

Neck related arm pain: clinical scenarios to differentiate the underlying IASP-defined pain mechanisms

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Abstract

Neck related arm (i.e. understand upper limb) pain is a common clinical scenario in which the underlying pain mechanisms are not well understood. Neck pain radiating to the arm is not always related to nervous system injury or disease of the (neuropathic pain) but may also be nociceptive (referred) or even nociplastic pain. Unfortunately, patients with such a spatial distribution of pain are often given different diagnoses (e.g., "cervicobrachialgia", "cervicobrachial neuralgia", "cervicobrachial pain syndrome", "cervical radiculopathy"). The confusion associated with these diagnostic terms leads to difficulties in clinical reasoning. So, it seems essential for clinicians to understand and recognize the predominant mechanisms of pain. Three different clinical scenarios present patients with the same spatial distribution of pain but with different predominant pain mechanisms. In the scenarios, subjective and objective examinations are performed to describe and highlight the predominant pain mechanisms that can be related to neck and arm pain: nociceptive, neuropathic and nociplastic. Clinicians should also be aware that the predominant pain can change over time.

35 Introduction

36 Neck pain ranks third in Belgium in terms of years lived with disability and sixth worldwide
37 [1]. Neck pain has a high lifetime prevalence (22-70%) and increases in women in the fifth
38 decade of life [2-4]. More importantly, the overall epidemiology of neck pain does not appear
39 to have changed substantially over the past 30 years [5].

40 Neck pain which is an unpleasant sensory and emotional experience that is or appears to be
41 associated with actual or potential tissue damage in the neck region [6, 7], can be transmitted
42 to the arm via somatic structures [8-11] or neuropathic mechanisms [12, 13]. In these cases, the
43 pain is defined as “cervicobrachial pain” or "cervicobrachialgia", "cervicobrachial neuralgia",
44 "cervicobrachial pain syndrome”, “cervical radiculopathy”). These terms do not describe the
45 underlying pain mechanism, which can be confusing for clinicians and patients. Indeed, a
46 similar clinical picture may underlie different and overlapping pain mechanisms (see Figure 1)
47 [14, 15]. Clinical reasoning is required to recognize the scope of biological and psychosocial
48 factors that need to be assessed and to analyze their involvement in the patient’s clinical
49 presentation to individualize the patient’s management. Although there is no definitive list of
50 essential clinical judgments including personal and environmental contributing factors [16],
51 [17] have proposed general categories of judgment important to incorporate in all reasoning
52 process. For example, to better understand what we propose to call neck related arm pain
53 (NRAP), it is important to understand the underlying pain mechanisms. Here, arm must be
54 understood as upper limb anatomical region that consists of the upper arm, forearm, and hand.

55
56 In this article, we will attempt to clarify and describe the underlying predominant pain
57 mechanisms of NRAP as defined by the International Association for the Study of Pain [18].
58 Differentiating predominant neuropathic pain from referred nociceptive pain or even
59 nociplastic pain is a clinical challenge but we hope that by using three different clinical
60 scenarios, we can help clinicians to gain more insight into the distinction between the three
61 predominant IASP-defined pain mechanisms.

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66 What are nociceptive, neuropathic and nociplastic pain mechanisms?

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68 Nociceptive pain

69 The IASP defines nociceptive pain as "pain that arises from actual or threatened damage to non-
70 neural tissue and is due to the activation of nociceptors." [18]. Nociceptive pain can occur when
71 a potential noxious stimulus activates the nociceptors of innervated structures. For example,
72 noxious stimulation of the zygapophyseal joints, spinal ligaments, muscles, or the outer portion
73 of the cervical intervertebral disc is converted into a nociceptive (electrical) signal in the
74 nervous system by transduction. This warning or danger signal is processed in the central
75 nervous system with potential significant brain excitations [19], which may lead to a sensation
76 of pain [14]. In nociceptive pain, the somatosensory nervous system functions normally [14].
77 However, often described as more localized pain, some patients with neck pain also experience
78 symptoms in the arm, in a region that is topographically distinct from the nociceptive source
79 [6, 9, 10]. This phenomenon is called nociceptive *referred pain* and could be explained by the
80 convergence of nociceptive afferents on second-order neurons [20]. Most often, pain is
81 perceived in regions that share the same segmental innervation. In addition, nociceptive referred
82 pain may extend to the hand in some cases [10].

