

Case Report # ____

Stop the Spinning: An Approach to the Dizzy Patient

Candidate # ____

Category B: Ocular Disease / Surgery

Topic V: Diagnosis & Management of Ocular Disease – Posterior Segment

Submission Date: ____

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 **Purpose:** The purpose of this article is to offer the eye care provider a systemic approach to the dizzy
3 patient.

4 **Case report:** A 50-year-old Caucasian male presented for an ocular examination with the complaints of
5 periodic dizziness and diplopia. Ophthalmic findings and subsequent testing revealed undiagnosed
6 multiple sclerosis.

7 **Discussion:** A systematic approach to the dizzy patient with attention to the history and examination red
8 flags is important to correctly diagnose the underlying etiology.

9 **Conclusion:** Communication of ophthalmic findings with the healthcare team is invaluable for accurate
10 diagnosis, treatment, and management.

11 **Key Words:** *Dizziness, vertigo, diplopia, nystagmus, multiple sclerosis*

12

13 **INTRODUCTION**

14 Dizziness is a term used to describe a variety of symptomatology including lightheadedness,
15 presyncope, disequilibrium, and vertigo.¹ Vertigo and dizziness account for 2.5% of US emergency
16 department visits per year.² This is an estimated 3.9 million encounters.³ Genetic factors may play a
17 role the development as in Ménière disease and migraine. The most common risk factors include
18 advancing age and previous dizziness episode. Symptoms include painless head discomfort as in
19 lightheadedness, feeling like one is going to pass out as in presyncope, feeling off balance as in
20 disequilibrium, or feeling like the environment is spinning as in vertigo. Associated causes are
21 generalized to inner ear problems, neurologic, cardiac, and psychiatric conditions, medications, blood
22 disorders, and trauma. Differential diagnosis is primarily determined via history and physical exam.
23 Management strategies focus on treating the underlying etiology; antiemetic medications are typically
24 prescribed to mitigate the negative symptoms of nausea and vomiting.

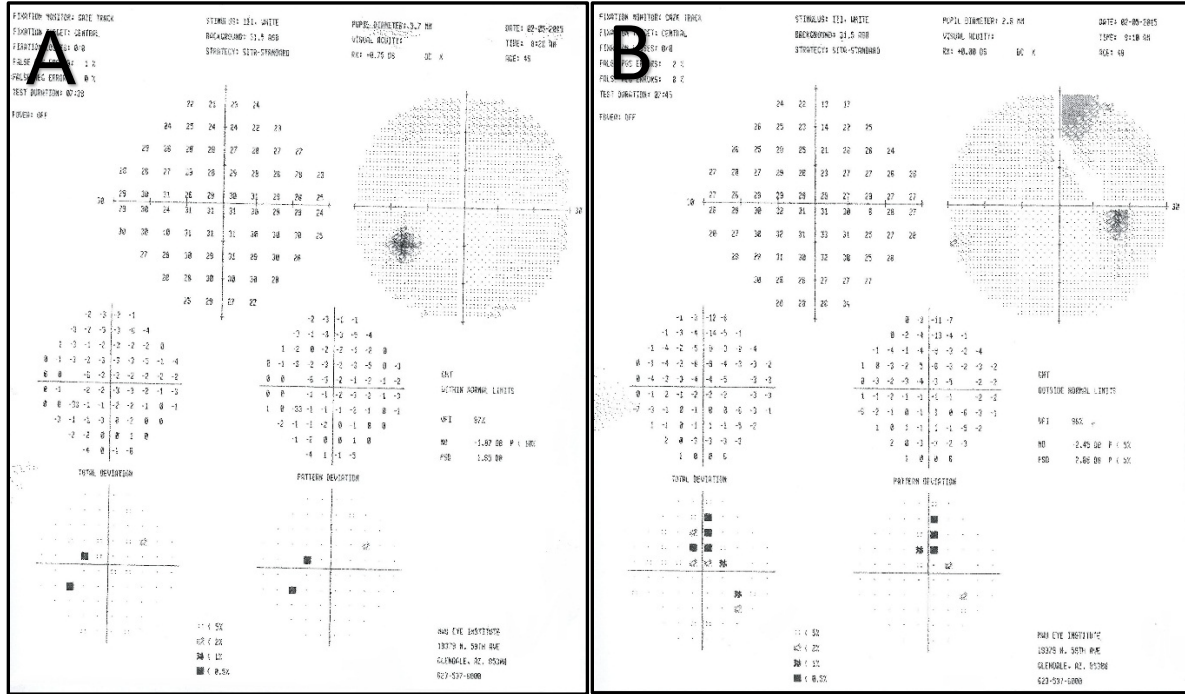
25 While the majority of acute dizziness cases will present to the emergency department, the eye
26 care provider may be consulted to evaluate for ocular pathology, and in some cases, may be the first to
27 encounter it. This article will offer the eye care provider a systematic approach to the dizzy patient
28 outlining the importance of a detailed case history with attention to the red flags that signal a serious
29 underlying etiology.

