



Published in final edited form as:

J Anesth Transl Med. 2025 March ; 4(1): 1–5. doi:10.1016/j.jatmed.2025.02.003.

Interventional neuromodulation techniques for cervicogenic headache

Natali Ariyoshi^a, Emily Qian^b, Rifat Abliz^c, Qiliang Chen^{d,e,*}

^aDepartment of Chemistry and Biochemistry, University of Mississippi, Oxford, MS 38655, USA

^bDepartment of Bioengineering, University of California, Berkeley, Berkeley, CA 94720, USA

^cSchool of Medicine, West Virginia School of Osteopathic Medicine, Lewisburg, WV 24901, USA

^dDepartment of Anesthesiology, Perioperative and Pain Medicine, Stanford University, Stanford, CA 94305, USA

^eAnesthesiology Service, Veterans Affairs Palo Alto Health Care System, Palo Alto, CA 94304, USA

Abstract

Cervicogenic headache is a debilitating secondary headache condition that reduces the quality of life for many. Its etiology involves pathologies in one or more of the complex cervical structures, such as cervical muscles, ligaments, facet joints, intervertebral discs, and C1–3 nerve roots. Mainstream conservative treatments, such as medication and physical therapy, are designed to address these underlying pathologies. In addition, recent advancements in neurostimulation techniques can aid in treatment-resistant or intolerant cases. This narrative review aims to critically evaluate the current treatment options for cervicogenic headaches, with a special emphasis on the efficacy of novel neuromodulation techniques and identifying their strength and limitations in treating cervicogenic headaches.

Keywords

Cervicogenic headache; Neuromodulation; Interventional techniques; Pain management

This is an open access article under the CC BY license (<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

*Corresponding author at: Department of Anesthesiology, Perioperative and Pain Medicine, 300 Pasteur Drive, Room H3580 MC 5640, Stanford, CA 94305, USA. chenqi@stanford.edu (Q. Chen).

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Natali Ariyoshi: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Project administration, Investigation, Conceptualization.

Emily Qian: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Investigation. **Rifat Abliz:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Visualization, Investigation. **Qiliang Chen:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Supervision, Resources, Methodology, Investigation, Conceptualization. All authors have read and agreed to the published version of the manuscript.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Ethical statement

Not applicable.

Introduction

Headache is one of the most debilitating pain conditions, with a global prevalence of 47 %, resulting in significant reductions in quality of life and burdens to individual and societal productivity.^{1–6} Moreover, headache conditions often present with overlapping signs and symptoms, making them challenging to differentiate and treat.^{4,7–9} Causes of headache conditions are often complex and multifactorial. While many primary headache conditions, such as migraine or tension headache, have no clear causes, *cervicogenic headache*, in contrast, is secondary to sensitizations of various upper cervical structures and nociceptive afferents, including cervical muscles, ligaments, facet joints, intervertebral discs, and C1–3 nerve roots.^{10–13} Further convergence of additional afferents from the trigeminal nerves with the cervical input could also lead to central sensitization of the brainstem trigeminocervical complex (TCC).^{12,14,15} These pathologies could originate from trauma or sex/age-related changes. For example, recent analyses revealed that 15 % of cervicogenic headache patients had experienced previous cervical injuries, such as traumatic brain injury (TBI) or whiplash injury, and 42.8 % reported the pain began immediately after the trauma.^{16,17} Some evidence also suggests females are slightly more susceptible to developing cervicogenic headaches than males, with an overall prevalence of ~4 % and the average age of onset being 32.2 years.^{18,19} These degenerative changes form the pathophysiological basis of cervicogenic headache symptoms, which allows clinicians to diagnose cervicogenic headaches based on history, physical examination, and imaging. Unlike other headache disorders, such as migraine or tension headache, cervicogenic headaches typically originate from the neck (unilateral or bilateral), affecting the high cervical, occiput, parietal, and facial regions. These headaches can be exacerbated by cervical movements, and can be alleviated with blocking cervical afferents or addressing the underlying cervical pathologies.^{20,21}

Pharmacological treatments for cervicogenic headaches are commonly centered on targeting the inflammatory, neuropathic, and central aspects of disease pathophysiology (Table 1). These include non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs), triptans, beta-blockers, anticonvulsants, and even opioids.^{22–26} However, long-term usage of these medications may lead to medication-overuse headaches (MOH) and dependence.^{22,24,27,28} In addition, concurrent physical therapy (PT) is often necessary and has been shown to be beneficial for managing cervicogenic headaches by addressing the musculoskeletal co-contributors of the disease, such as relieving muscle tension, improving range of motion and correcting poor posture.^{29–33} Nonetheless, patient participation is essential for PT and medication management. However, the severity of the headache symptoms and the ability to tolerate treatment side effects can sometimes limit effective pain control and rehabilitation.^{29,31}

For patients who are resistant or cannot tolerate conservative management, novel neuromodulation techniques could be used as either primary analgesics or adjuncts to help facilitate pain control and rehabilitation. The goal of this narrative review is to summarize and evaluate the currently available and recent advancements in neuromodulation modalities for treating cervicogenic headaches.