83

84 Neuropathic pain

85 The IASP defines neuropathic pain as "pain caused by lesion or disease of the somatosensory
86 nervous system" [18]. The most common cause of neuropathic pain in patients with neck pain
87 is related to injury or disease of the peripheral nervous system (e.g., root compression) [14].
88 The nervous system is affected by the generation of ectopic discharges that bypass transduction
89 [14] and can impair nerve function and lead to sensory and motor deficits .
90 When describing neuropathic pain, symptoms are often characterized by specific neurological
91 symptoms, such as positive sensory signs (hyperalgesia and/or allodynia) and negative sensory
92 signs (loss of function) [21], and patients often report that pain is lancinating, burning and
93 accompanied by unusual tingling, crawling, electrical discharge, stabbing, or shooting in the
94 arm [14, 22, 23] and radiates downward with a specific radicular distribution [24], however
95 extra dermatomal pain is common [13, 25]. Neuropathic pain is also characterized by
96 spontaneous (occurring without physical stimulation) [26], evoked (abnormal responses to
97 stimuli) [27] or paroxysmal (suddenly recurring and intensified) pain [22]. Symptoms can be
98 intense at specific sites and these are not necessarily proximal [13]. Therefore, some authors

99 use the criterion "arm pain worse than neck pain" which seems to have a high specificity (81%)
100 [28]. While there is currently no standardized approach, neuropathic pain is usually identified
101 using clinical criteria [29, 30]. The diagnosis of neuropathic pain is difficult to make in the first-
102 line care, but certain elements of the subjective examination can lead the clinician to
103 hypothesize the presence or absence of neuropathic pain. No single element is pathognomonic
104 but pooling the elements from the subjective and then objective examination is the best way to
105 increase the chance of a correct diagnosis [13, 31].

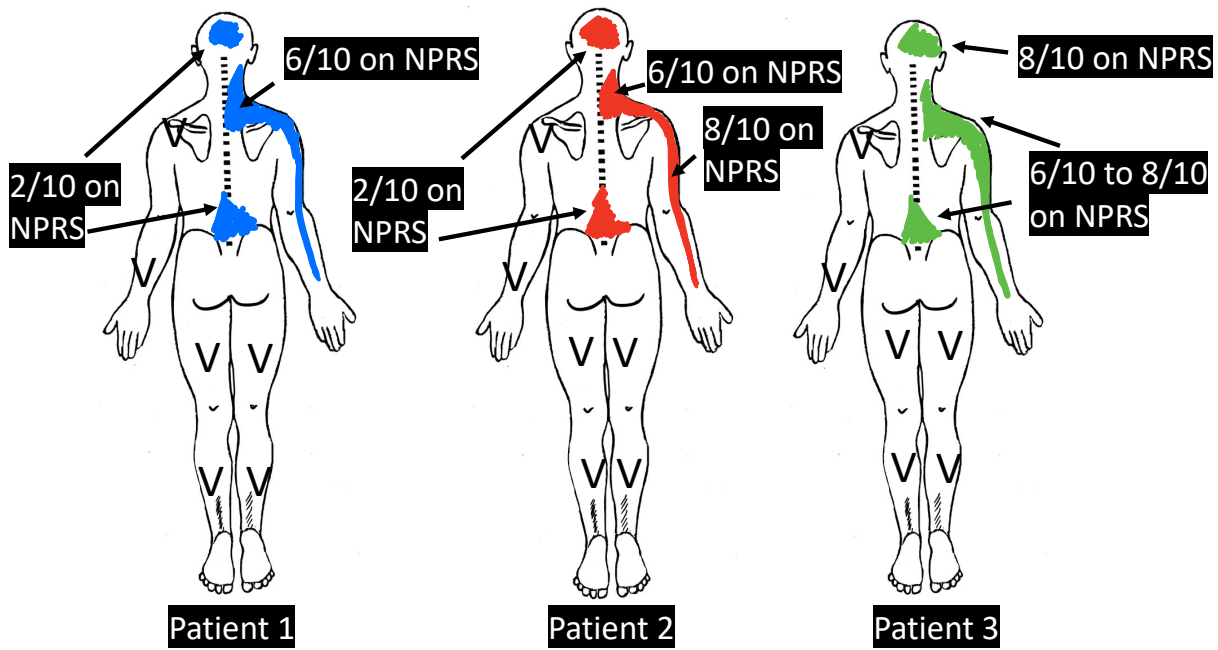
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107 Nociplastic pain