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31 **CASE REPORT**

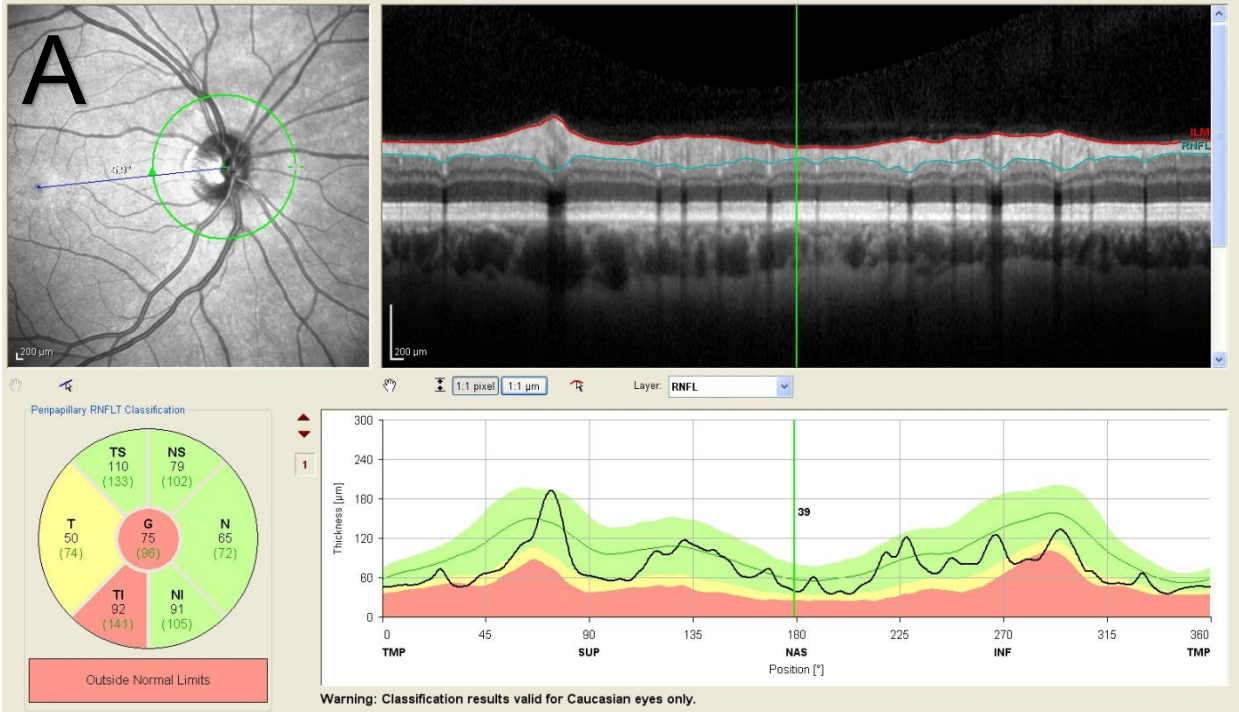
32 A 50-year-old Caucasian man presented for an ocular examination with the complaint of
33 periodic dizziness and binocular horizontal diplopia in extreme right gaze for two months. Ocular history
34 revealed presbyopia OU. Medical history included allergic rhinitis, childhood asthma, depression,
35 insomnia, and vitamin D deficiency. Medications included clonazepam (Klonopin®, Genentech, CA),
36 meclizine (Antivert®, Pfizer, NY), multivitamin (Centrum OTC®, Wyeth Consumer Healthcare, South
37 Africa), Nicoderm CQ (nicotine patch, GSK, Middlesex, UK), and vitamin D3 (Caltrate®, Pfizer, NC). He
38 had no known drug allergies. Family history was positive for diabetes, heart disease, hypertension, and
39 lung cancer. Social history was positive for cigarette use; he denied alcohol or illicit drug use.