Utilizing neuromodulation for treating cervicogenic headache

The mechanism of neuromodulation treatments is centered on modulating or dampening the abnormal neural activities underlying chronic headache disorders by targeting peripheral and central nociceptive pathways. These modulations of abnormal activities, in turn, reduce pain symptoms by altering the action and release of central and peripheral neurotransmitters, enhancing the spinal cord inhibitory activities and decreasing nociceptive transmission.^{34–36} Depending on the cervicogenic pathophysiology and stimulation protocols, the pain-relief effects may persist beyond the stimulation phase, leading to a reduction in both the intensity and frequency of headaches in some cases.^{34,36} The following section will critically review both non-invasive and invasive neuromodulation treatment options for cervicogenic headaches (Table 2 for summary).

Non-invasive neuromodulation treatment options

Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS): Transcranial Magnetic Stimulation (TMS) is a non-invasive technique involving stimulation of the brain regions through electromagnetic induction.³⁷ By using an external coiled wire positioned on the scalp, a fluctuating magnetic field triggers targeted action potentials in brain regions of interest.³⁷ Clinically, repetitive TMS has been used to treat chronic pain and depression by delivering repetitive pulses to modulate neural activity in the motor and dorsolateral prefrontal cortex.^{38–41} The analgesic benefit is thought to be attributed to its action on the central nociceptive pathways and neurotransmitters, such as brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF).^{38,39} Intriguingly, repetitive TMS has been explored in secondary headaches after traumatic brain injuries and the associated whiplash injuries. For example, an expert panel from the International Neuromodulation Society found strong clinical evidence supporting the use of TMS on the motor cortex for headaches and craniofacial pain after TBI.⁴² Although high-quality direct evidence of TMS's therapeutic effect on cervicogenic headaches is lacking, the close relationship between TBI and cervicogenic headaches suggests that TMS could be useful as an adjunct treatment.⁴³

Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS): Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS) has also been trialed in a number of primary and secondary headache conditions, including cervicogenic headaches, with some success. Stimulation of the prefrontal and motor cortex regions is believed to enhance descending pain modulation and reduce pain perception.^{44,45} This stimulation modality has been shown to be beneficial in post-TBI headache and chronic migraine, reducing immediate post-treatment pain severity and the number of headache days.^{46,47} The benefits of tDCSs for cervicogenic headaches appear to be derived from facilitating effective PT. Small-scale studies demonstrated that concurrent tDCS and craniocervical PT exercises resulted in a significantly greater improvement in pain level, disability index, and patient-reported comfort compared to PT alone in patients suffering from cervicogenic headaches.⁴⁸ These positive responses prompt future ongoing double-blind randomized control trials to comprehensively assess the clinical effects of tDCS in cervicogenic headache patients, such as changes in pain, strength, function, and quality of life.⁴⁹

Transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation (tVNS): In recent years, non-invasive cutaneous approaches to stimulate the vagus nerve have been experimented on a wide range of conditions, such as heart failure, Alzheimer's disease, obesity, tinnitus, chronic pain, and headaches.^{50–56} Transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation (tVNS) can be achieved via either electrode or surface stimulation of the cervical vagus nerve or the auricular branch of the vagus nerve, which is thought to regulate autonomic and nociceptive transmission and, in turn, relieve pain symptoms.^{57–64} Observational, open-label studies have shown the efficacy of non-invasive VNS in treating migraines, with pain relief achieved in 40–65 % of the total enrolled patients suffering from either chronic migraine pain or high-frequency episodic migraine (HFEM).⁶⁵ In a recent open-label randomized controlled trial, significant reductions of headache days are observed in chronic migraine patients after being treated with tVNS in a dose-dependent manner (e.g., an average reduction of 3.9 headache days in patients who completed 4 months of tVNS, and a 7.9 headache day reduction in patients who completed 8 months of tVNS).⁶⁶ Similar therapeutic outcomes are also observed in cluster headache treatments (e.g., headache frequency reduction from 4.5/day to 2.6/day).⁶⁷ Although evidence of tVNS has proven to be beneficial in patients suffering from various primary headaches, studies on cervicogenic headaches are limited. However, some studies have shown the efficacy of nVNS in improving overall pain, cognition, and memory for patients with traumatic brain injuries.⁶⁸ Given the increased prevalence of cervicogenic headaches and cervicalgia after traumatic brain injuries, potential therapeutic roles for nVNS in treating cervicogenic headaches may be established.^{68–70}