108 The IASP defines a third category, nociplastic pain, which is described as “pain that arises from
109 altered nociception despite no clear evidence of actual or threatened tissue damage causing the
110 activation of peripheral nociceptors or evidence for disease or lesion of the somatosensory
111 system causing the pain” [18]. Indeed, in a person with nociplastic pain, symptoms do not "fit"
112 the known neuroanatomical patterns, and symptom behavior do not follow the usual patterns of
113 increasing and decreasing symptoms with periods of movement and rest (i.e., stimulus-
114 dependent pain). Pain is often experienced as diffuse and rarely confined to an anatomical
115 reference pattern [21, 32]. In contrast, pain can occur completely independent of the stimulus
116 (i.e., good days and bad days, regardless of what the person is doing that day), or even after a
117 stimulus that is normally “non-noxious” (i.e., allodynia). Kosek et al. (IASP Terminology Task
118 Force) have described an algorithm to help clinicians identify nociplastic pain [33]. Although
119 this algorithm (grading system) is still a work in progress, the following criteria must be met to
120 classify nociplastic pain: pain duration is at least 3 months, pain is more regionally than locally
121 distributed, pain cannot be entirely explained by nociceptive or neuropathic mechanisms
122 (sensory deficits are not uncommon in non-dermatomal and non-nervous areas of distribution,
123 with generalized hypersensitivity) and there is clinical signs of pain hypersensitivity in the pain
124 region [34]. Mental health problems affect most individuals. Cognitive symptoms, insomnia,
125 and fatigue are common. Nociplastic conditions have a high co-prevalence rate with other
126 chronic pain conditions such as spinal pain, arthritis and headaches [32].

127 To get a better insight into the distinction between nociceptive, neuropathic and nociplastic
128 pain, we will use three clinical cases (see Figure 1) covering the theoretical aspect of a
129 subjective (SE) and objective examination (OE).

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133 **Figure 1.** Description of the three body-charts with a spatial distribution of pain that appear similar. NPRS= numerical pain
 134 rating scale. V= no pain.

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136 Subjective Examination (SE)

137 Clinical reasoning for diagnosis or problem classification is based on categories of hypotheses
 138 [17] and on the predominant mechanism of pain. The main problem, circumstances and
 139 symptoms described by a patient are the first step in hypothesizing the predominant pain
 140 mechanism. It is important to listen carefully to patients because the words used to describe
 141 neuropathic, nociceptive [29] and nociplastic pain can differ [15, 33-35]. As the management
 142 of pain differs depending on the underlying pain mechanism [29, 31], it is essential for
 143 clinicians to differentiate neuropathic pain from nociceptive and nociplastic pain [27, 28, 36].
 144 Clinicians should be aware that pain in the arm, is not always due to nerve root or peripheral
 145 nervous system injury or disease [10]: somatic sources for CBP symptoms were reported in
 146 80.1% of the cases [37]. In the following section, we detail how the predominant mechanisms
 147 of neuropathic pain can be distinguished from the other two mechanisms and hypothesize how
 148 this can be done, as it depends on considering a combination of characteristics [21].

149 Interpretation of subjective examination

150 When asked to describe the pain, Patient 1 states that the pain is acute, localized mainly in the
151 neck and radiating into the arm and forearm to the hand (6/10 on numerical pain rating scale
152 (NPRS)). The pain is described as dull and sharp. The pain intensifies in all seated positions
153 (working at a computer or watching television), especially in positions where the cervical spine
154 is extended [38, 39]. Pain increases when the patient turns the head to look to the right and/or
155 upward. Patient 1 noted that the intensity of the pain decreases rapidly, especially when he
156 avoids moving his head too much (e.g., by standing more upright while working at the
157 computer). Patient 1 also mentions low-back pain and headaches (2/10 on NPRS) on some days,
158 but these pains are not currently present and are only related to long car trips. The presence of
159 proportionate and distinct symptoms, associated with clear local, mitigating and aggravating
160 factors and the fact that Patient 1 does not describe any negative or positive neurological
161 symptoms may suggest the hypothesis of a predominant *nociceptive pain mechanism* [38, 39].