40 Best corrected visual acuity was 20/20 OD, OS. Pupils were normal without afferent pupillary
41 defect. Extraocular muscles revealed gaze-evoked and torsional nystagmus as well as right horizontal
42 gaze palsy. Visual fields are shown in Figures 1A and 1B. Cover test was orthophoric at distance and 6
43 exophoria at near. Ishihara color vision was reduced at 0/12 OD and 2/12 OS. Anterior segment
44 examination was normal. Goldmann applanation tonometry was 19 mmHg OD and 17 mmHg OS. Angles
45 were open gonioscopically OD, OS. Posterior segment examination revealed trace temporal pallor of
46 the optic nerve heads bilaterally; the cup-to-disc ratio measured 0.30 x 0.30 OD and 0.50 x 0.50 OS. All
47 other findings were normal. Spectralis optical coherence tomography (OCT) of the retinal nerve fiber
48 layer (RNFL) is shown in Figures 2A & 2B.

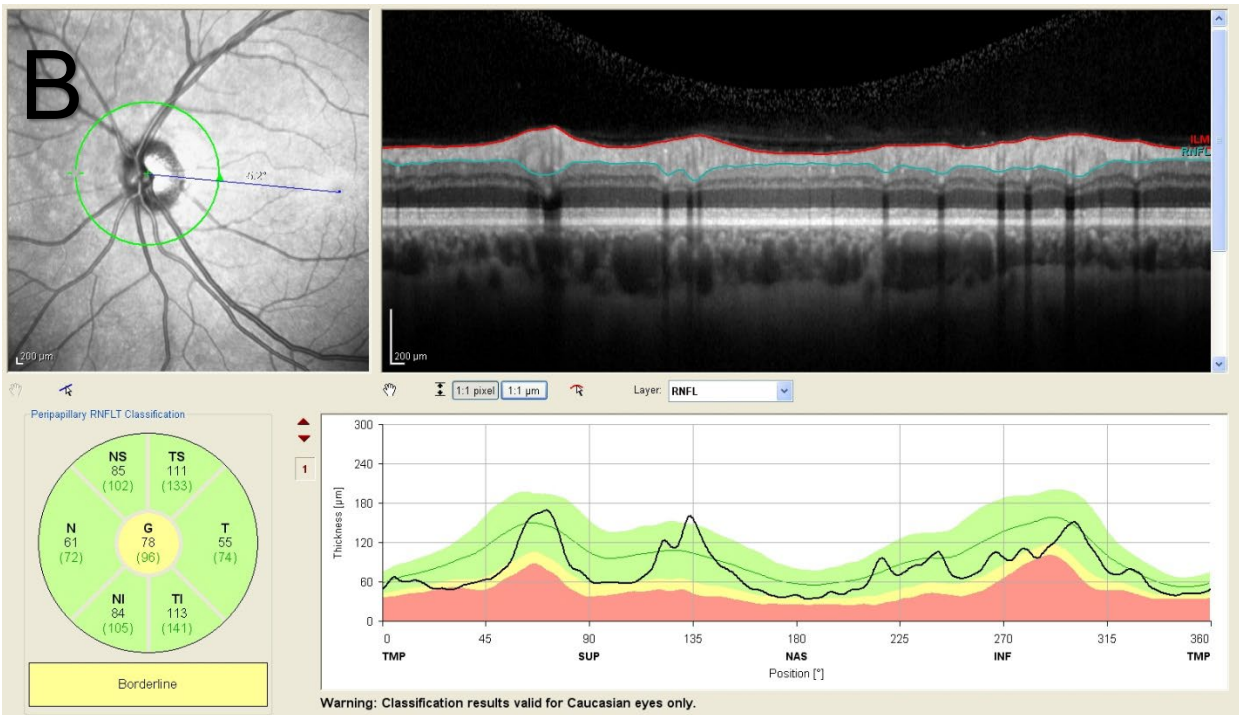


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 51 **FIGURES 1A & 1B**

52 Humphrey visual field 30-2 SITA STD demonstrating superior defects extending from the blindspot of the right eye
 53 (1B, right) and extension of the blindspot of the left eye (1A, left). Both studies are reliable.