Transcutaneous supraorbital nerve stimulation (tSNS): Transcutaneous supraorbital neurostimulation (tSNS) is another non-invasive neuromodulation technique for chronic headache management.⁷¹ The underlying therapeutic mechanisms are proposed to be the result of increasing the activation threshold of trigeminal afferents, especially Aδ and C fibers.^{72–76} A randomized controlled trial demonstrated the efficacy and safety of tSNS in reducing migraine days, migraine effects, and total headache days in a 3-month period. Total headache days have the most significant reduction in the treatment group compared to controls (–32.7 % vs –4.1 %). Also, the long-term efficacy in headache prevention and reduction of migraine days is superior in the tSNS-treated group when compared to the sham.^{77,78} Furthermore, there are observational and randomized controlled trials have demonstrated the use of supraorbital nerve stimulation in treating trigeminal neuropathic pain and supraorbital neuralgia.⁷⁹ For example, Amin and colleagues demonstrated a 60 % pain reduction with tSNS treatment in patients suffering from supraorbital neuralgia, who also reported reductions in opioid usage at 30-week follow-up.⁸⁰ Given the significant involvement of the trigeminal afferents in cervicogenic headache, tSNS could be a potential neuromodulation treatment option. However, further research studies are needed to establish treatment efficacy specifically for cervicogenic headache.

Invasive neuromodulation treatment options

Radiofrequency neuromodulation of cervical nerve roots and branches: Direct neuromodulation of the TCC afferents, such as cervical medial branches, has long been utilized for cervicogenic headache treatment. For example, percutaneous pulsed radiofrequency ablation treatment (pRF) utilizes electrical burst current to modulate afferent

activities of the cervical medial branches and nerve roots contributing to the headache.⁸¹ Two minutes of pRF treatment on C3–5 medial branches has been shown to be sufficient to provide significant headache relief, which was thought to be achieved by desensitizing the pathological facet joints and relaxing the cervical muscles.⁸² Supported by similar concepts, pRF on C2 dorsal root ganglion (C2-DRG), which contributes to the cervical plexus and the occipital nerves, has been applied to cervicogenic headache management with pain relief lasting up to 6 months.⁸³

On the contrary, thermal radiofrequency ablation (RFA), which creates heat-induced coagulative necrosis of the targeted nerves,⁸⁴ has also been utilized in cervical nerve roots and branches, although the efficacy for cervicogenic headache relief appears variable. Both isolated case series and systematic reviews showed significant pain relief (e.g., > 50 %) immediately following cervical medial branches or nerve root RFA for cervicogenic headaches.^{85–87} However, most of these studies demonstrated a range of long-term benefits, ranging from 2 weeks to 3 months.^{85–87}

Greater occipital nerve/C2 nerve root stimulator implant: Since pain in the occipital region is one of the defining features of cervicogenic headache, the greater occipital nerves (GON), which come off from the C2 nerve root, have been viewed as a favorable target for neuromodulation and altering the TCC pain processing.^{88–91} Most of the clinical data for GON stimulator implants were generated for migraine and cluster headaches, with most evidence showing significant long-term clinical benefits for these conditions.^{92–94} Furthermore, a recent technical note describing a novel “Q2 approach” for C2-DRG stimulator implants demonstrated a greater than 50 % pain reduction in patients with medically refractory, intractable headaches.⁹⁵

The clinical significance of GON stimulator implants was recently explored by Egtesadi and colleagues in a case series of sixteen patients with moderate to severe treatment-resistant cervicogenic headaches.⁹⁶ Notably, 11 out of 16 of these patients reported more than 50 % pain relief and quality of life improvement at the 1-year follow-up, without severe adverse effects reported by any patients at the 3-year follow-up. Five out of seven patients who were previously disabled had returned to work, supporting the use of GON stimulators in treating refractory cervicogenic headaches.⁹⁶ However, given the multifactorial nature of cervicogenic headaches, future large-scale, high-quality studies are urgently needed to further define the stimulation parameters and patient selection before GON/C2-DRG stimulator implants can be widely adopted.

Spinal cord stimulator implants: Spinal cord stimulation (SCS) implant is another form of invasive neuromodulation therapy for the treatment of cervical pain.⁹⁷ It involves the implantation of leads into the epidural space, typically in high cervical structures, to target the TCC and disrupt nociceptive signaling.⁹⁸ Most studies involving SCS for migraines and cluster headaches, when pharmacotherapy proved insufficient, showed a near-immediate decrease in pain and intensity of attacks. This led to improvements in quality of life, demonstrating the efficacy of SCS.^{97,99,100} One case study from 2005 reported using SCS to treat post-traumatic cervicogenic headaches specifically and demonstrated more than 4 years of sustained pain relief with intermittent cord stimulations.¹⁰¹ However, further research

should be conducted on SCS for headaches as the current literature is limited to case reports and low-quality evidence for specific headache types.

Conclusions

The pathophysiology of cervicogenic headaches is often multifactorial, which can be attributed to pathologies in the peripheral cervical structures as well as sensitization of the central TCC nociceptive pathways. While PT and medication remain the first line of management for cervicogenic headaches, recent advancements offer viable alternatives or adjuncts for patients who cannot tolerate first-line treatment. Although both non-invasive and invasive neuromodulation treatments have shown favorable short-term benefits, the evidence is limited to small-scale case series and non-blinded randomized controlled trials. Furthermore, their respective mechanism and efficacy for different cervicogenic headache types are not well-differentiated and characterized, making it difficult to derive effective treatment algorithms for these neuromodulation techniques. To overcome these obstacles, it is thus critically important for future studies to investigate the underlying mechanisms of these neuromodulation techniques and their specific applications in patient populations with different primary headache pathologies.