162 When Patient 2 is asked to describe the pain, he mentions acute pain (6/10 on NPRS) in the
163 neck that radiates into the arm (8/10 on NPRS) with sensations of burning, tingling and vague
164 pins and needles in the arm. The patient also states that these sensations tend to increase with
165 increasing pain in the neck and shoulder [40]. Patient 2 also mentions low-back pain (2/10 on
166 NPRS), but its intensity is highly dependent on physical activity. Patient 2 also describes
167 recurrent headaches (2/10 on NPRS), which have increased since the onset of this episode of
168 neck pain [21]. Regarding aggravating or relieving factors, the patient states that the pain
169 worsens quite quickly when he is working at the computer (sometimes shooting pain).
170 However, the pain is easily provoked in many situations without a clear trigger, which leads
171 him to describe the pain as "unpredictable" and "it can recur spontaneously". Another key
172 characteristic is that it takes longer for the pain to decrease. The description of symptoms and
173 the presence of positive neurological signs may support the hypothesis of a predominant
174 *neuropathic pain mechanism* [41, 42].

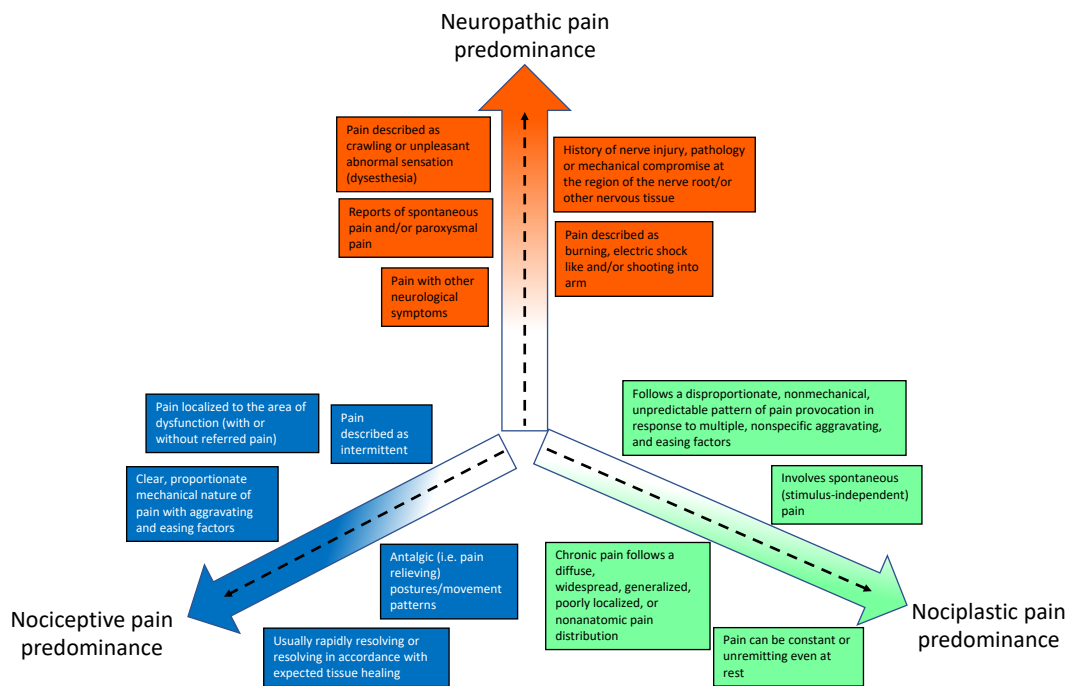
175 When asked about pain, Patient 3 states that he has been suffering from pain in his neck for
176 more than a year, radiating to the arm and now accompanied by severe low back pain (6/10 to
177 8/10 on NPRS). The patient also suffers from regular headaches (3 to 4 times per week) (8/10
178 on NPRS). According to the patient, pain intensity is unrelated to aggravating factors, such as
179 activities, and is variable or inconsistent. Sometimes it is associated with movement or

180 activities, but not always, and other times it is associated with stress activities. Turning the head
181 to one side may be more painful, but the patient cannot tell if it is always on the same side.
182 Patient 3 feels that the arm is sometimes heavy and he feels a vague sensation. He also mentions
183 difficulty concentrating, sleep disturbances, chronic fatigue, and that pain varies greatly in
184 intensity and location without knowing why [21, 32]. The presence of chronic,
185 disproportionate, inconsistent and imprecise answers to questions related to the symptom's
186 behavior and without clear neurological symptoms may give rise to the hypothesis of a
187 predominant *nociplastic pain mechanism* [21, 32].