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Figures 2A & 2B

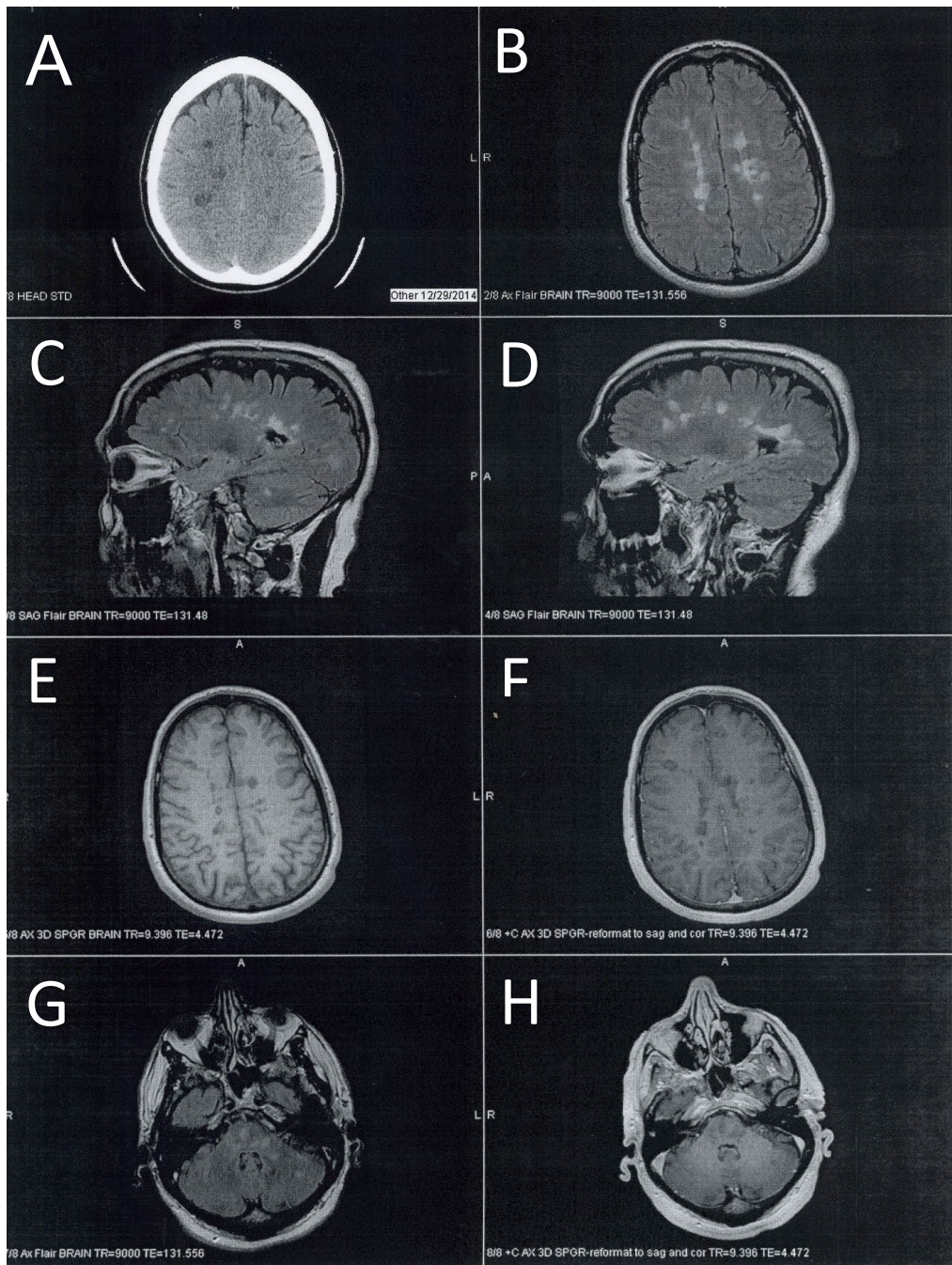
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Spectralis OCT of the right eye demonstrating abnormal thinning of the inferior-temporal retinal nerve fiber layer

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and borderline thinning temporally (2A); the left eye exhibits borderline generalized thinning (2B).