Funding

This research was supported by the VA Career Development Award IK2BX006567 from the United States (U.S.) Department of Veterans Affairs Biomedical Laboratory Research and Development Service to Qiliang Chen.

Data availability

All data cited in this review are publicly available through the original publications listed in the references.

References

1. Stovner LJ, Hagen K. Prevalence, burden, and cost of headache disorders. *Curr Opin Neurol.* 2006;19(3):281–285. [PubMed: 16702836]
2. Stovner L, Hagen K, Jensen R, et al. The global burden of headache: a documentation of headache prevalence and disability worldwide. *Cephalalgia.* 2007;27(3):193–210. [PubMed: 17381554]
3. Stovner LJ, Andree C. Prevalence of headache in Europe: a review for the Eurolight project. *J Headache Pain.* 2010;11(4):289–299. [PubMed: 20473702]
4. Anarte-Lazo E, Carvalho GF, Schwarz A, et al. Differentiating migraine, cervicogenic headache and asymptomatic individuals based on physical examination findings: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMC Musculoskelet Disord.* 2021;22(1):755. [PubMed: 34479514]
5. Jensen R, Stovner LJ. Epidemiology and comorbidity of headache. *Lancet Neurol.* 2008;7(4):354–361. [PubMed: 18339350]
6. Lu Z, Zou H, Zhao P, et al. Myofascial release for the treatment of tension-type, cervicogenic headache or migraine: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pain Res Manag.* 2024;2024:2042069. [PubMed: 38585645]
7. Becker WJ. Cervicogenic headache: evidence that the neck is a pain generator. *Headache.* 2010;50(4):699–705. [PubMed: 20456156]
8. Blumenfeld A, Siavoshi S. The challenges of cervicogenic headache. *Curr Pain Headache Rep.* 2018;22(7):47. [PubMed: 29900508]

9. Pfaffenrath V, Kaube H. Diagnostics of cervicogenic headache. *Funct Neurol*. 1990;5(2):159–164. [PubMed: 2227537]
10. Demont A, Lafrance S, Benaissa L, et al. Cervicogenic headache, an easy diagnosis? A systematic review and meta-analysis of diagnostic studies. *Musculoskelet Sci Pract*. 2022;62:102640. [PubMed: 36088782]
11. Sjaastad O, Saunte C, Hovdahl H, et al. “Cervicogenic” headache. An hypothesis. *Cephalalgia*. 1983;3(4):249–256. [PubMed: 6640659]
12. Verma S, Tripathi M, Chandra PS. Cervicogenic headache: current perspectives. *Neurol India*. 2021;69(Suppl):S194–S198. [PubMed: 34003165]
13. Govind J, Bogduk N. Sources of cervicogenic headache among the upper cervical synovial joints. *Pain Med*. 2022;23(6):1059–1065. [PubMed: 33484154]
14. Bogduk N The neck and headaches. *Neurol Clin*. 2014;32(2):471–487. [PubMed: 24703540]
15. Kerr FW. Structural relation of the trigeminal spinal tract to upper cervical roots and the solitary nucleus in the cat. *Exp Neurol*. 1961;4:134–148. [PubMed: 13752664]
16. Vincent MB. Headache and neck. *Curr Pain Headache Rep*. 2011;15(4):324–331. [PubMed: 21465114]
17. Vincent MB. Is a de novo whiplash-associated pain most commonly cervicogenic headache? *Cephalalgia*. 2008;28(1):32–34. [PubMed: 18494993]
18. Sjaastad O Cervicogenic headache: comparison with migraine without aura; Vaga study. *Cephalalgia*. 2008;28(1):18–20.
19. Sjaastad O, Bakkeiteig LS. Prevalence of cervicogenic headache: vaga study of headache epidemiology. *Acta Neurol Scand*. 2008;117(3):173–180. [PubMed: 18031563]
20. Sjaastad O, Fredriksen TA, Pfaffenrath V. Cervicogenic headache: diagnostic criteria. The Cervicogenic Headache International Study Group. *Headache*. 1998;38(6):442–445. [PubMed: 9664748]
21. Headache Classification Committee of the International Headache Society (IHS). The International Classification of Headache Disorders, 3rd edition. *Cephalalgia*. 2018;38(1):1–211.
22. Peck J, Urits I, Zeien J, et al. A comprehensive review of over-the-counter treatment for chronic migraine headaches. *Curr Pain Headache Rep*. 2020;24(5):19. [PubMed: 32200435]
23. Derry S, Wiffen PJ, Moore RA. Aspirin for acute treatment of episodic tension-type headache in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2017;1(1):CD011888. [PubMed: 28084009]
24. Weatherall MW. Drug therapy in headache. *Clin Med*. 2015;15(3):273–279.
25. Danesh A, Gottschalk PCH. Beta-blockers for migraine prevention: a review article. *Curr Treat Options Neurol*. 2019;21(4):20. [PubMed: 30903383]
26. Derry CJ, Derry S, Moore RA. Sumatriptan (oral route of administration) for acute migraine attacks in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2012;2012(2):CD008615. [PubMed: 22336849]
27. Bonafede M, Wilson K, Xue F. Long-term treatment patterns of prophylactic and acute migraine medications and incidence of opioid-related adverse events in patients with migraine. *Cephalalgia*. 2019;39(9):1086–1098. [PubMed: 30818974]
28. Vandebussche N, Laterza D, Lisicki M, et al. Medication-overuse headache: a widely recognized entity amidst ongoing debate. *J Headache Pain*. 2018;19(1):50. [PubMed: 30003412]
29. Fernandez-de-Las-Penas C, Cuadrado ML. Physical therapy for headaches. *Cephalalgia*. 2016;36(12):1134–1142. [PubMed: 26660851]
30. Racicki S, Gerwin S, Diclaudio S, et al. Conservative physical therapy management for the treatment of cervicogenic headache: a systematic review. *J Man Manip Ther*. 2013;21(2):113–124. [PubMed: 24421621]
31. Nunez-Cabaleiro P, Leiros-Rodriguez R. Effectiveness of manual therapy in the treatment of cervicogenic headache: a systematic review. *Headache*. 2022;62(3):271–283. [PubMed: 35294051]
32. Carvalho GF, Schwarz A, Szikszay TM, et al. Physical therapy and migraine: musculoskeletal and balance dysfunctions and their relevance for clinical practice. *Braz J Phys Ther*. 2020;24(4):306–317. [PubMed: 31813696]
33. Page P Cervicogenic headaches: an evidence-led approach to clinical management. *Int J Sports Phys Ther*. 2011;6(3):254–266. [PubMed: 22034615]