188 Although the subjective assessments of Patients 1, 2 and 3 provide useful information to
189 hypothesize about the predominant mechanism underlying the “pain mechanism”, this is not
190 sufficient to draw a definitive conclusion about the pain mechanism. As part of clear
191 hypothetico-deductive clinical reasoning [43], elements of the Objective Examination (OE),
192 such as neurodynamic and neurological testing, are essential to further test the hypothesis
193 established at SE and guide the clinician toward a differential diagnosis.

194 Self-completion questionnaires with, or without limited clinical examination [22, 44-46] (e.g.,
195 DN4, LANSS, PDQ) have been developed as part of the ES to determine the presence of
196 neuropathic pain, each with disease-specific discriminatory characteristics [47]. The ‘*Douleur*
197 *Neuropathique en 4 questions*’ (DN4) questionnaire (sensitivity 83%; specificity 90%) [46] was
198 developed to differentiate neuropathic pain from nociceptive pain and appears to have specific
199 discriminating. The short DN4 questionnaire contains 10 items, which yield a score that, if
200 greater than or equal to 4, indicates that the hypothesis of neuropathic pain could be considered.
201 Seven items are used as self-report questionnaire on sensory descriptors and 3 items are scored
202 based on the OE. The speed and ease of administration of a questionnaire such as the DN4 make
203 it a valuable complementary tool for clinicians. However, questionnaires should not replace a
204 detailed subjective and objective examination. Although many screening tools have good
205 sensitivity and specificity, they are reported to fail to diagnose 10–20% of patients with
206 neuropathic pain [47]. To provide clinicians indication of nociplastic predominance, as
207 previously mentioned, the IASP clinical criteria and grading system [33] and also the Central
208 Sensitization Inventory questionnaire (CSI) (sensitivity of 81% to 82.8% and a specificity of
209 54.8% to 75%), could be used to quantify it [34, 48].

210 The list of the most common clinical descriptions of nociceptive, neuropathic and nociplastic
211 pain expressed by patients is shown in Figure 2.



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Figure 2. This figure shows different descriptions of pain depending on the underlying mechanism. Selection of relevant clinical descriptors for neuropathic pain (red arrow), nociceptive pain (blue arrow) [49], [39] and nociplastic pain (green arrow) [21, 23]. The 3 different colored arrows show a classification system to help clinicians determine the pain mechanism predominant.

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219 Objective Examination

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In patients 1, 2, and 3, a complete OE includes for example: inspection, soft tissue assessment, motor control, examination of active and physiologic/accessory passive movements. If neuropathic pain is suspected, clinicians should carefully perform a neurologic examination of the patient's sensory, motor, and autonomic functions to identify possible neurologic dysfunction (at least the DN4 questionnaire) [42]. As the quantitative sensory tests (QST) is not sufficient alone to diagnosis of neuropathic pain [22, 50], it may be warranted in addition to the neurologic examination [29, 51, 52]. It can be used to assess the somatosensory system function in patients by measuring changes in peripheral and/or central pain sensitivity. It consists of several tests aimed at quantifying the response to sensory stimuli elicited by the application of standardized vibration, pressure, thermal, or electrical stimuli. Neurological examination could reveal neuroanatomical pain distribution, positive and/or negative signs and symptoms (altered reflexes, sensations, and muscle strength) [27]. The presence of hyperalgesia and/or other sensory abnormalities could indicate the presence of neuropathic pain [23].