60 Given the ocular and systemic findings, the patient was advised to present to the emergency
61 department for STAT neurology evaluation and testing. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) of the head
62 and orbits with and without contrast revealed periventricular white matter, pontomedullary junction
63 and brainstem demyelinating lesions as shown in Figures 3A-3H. Spinal MRI revealed multiple abnormal
64 T2 foci within the cervical and thoracic regions as shown in Figure 4. Lumbar puncture and
65 cerebrospinal fluid analysis revealed positive oligoclonal banding. Complete blood count with
66 differential, CMP, Westergren ESR, CRP, ANA, FTA-ABS, RPR, vitamin B12, folate, homocysteine, MMA,
67 NMO antibody, JC virus, and lipid panel were normal or negative. Clinical findings of dizziness, gaze
68 palsy, and nystagmus correlated with brain lesions due to multiple sclerosis (MS). Bilateral optic atrophy
69 was attributed to previous asymptomatic episodes of demyelinating optic neuritis and/or active MS-
70 associated accelerated retinal nerve fiber layer loss. He was started on Tysabri® (natalizumab, Biogen,
71 MA) and referred for physical, occupational, and speech therapy. Smoking cessation counseling was
72 provided. Dizziness and eye movement abnormalities improved significantly with treatment; the optic
73 atrophy remained stable.



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Figure 3A-3H

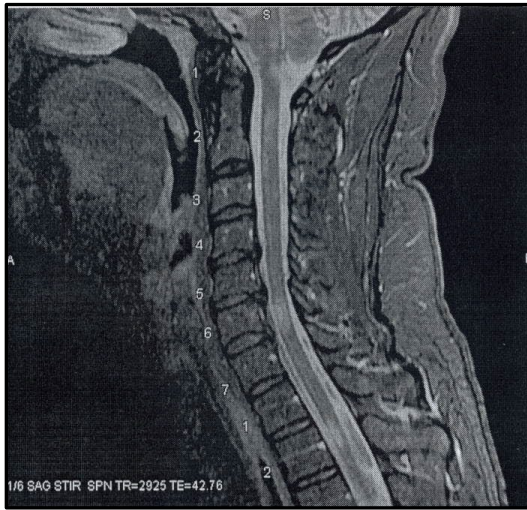
Axial MRI brain showing multiple cortical white matter lesions (A); T2-axial fluid attenuated inversion recovery

(FLAIR) image (B); sagittal T2-axial FLAIR highlighting multiple periventricular white matter lesions and 1 focal

cerebellar lesion (C); sagittal T2-axial FLAIR exhibiting Dawson's fingers (D); axial T1-weighted 3D spoiled gradient

(SPGR) echo (E); axial T-1 weighted 3D SPGR-reformat to sagittal and coronal (F); T2-weighted axial FLAIR image

80 depicting brainstem and cerebellar demyelinating lesions (G); and axial 3D SPGR reformat to sagittal and coronal
81 (H).



82
83 **Figure 4**
84 Sagittal short T1-inversion recovery (STIR) MRI cervical and upper thoracic spine indicating multiple foci of high
85 signal intensity consistent with demyelinating lesions.

86

87 **DISCUSSION**

88 The historical approach to dizziness involved the practitioner asking of the patient, “What do
89 you mean by dizzy?” If the patient responded with spinning or motion implying vertigo, a search for a
90 vestibular cause was evaluated.¹ Impending faint, or presyncope, a cardiovascular disease was sought.
91 Disequilibrium, or unsteady gait, a neurologic etiology was most concerning, and non-specific dizziness
92 or any other dizziness sensation, a search for psychiatric or metabolic cause would be examined.

93 Newer approaches to the dizzy patient focus on triage, timing, triggers, and telltale signs in a
94 search for an accurate diagnosis.^{4,5} Triage involves focusing on clinical red flags that immediately point
95 to a serious cause of dizziness requiring *emergent* evaluation as outlined in Table 1.

