostically accurate as local anesthetic blocks [29]. Imaging studies can rule out other serious sources of pain.

Another structure that is implicated in primary cervical pain is the cervical disks. This structure typically refer pain to the posterior neck in the midline with pain radiation into a wider area [30]. Physical exam signs are similar to those of cervical facet-mediated pain. As most interventional pain procedures are targeted at the facet joint due to safety, local anesthetic blockade of the facet joint without any pain relief likely points to involvement of the disc. Similar to facet-mediated pain, imaging modalities are used to rule out more serious pathology rather than to rule in the disc as a pain generator as imaging changes can occur in asymptomatic population [24].

Management of primary neck pain must be approached systematically and involve the patient's own preferences to maximize success. Management options can be divided into conservative, pharmacologic, and interventional options.

Conservative options for chronic primary cervical pain are associated with limited side effects and risks. Allied health providers including physiotherapy, occupational therapy, and pain psychology can be enlisted to help. There is heterogeneity in the literature which limits the level of evidence for rehabilitation [31]. Activity modification, pacing, and ergonomic adjustments are basic first steps. Modalities and passive treatments include, thermotherapy or cryotherapy [32–36], various manual therapies [37–41], transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation [42–45], therapeutic ultrasound [43, 46–48], and needle intramuscular stimulation [49–51] can be helpful for short-term pain management. However, current management paradigms prefer a focus on active based rehabilitation and self-management options [52–54]. This can include, but is not limited to, pain neuroscience education [55–58], various exercise therapies [31, 59–62], and mind-body exercises (e.g., yoga, tai-chi, and qi gong) [25, 31, 63–66]. There is also evidence for the use of psychological therapies in the management of chronic neck pain [67–74].

Pharmacologic options include simple analgesics such as acetaminophen or non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs). One must be careful about underlying health conditions that may preclude the use of these medications. Escalation to opioids is rarely needed and often contraindicated due to the potential for dependency and the social implications of such. Pain modulating medications, although not well studied, can also provide longer duration of relief. These pain modulating medications include serotonin norepinephrine reuptake inhibitor (SNRI's), tricyclic antidepressants (TCAs), or gabapentinoids. Additionally, cannabis products may provide relief in certain patients. This includes nabilone, Sativex, or other plant-based products. Lastly, topical compounded options may serve a middle ground for patients who want to decrease their pill burden. There is limited evidence of such, but some

patients do report relief. Many medications can be compounded into a topical formulation, including diclofenac, ketoprofen, cyclobenzaprine, gabapentin, lidocaine, and amitriptyline to name a few.

There has been a dramatic increase in interventional options in the management of pain [75]. Although, steroid injections are commonly used, the evidence supporting its use is limited [76, 77] and has risks [78, 79]. Radiofrequency ablation has the strongest interventional evidence in patients with neck predominant pain [80, 81]. This involves cauterization of the medial branch of the dorsal rami that innervates the facet joints. The main potential risk of this procedure is pain aggravation as well as, very rarely post radiofrequency neuritis [81, 82]. Lastly, there is interest in the use of platelet rich plasma therapy in the management of facet mediated pain in the lumbar spine [83–85] but evidence in the neck does not exist. This procedure involves centrifuging the patient's own platelets to concentrate the various growth factors and signaling proteins and injecting it into the putative painful facet joint. Lastly, one must be careful with maintaining a patient's expectation after interventional procedures as these procedures can potentially cause complications such as pain aggravation, failure for pain relief, hematoma formation, nerve injury, and theoretically stroke and death.

Neuromodulation is a growing field that involves either chemical or electrical modulation of the central or peripheral nervous system. One option is spinal cord stimulators which has evidence in neuropathic pain [86] and persistent post-operative spinal surgery axial or radicular pain [87, 88]. It does have a high initial cost to the healthcare system but economic studies do indicate that they are beneficial when accounting for the overall reduced healthcare utilization [89].

Lastly, there is some evidence that surgery can be used for recalcitrant axial cervical pain thought to be discogenic in origin [90–92]. If pursued, typically provocative discography is used to demonstrate that the targeted level is the main pain generator [91].

## **Cervical Radiculopathy**

Cervical radiculopathy is a pathology of the cervical nerve roots. Symptoms are typically radicular in a dermatomal pattern and can be associated with a somatic referral pattern in the neck and in the periscapular regions. Patients may report neuropathic quality of pain associated with a myotomal distribution of weakness. Physical examination may identify the pattern of weakness following a myotome, but rarely sensory abnormalities are found due to the overlap of dermatomes. Deep tendon reflexes can be helpful if the nerve root pathology involves the C5, C6, or C7 nerve roots which are tested with biceps, brachioradialis, and triceps deep tendon reflexes. One must also rule out any upper motor neuron findings in both the upper and lower limbs which can be suggestive of spinal cord involvement. This includes spasticity, hyperreflexia, clonus, Hoffmann's, and plantar response. Spurling's maneuver and Bakody's hyperabduction signs are other physical examination maneuvers useful in identifying cervical radiculopathy. Bakody's hyperabduction sign is positive for cervical radiculitis if the radicular pain is improved with the ipsilateral hand placed over the patient's own head.

Cervical spine X-rays can identify potential areas of neural foraminal stenosis due to bony spondylosis. However, MRIs are better suited at defining the structures surrounding the nerve root and to rule out underlying cervical myelopathy. Electrodiagnostic evaluation with nerve conduction studies and electromyography can also localize nerve injuries to the root and help with clarifying prognosis.

The typical natural history of cervical radiculopathy is gradual resolution of symptoms with conservative care [93]. Education and reassurance are important part of the management. Activity modification and ergonomic adjustments can be helpful in avoiding re-aggravation of the nerve root. Modalities used in primary neck pain can also be used but evidence of such is lacking. Thermotherapy is often used to help with pain [94] but one study indicates that its use in cervical radiculopathy is associated with poorer outcomes [95]. A number of studies have shown that traction is helpful temporarily [95–103].

Additionally, neuropathic medications can be helpful in controlling some of the neuropathic radicular pain [20]. As mentioned in the previous section, the choice of medication should take into account a patient's expectations, medical history, and concomitant medications. Occasionally, the pain from radiculopathy can be so severe that opioids may be needed.

Surgery is indicated for patients with severe symptoms, neurologic deficits, progressive symptoms, or after failing conservative care. Decompression surgery has satisfactory results in up to 96% of patients [92, 104–106]. There is an estimated complication rate of around 10% with a less than 1% risk of clinical worsening [107–110].

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## Conclusion

Axial cervical pain is a very common complaint that all physicians may encounter in their clinical practice. The biomechanical source of axial cervical pain is broad with cervical facets and disks being most studied in the literature. One must also consider the patient as a whole and consider the biopsychosocial factors to best help the patient in achieving their goals and meeting their expectations.

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