233 In addition, a neurodynamic test is essential to assess the mechanosensitivity of the nervous
234 system [53]. A neurodynamic test is positive if it reproduces at least the patient's symptoms
235 and a change in those symptoms with a positive structural differentiation [36, 54, 55]. The
236 Upper Limb Neural Test (ULNT) is considered the most common upper limb test [53] with a
237 specificity of 69% and sensitivity of 97% [56]. It should be noted that, although neurodynamic
238 tests have good sensitivity, they generally have lower specificity and should not be used as
239 stand-alone [57, 58]. To highlight neuropathic pain predominance associated with cervical
240 radiculopathy, clinician could use the following clinical prediction rule [57]: cervical rotation
241 (<60°), neurodynamic testing of the median nerve, cervical spine distraction, and the Spurling
242 test, which has a high specificity of 89% to 100% [53, 59-61]. Clearly, more research is needed
243 to further refine the diagnosis of cervical neuropathic pain.

244 A patient with nociplastic pain may also have neurologic symptoms, so it is important to be
245 able to differentiate the underlying pain mechanisms between them. These patients may present
246 hypersensitivity to stimuli (e.g., pressure, temperature) and nonspecific neurologic findings on
247 testing or pain that has not a dermatomal distribution [21, 23]. These patients rarely present
248 altered or absent deep tendon reflexes, and motor deficits. Neurodynamic testing could
249 sometimes be positive but with a widespread persistent pain response [21, 23]. As said
250 previously, depending on the evidence found and to better account (or not) for the nociplastic
251 hypothesis, the use of the criteria grading system is a good option and if the clinicians want to
252 score the patient, the self-reported Central Sensitization Inventory (CSI) questionnaire.

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254 Interpretation of the objective examination

255 The evidence from the SE of Patient 1 suggests that nociceptive pain mechanism is
256 predominant. During OE active movements, Patient 1's neck and arm pain (without neurologic
257 symptoms) increase when he performs extension and right lateral flexion with limited range of
258 motion. When Patient 1 returns to a neutral (starting) position, the pain rapidly decreases. This
259 pattern is similar for passive physiological movements. Pain occurs at a specific location (C5-
260 6) during unilateral mobilization from right posterior-anterior and decreases rapidly afterwards.
261 Although predominant neuropathic pain is not our primary hypothesis, a neurologic
262 examination is essential when a patient presents with pain that radiates into the upper extremity

263 to confirm normal nervous system function. The negative neurological examination confirms
264 the predominance of *nociceptive pain mechanism* in Patient 1.

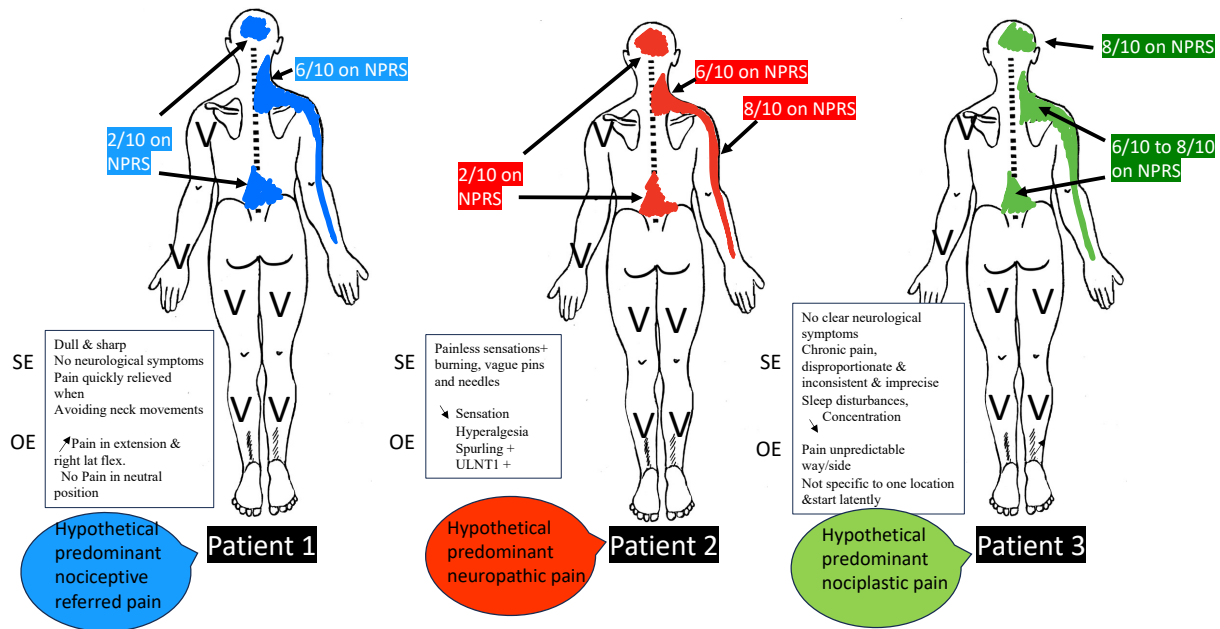
265 Because the SE of Patient 2 suggests a predominantly neuropathic pain mechanism, the OE
266 should include a complete neurologic, neurodynamic, and physical examination. On neurologic
267 examination, the Patient 2 described a loss of sensation to light touch in the right forearm and
268 hand (thumb and index finger side) and hyperalgesia to pinpricks compared with the left
269 forearm. Regarding neurodynamic assessment, given the pain in the neck and arm during
270 extension and right cervical lateral flexion, the Spurling test and the median upper limb neural
271 test (ULNT1) are preferable [62]. In Patient 2, the Spurling test and ULNT1 are positive, with
272 reproducible symptoms and with positive structural differentiation for the ULNT. According to
273 the information from the SE and OE of Patient 2, we can confirm the hypothesis of the presence
274 of a predominant *neuropathic pain mechanism*.