34. Knotkova H, Hamani C, Sivanesan E, et al. Neuromodulation for chronic pain. *Lancet*. 2021;397(10289):2111–2124. [PubMed: 34062145]
35. Jenkins B, Tepper SJ. Neurostimulation for primary headache disorders, part 1: pathophysiology and anatomy, history of neuromodulation in headache treatment, and review of peripheral neuromodulation in primary headaches. *Headache*. 2011;51(8):1254–1266. [PubMed: 21815889]
36. Coppola G, Magis D, Casillo F, et al. Neuromodulation for chronic daily headache. *Curr Pain Headache Rep*. 2022;26(3):267–278. [PubMed: 35129825]
37. Burke MJ, Fried PJ, Pascual-Leone A. Transcranial magnetic stimulation: neurophysiological and clinical applications. *Handb Clin Neurol*. 2019;163:73–92. [PubMed: 31590749]
38. Bai YW, Yang QH, Chen PJ, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation regulates neuroinflammation in neuropathic pain. *Front Immunol*. 2023;14:1172293. [PubMed: 37180127]
39. Seminowicz DA, Moayed M. The dorsolateral prefrontal cortex in acute and chronic pain. *J Pain*. 2017;18(9):1027–1035. [PubMed: 28400293]
40. Tomeh A, Yusof Khan AHK, Inche Mat LN, et al. Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation of the primary motor cortex beyond motor rehabilitation: a review of the current evidence. *Brain Sci*. 2022;12(6).
41. Klomjai W, Katz R, Lackmy-Vallee A. Basic principles of transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS) and repetitive TMS (rTMS). *Ann Phys Rehabil Med*. 2015;58(4):208–213. [PubMed: 26319963]
42. Leung A, Shirvalkar P, Chen R, et al. Transcranial magnetic stimulation for pain, headache, and comorbid depression: INS-NANS expert consensus panel review and recommendation. *Neuromodulation*. 2020;23(3):267–290. [PubMed: 32212288]
43. Morin M, Langevin P, Fait P. Cervical spine involvement in mild traumatic brain injury: a review. *J Sports Med (Hindawi Publ Corp)*. 2016;2016:1590161. [PubMed: 27529079]
44. Pacheco-Barrios K, Cardenas-Rojas A, Thibaut A, et al. Methods and strategies of tDCS for the treatment of pain: current status and future directions. *Expert Rev Med Devices*. 2020;17(9):879–898. [PubMed: 32845195]
45. Meeker TJ, Keaser ML, Khan SA, et al. Non-invasive motor cortex neuromodulation reduces secondary hyperalgesia and enhances activation of the descending pain modulatory network. *Front Neurosci*. 2019;13:467. [PubMed: 31139047]
46. Alhassani G, Treleaven J, Schabrun SSM. Combined transcranial and trans-spinal direct current stimulation in chronic headache: a feasibility and safety trial for a novel intervention. *Hong Kong Physiother J*. 2017;37:1–9. [PubMed: 30931040]
47. Charvet L, Harrison AT, Mangold K, et al. Remotely supervised at-home tDCS for veterans with persistent post-traumatic headache: a double-blind, sham-controlled randomized pilot clinical trial. *Front Neurol*. 2023;14:1184056. [PubMed: 37213913]
48. Park SK, Yang DJ, Kim JH, et al. Effects of cranio-cervical flexion with transcranial direct current stimulation on muscle activity and neck functions in patients with cervicogenic headache. *J Phys Ther Sci*. 2019;31(1):24–28. [PubMed: 30774200]
49. Jobin K, Campbell C, Schabrun SM, et al. The safety and feasibility of transcranial direct current stimulation combined with conservative treatment for patients with cervicogenic headaches: a double-blinded randomized control study protocol. *Contemp Clin Trials Commun*. 2024;42:101370. [PubMed: 39391228]
50. Clancy JA, Mary DA, Witte KK, et al. Non-invasive vagus nerve stimulation in healthy humans reduces sympathetic nerve activity. *Brain Stimul*. 2014;7(6):871–877. [PubMed: 25164906]
51. De Ferrari GM, Crijns HJ, Borggrefe M, et al. Chronic vagus nerve stimulation: a new and promising therapeutic approach for chronic heart failure. *Eur Heart J*. 2011;32(7):847–855. [PubMed: 21030409]
52. De Herdt V, Bogaert S, Bracke KR, et al. Effects of vagus nerve stimulation on pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokine induction in patients with refractory epilepsy. *J Neuroimmunol*. 2009;214(1–2):104–108. [PubMed: 19608283]
53. Merrill CA, Jonsson MA, Minthon L, et al. Vagus nerve stimulation in patients with Alzheimer's disease: additional follow-up results of a pilot study through 1 year. *J Clin Psychiatry*. 2006;67(8):1171–1178. [PubMed: 16965193]