275 The evidence from the SE of Patient 3 suggests the presence of a predominant nociplastic pain
276 mechanism. Given the evidence at SE, an OE should be performed that includes active
277 movements as well as physiologic and incidental passive movements. With active movements,
278 Patient 3's neck and forearm pain (without clear neurologic symptoms) increase in a
279 disproportionate and unpredictable way (with varying limitations and directions of movement).
280 When Patient 3 returns to a neutral (starting) position, the pain can persist for a few minutes but
281 not systematically. This variable and unpredictable response pattern is similar for passive
282 physiologic movements. The pain is not reproduced at a specific location but starts latently. A
283 neurologic examination is essential if a patient has pain that radiates into the upper extremity,
284 for Patient 3, clinical signs of pain hypersensitivity are present at least in the painful region
285 which is elicited during clinical assessments of mechanical, thermal or cold allodynia [34]. In
286 this case, the ability to discriminate allodynia may be higher in areas distant from the painful
287 region [34].According to the information from the SE and OE of Patient 3, we can confirm the
288 hypothesis of the presence of a predominant *nociplastic pain mechanism*.

289 It is important to note that clinicians must be aware of any change in symptomatology and
290 perform further investigations, as neuropathic elements could appear during the patient's
291 follow-up, and could indicate the presence of a serious spinal pathology.

292 Because the aim of this article is to help clinicians differentiate between the three predominant
293 pain descriptors, only the relevant part of the OE necessary for this purpose is described.

294 Management should be patient-centered and based on a dynamic biopsychosocial framework
 295 [63], that incorporates the various aspects of the International Classification of Functioning
 296 (ICF) model [16].



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299 **Figure 3.** Description of the three body-charts after a complete subjective and physical examination. SE & OE
 300 are summarized in the figure. NPRS= numerical pain rating scale. V= no pain. SE= subjective examination. OE=
 301 objective examination. ULNT= upper limb neural test1 (median nerve).

302

303 Discussion and conclusion

304 The purpose of this article was to simplify the differentiation of pain mechanisms in people
 305 with NRAP to help clinicians and students in their clinical reasoning and practice.

306 With the elements collected at SE and OE of Patients 1, 2 and 3 we can hypothesize that of a
 307 predominant neuropathic, nociceptive or nociplastic pain mechanism is present (see Figure 3).
 308 Of course, the clinical examples presented are a caricature that is quite clear and easy to
 309 differentiate. However, in clinical practice the distinction between these pain mechanisms is
 310 not so straightforward. Clinical reasoning is sometimes complex in patients with NRAP.
 311 Although identification of the predominant pain mechanism is essential for effective
 312 management, neuropathic, nociceptive or nociplastic pain may share several characteristics