54. Val-Laillet D, Biraben A, Randuineau G, et al. Chronic vagus nerve stimulation decreased weight gain, food consumption and sweet craving in adult obese minipigs. *Appetite*. 2010;55(2):245–252. [PubMed: 20600417]
55. Kirchner A, Birklein F, Stefan H, et al. Left vagus nerve stimulation suppresses experimentally induced pain. *Neurology*. 2000;55(8):1167–1171. [PubMed: 11071495]
56. Engineer ND, Riley JR, Seale JD, et al. Reversing pathological neural activity using targeted plasticity. *Nature*. 2011;470(7332):101–104. [PubMed: 21228773]
57. Duff IT, Likar R, Perruchoud C, et al. Clinical efficacy of auricular vagus nerve stimulation in the treatment of chronic and acute pain: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Pain Ther*. 2014;470(13):1407–1427. 10.1007/s40122-024-00657-8
58. Komisaruk BR, Frangos E. Vagus nerve afferent stimulation: projection into the brain, reflexive physiological, perceptual, and behavioral responses, and clinical relevance. *Auton Neurosci*. 2022;237:102908. [PubMed: 34823149]
59. Kaniusas E, Kampusch S, Tittgemeyer M, et al. Current directions in the auricular vagus nerve stimulation I - a physiological perspective. *Front Neurosci*. 2019;13:854. [PubMed: 31447643]
60. Sclocco R, Garcia RG, Kettner NW, et al. Stimulus frequency modulates brainstem response to respiratory-gated transcutaneous auricular vagus nerve stimulation. *Brain Stimul*. 2020;13(4):970–978. [PubMed: 32380448]
61. Frangos E, Richards EA, Bushnell MC. Do the psychological effects of vagus nerve stimulation partially mediate vagal pain modulation? *Neurobiol Pain*. 2017;1:37–45. [PubMed: 29057372]
62. Ramos-Martinez IE, Rodriguez MC, Cerbon M, et al. Role of the cholinergic anti-inflammatory reflex in central nervous system diseases. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2021;22:13427. 10.3390/ijms222413427 [PubMed: 34948222]
63. Bantel C, Trapp S. The role of the autonomic nervous system in acute surgical pain processing - what do we know? *Anaesthesia*. 2011;66(7):541–544. [PubMed: 21627623]
64. Kyle BN, McNeil DW. Autonomic arousal and experimentally induced pain: a critical review of the literature. *Pain Res Manag*. 2014;19(3):159–167. [PubMed: 24533429]
65. Barbanti P, Grazi L, Egeo G, et al. Non-invasive vagus nerve stimulation for acute treatment of high-frequency and chronic migraine: an open-label study. *J Headache Pain*. 2015;16:61. [PubMed: 26123825]
66. Silberstein SD, Calhoun AH, Lipton RB, et al. Chronic migraine headache prevention with noninvasive vagus nerve stimulation: the EVENT study. *Neurology*. 2016;87(5):529–538. [PubMed: 27412146]
67. Nesbitt AD, Marin JC, Tompkins E, et al. Initial use of a novel noninvasive vagus nerve stimulator for cluster headache treatment. *Neurology*. 2015;84(12):1249–1253. [PubMed: 25713002]
68. Hakon J, Moghiseh M, Poulsen I, et al. Transcutaneous vagus nerve stimulation in patients with severe traumatic brain injury: a feasibility trial. *Neuromodulation*. 2020;23(6):859–864. [PubMed: 32227429]
69. Dwyer B, Zasler N. Post-traumatic cephalalgia. *NeuroRehabilitation*. 2020;47(3):327–342. [PubMed: 32986623]
70. Hage D, Mathkour M, Iwanaga J, et al. The posterior cranial fossa's dura mater innervation and its clinical implication in headache: a comprehensive review. *Folia Morphol*. 2022;81(4):843–850.
71. Ivan E, Martinsen B, Igyarto Z, et al. Peripheral artery disease in vulnerable patient populations: outcomes of orbital atherectomy in native Americans compared to non-native Americans. a single-center experience in rural Oklahoma. *Cardiovasc Revasc Med*. 2021;22:71–77. [PubMed: 32651160]
72. Thomas C, Truong DQ, Lee K, et al. Determination of current flow induced by transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation for the treatment of migraine: potential for optimization. *Front Pain Res*. 2021;2:753454.
73. Riederer F, Penning S, Schoenen J. Transcutaneous supraorbital nerve stimulation (t-SNS) with the cefaly((R)) device for migraine prevention: a review of the available data. *Pain Ther*. 2015;4(2):135–147. [PubMed: 26467451]
74. Zhu S, Marmura MJ. Non-invasive neuromodulation for headache disorders. *Curr Neurol Neurosci Rep*. 2016;16(2):11. [PubMed: 26750126]

75. Sluka KA, Judge MA, McColley MM, et al. Low frequency TENS is less effective than high frequency TENS at reducing inflammation-induced hyperalgesia in morphine-tolerant rats. *Eur J Pain*. 2000;4(2):185–193. [PubMed: 10957699]
76. Vecchio E, Gentile E, Franco G, et al. Effects of external trigeminal nerve stimulation (eTNS) on laser evoked cortical potentials (LEP): a pilot study in migraine patients and controls. *Cephalalgia*. 2018;38(7):1245–1256. [PubMed: 28856913]
77. Schoenen J, Vandersmissen B, Jeanette S, et al. Migraine prevention with a supraorbital transcutaneous stimulator: a randomized controlled trial. *Neurology*. 2013;80(8):697–704. [PubMed: 23390177]
78. Haane DY, Koehler PJ. Nociception specific supraorbital nerve stimulation may prevent cluster headache attacks: serendipity in a blink reflex study. *Cephalalgia*. 2014;34(11):920–926. [PubMed: 24615705]
79. Zhou S, Hussain N, Abd-Elsayed A, et al. Peripheral nerve stimulation for treatment of headaches: an evidence-based review. *Biomedicines*. 2021;9:101370. 10.3390/biomedicines9111588
80. Amin S, Buvanendran A, Park KS, et al. Peripheral nerve stimulator for the treatment of supraorbital neuralgia: a retrospective case series. *Cephalalgia*. 2008;28(4):355–359. [PubMed: 18279430]
81. Jorge DMF, Huber SC, Rodrigues BL, et al. The mechanism of action between pulsed radiofrequency and orthobiologics: is there a synergistic effect? *Int J Mol Sci*. 2022;23(19).
82. Park MS, Choi HJ, Yang JS, et al. Clinical efficacy of pulsed radiofrequency treatment targeting the mid-cervical medial branches for intractable cervicogenic headache. *Clin J Pain*. 2021;37(3):206–210. [PubMed: 33346997]
83. Zhang J, Shi DS, Wang R. Pulsed radiofrequency of the second cervical ganglion (C2) for the treatment of cervicogenic headache. *J Headache Pain*. 2011;12(5):569–571. [PubMed: 21611808]
84. Odonkor CA, Tang T, Taftian D, et al. Bilateral intra-articular radiofrequency ablation for cervicogenic headache. *Case Rep Anesth*. 2017;2017:1483279.
85. Stovner LJ, Kolstad F, Helde G. Radiofrequency denervation of facet joints C2–C6 in cervicogenic headache: a randomized, double-blind, sham-controlled study. *Cephalalgia*. 2004;24(10):821–830. [PubMed: 15377312]
86. Hamer JF, Purath TA. Response of cervicogenic headaches and occipital neuralgia to radiofrequency ablation of the C2 dorsal root ganglion and/or third occipital nerve. *Headache*. 2014;54(3):500–510. [PubMed: 24433241]
87. Orhurhu V, Huang L, Quispe RC, et al. Use of radiofrequency ablation for the management of headache: a systematic review. *Pain Physician*. 2021;24(7):E973–E987. [PubMed: 34704708]
88. Bari AA, Pouratian N. Brain imaging correlates of peripheral nerve stimulation. *Surg Neurol Int*. 2012;3(4):S260–S268. [PubMed: 23230531]
89. Picaza JA, Hunter SE, Cannon BW. Pain suppression by peripheral nerve stimulation. Chronic effects of implanted devices. *Appl Neurophysiol*. 1977;40(2–4):223–234. [PubMed: 309314]
90. Kenney-Jung DL, Blacker CJ, Camsari DD, et al. Transcranial direct current stimulation: mechanisms and psychiatric applications. *Child Adolesc Psychiatr Clin N Am*. 2019;28(1):53–60. [PubMed: 30389076]
91. Nesbitt JB. Let's not overmedicalize. *Arch Intern Med*. 1991;151(6):1237–1238.
92. Gupta R, Fisher K, Pyati S. Chronic headache: a review of interventional treatment strategies in headache management. *Curr Pain Headache Rep*. 2019;23(9):68. [PubMed: 31359257]
93. Brandt RB, Wilbrink LA, de Coo IF, et al. A prospective open label 2–8 year extension of the randomised controlled ICON trial on the long-term efficacy and safety of occipital nerve stimulation in medically intractable chronic cluster headache. *eBioMedicine*. 2023;98:104895. [PubMed: 38007947]
94. Wilbrink LA, de Coo IF, Doesborg PGG, et al. Safety and efficacy of occipital nerve stimulation for attack prevention in medically intractable chronic cluster headache (ICON): a randomised, double-blind, multicentre, phase 3, electrical dose-controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol*. 2021;20(7):515–525. [PubMed: 34146510]