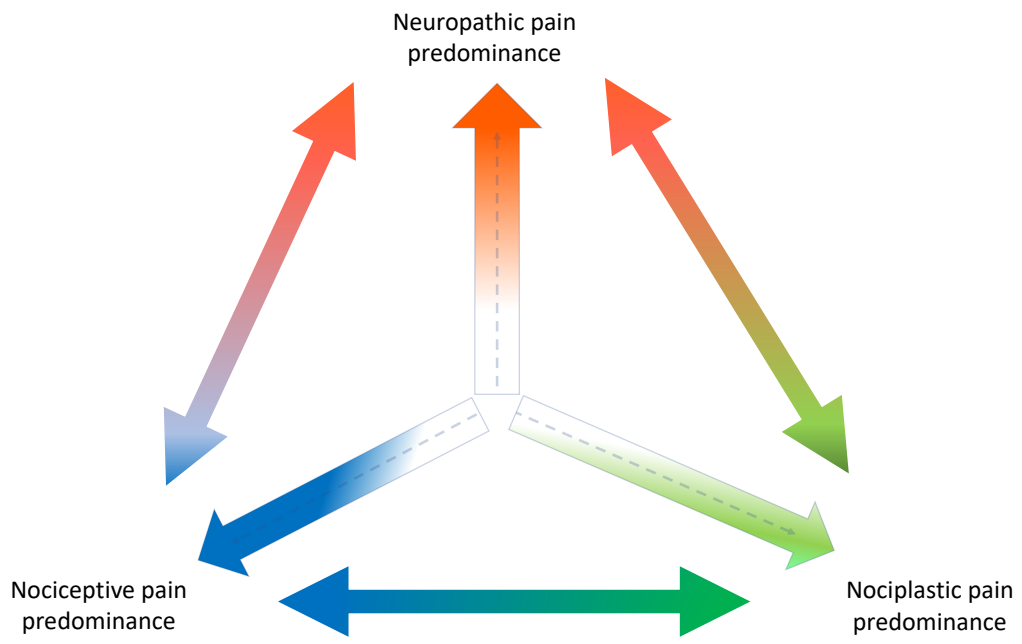
313 which may explain the difficulty in implementing mechanism-based treatment [14, 15, 21, 32].
314 Indeed, the trichotomous description of pain can be problematic because clinical descriptors,
315 signs, and symptoms can be confusing and overlapping [21, 39]: pure nociceptive or
316 neuropathic or nociplastic pain may actually be very rare in practice [21, 64]. The traditional
317 view that these three mechanisms are separate entities is questioned by some experts and may
318 be due to our propensity to classify items [14, 15, 21, 65]. According to this view, pain
319 mechanism should probably be considered as continuum (Figure 4) ?

320 Although the topography of neuropathic, nociceptive, and even nociplastic symptoms could be
321 similar, the description and behavior of pain must be complemented by a thorough objective
322 examination to differentiate the predominant pain mechanisms. We would also caution the
323 clinician (and student) who assesses only the topography of the pain (e.g., radiating into the
324 forearm). Although only 19.9% of CBP cases are factually neuropathic in origin [37], thorough
325 screening is necessary to optimally target therapeutic interventions. Importantly, diagnosing
326 referred somatic nociceptive pain as neuropathic pain should be avoided to prevent a nocebo
327 discourse, as treating a patient with neuropathic pain requires a more cautious approach.

328
329 Of course, pain predominance is not the only aspect that the therapist must assess. Analysis of
330 the multidimensional aspect, related to the patient's biopsychosocial sphere is important [16].
331 It makes explicit what is often implicit, and it includes different categories, such as contributing
332 factors, precautions and contraindications, and the patient's perspectives [66]. These categories
333 also known as "hypothesis families" [66] can be used to encourage the therapist to look behind
334 the potential patho-anatomic structure and to consider the different factors influencing the
335 patient's symptoms [66].

336 Clinicians should be aware that pain predominance can change over time and so assessing
337 patient's condition requires continuous reassessment at each visit through SE and OE to clarify
338 what the predominant pain mechanism is. Depending on the predominant pain mechanism,
339 adapted passive [31, 55, 62, 67] and active treatments [68, 69], as well as pain education to
340 reassure the patient about the pain experience [36] are carried out. The importance of research
341 in this field will continue to improve our understanding and management of patients.

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344 **Figure 4.** Naïve illustration of the continuum based on the pain predominance mechanisms. Side arrows indicate the continuum.

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