95. Chen Q, Qian X. The Q2-approach for percutaneous peripheral neuromodulation stimulator implant targeting C2 dorsal root ganglion at C2 lamina for treating intractable headache: a technical note. *Pain Med.* 2025;26(3):140–145. 10.1093/pm/pnae113 [PubMed: 39520408]
96. Eghtesadi M, Leroux E, Fournier-Gosselin MP, et al. Neurostimulation for refractory cervicogenic headache: a three-year retrospective study. *Neuromodulation.* 2018;21(3):302–309. [PubMed: 29178511]
97. Reffat N, Pusec C, Price S, et al. Neuromodulation techniques for headache management. *Life.* 2024;14(2).
98. Towne BV, Girgiss CB, Schuster NM. Use of spinal cord stimulation in treatment of intractable headache diseases. *Pain Med.* 2023;24(suppl_2):S6–S10. [PubMed: 37833045]
99. Finnern MT, D'Souza RS, Jin MY, et al. Cervical spinal cord stimulation for the treatment of headache disorders: a systematic review. *Neuromodulation.* 2023;26(7):1309–1318. [PubMed: 36513586]
100. Evers S, Summ O. Neurostimulation treatment in chronic cluster headache-a narrative review. *Curr Pain Headache Rep.* 2021;25(12):81. [PubMed: 34894300]
101. Dario A, Scamoni C, Peron S, et al. A case of post-traumatic cervicogenic headache treated by cervical cord stimulation. *J Headache Pain.* 2005;6(6):473. [PubMed: 16388345]

Table 1

Pharmacological treatments for headaches.

Use Case	Medication	Possible adverse effects/risks
First Line Treatment (mild to moderate headache)	Over the Counter (OTC) Medication	
	• Acetaminophen/Paracetamol	Headache, insomnia, nausea, vomiting, constipation, itching
	• Ibuprofen (NSAID)	Gastric ulcers, rash, heartburn, nausea, vomiting
	• Naproxen (NSAID)	Dizziness, headache, bruising, heartburn, gastric ulcers, gastrointestinal bleeding
	• Aspirin	Peptic ulcers, bleeding, nephrotoxicity
Acute/Prophylactic Treatment (moderate to severe headache)	• Compound Drug (Aspirin, Acetaminophen, and Caffeine)	Arrhythmias, acute liver failure, salicylate toxicity
	Prescription Medication	
	• OTC at higher doses	Same effects as listed
	• Triptans	Nausea, tight/burning sensations, adverse cardiovascular effect
	• β -blockers	Fatigue, dizziness, insomnia, depression, decreased libido
	• Anticonvulsants	Paresthesia, fatigue, weight loss, hair loss, kidney stones, cognitive problems, depression, psychosis
	• Opioids	Constipation, tolerance, high risk of dependence, addiction and medication overuse headache

Table 2
Summary of non-invasive and invasive neuromodulation techniques for cervicogenic headache.

Non-Invasive Methods	Mechanisms of Action
• Transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS)	Stimulation of a targeted brain region through electromagnetic induction
• Transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS)	Stimulation of a targeted brain region through induced current
• Transcutaneous Vagus nerve stimulation (tVNS)	Stimulation of cervical or auricular branch of the vagus nerve to regulate autonomic and nociceptive transmission
• Transcutaneous supraorbital nerve stimulation (tSNS)	Stimulation of supraorbital sensory fibers to modulate trigeminal afferents
Invasive Methods	Mechanisms of Action
• Radiofrequency neuromodulation or ablation of cervical nerve roots and medial branches	Usage of electrical current to modulate afferent activities that contribute to the headache
• Greater occipital nerve stimulator implant	Stimulation of the occipital nerve/C2 afferents to modulate occipital afferents and the trigeminocervical complex (TCC) neural pathway
• Spinal cord stimulator implant	Implantation of epidural leads that target the trigeminocervical complex, disrupting nociceptive head pain signaling