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99 **Table 1. Clinical Red Flags that warrant emergent evaluation**

Triage: Dizziness Red Flags
Abnormal vital signs
Confusion / impaired mental status
Associated pain
Neurologic symptoms (e.g., diplopia, dysarthria, dysphagia, etc.)
Cardiovascular symptoms (e.g., chest pain, dyspnea, syncope)

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101 Abnormalities of vital signs or mental state may be manifestations of Addisonian crisis, anemia,
102 carbon dioxide poisoning, decompression sickness, herpes simplex virus encephalitis, hypercapnia,
103 hypoglycemia, hypoxia, hypotension, isoniazid intoxication, mountain sickness, myxedema, subdural
104 hematoma, thyroid storm, or Wernicke syndrome. Pain, depending on location (abdomen, back, chest,
105 ear, head, neck), may be a harbinger of abscess, carbon monoxide poisoning, carotid or vertebral
106 dissection, giant cell arteritis, herpes zoster, intracranial hemorrhage, intracranial pressure abnormality,
107 malignant otitis externa, mastoiditis, meningitis, myocardial infarction (MI), otitis media, pituitary
108 apoplexy, pneumonia, pulmonary embolism (PE), spinal cord compression, thoracic/abdominal aortic
109 aneurysm or dissection. Finally, neurologic or cardiovascular symptoms should prompt an emergent
110 neurologic or cardiac evaluation, respectively.

111 The remainder of patients not exhibiting emergent red flag symptomatology are further divided
112 by the timing of dizziness as transient / episodic (lasting seconds to hours) or persistent / continuous
113 (lasting days to weeks). Transient / episodic dizziness is more commonly benign in nature and may
114 include benign paroxysmal positional vertigo, benign orthostatic hypotension, Ménière disease, panic
115 attack, reflex syncope, or vestibular migraine. The provider should be cautioned that more dangerous
116 mimics of benign causes presenting as transient / episodic dizziness include cardiac arrhythmia,
117 cardiovascular emergencies (e.g., MI, aortic dissection, PE, and occult GI bleed), neuro-humoral

118 neoplasm (e.g., insulinoma, pheochromocytoma), transient ischemic attack, and toxic exposure (e.g.,
119 carbon monoxide). Persistent / continuous dizziness etiologies of the more common, benign nature
120 include drug toxicity (e.g., anticonvulsants), herpes zoster oticus, vestibular neuritis, or viral neuritis.
121 The provider should be cautioned to exclude the dangerous mimics that may also present with
122 persistent / continuous dizziness including bacterial labyrinthitis / mastoiditis; brainstem encephalitis
123 (e.g. listeria, herpes simplex) or Miller Fisher syndrome; brainstem, cerebellar, or labyrinthine stroke; or
124 Wernicke syndrome.

125 For patients with transient dizziness less than 24 hours duration, a detailed history and
126 exploration for triggers will help to further elucidate an etiology. In general, transient dizziness that is
127 exertional and spontaneous, or untriggered, is most likely related to a dangerous cause. A trigger such
128 as a change in head position is more likely related to a benign cause and may be replicated on physical
129 exam (e.g., Dix-Hallpike maneuver).

130 For those cases with persistent dizziness greater than 24 hours, a neurologic examination with
131 attention to the vestibulo-ocular reflex responses, ocular alignment, and the presence or absence of
132 nystagmus is necessary as these patients are at high risk for stroke.

133 In this case, the symptom of dizziness in conjunction with multiple neurologic and ocular signs
134 warranted a STAT evaluation for a serious underlying systemic etiology. The differential diagnosis for
135 gaze-evoked nystagmus, torsional nystagmus, horizontal gaze palsy, and bilateral optic atrophy was
136 considered to arrive at the diagnosis and will be discussed individually.

137 Gaze-evoked nystagmus is the most common type of jerk nystagmus.⁶ It is characterized by
138 large amplitude movements beating in the direction of gaze. It should be contrasted with physiologic
139 endpoint nystagmus where a small degree of nystagmus in extreme gaze is seen in 50% of normal
140 subjects but is not sustainable. Gaze-holding structures of the brain include the midbrain, lateral
141 medulla, and the cerebellar flocculus. Smooth pursuit and gait abnormalities are often present.

142 Rebound nystagmus may also be present briefly which suggests a vestibulocerebellar lesion. One of the
143 most common etiologies is due to toxic or metabolic dysfunction secondary to anticonvulsant
144 medication such as phenytoin or other commonly prescribed medications such as lithium and sedatives.
145 Other causes include: spinocerebellar degeneration, MS, stroke, posterior fossa tumor, gluten sensitivity
146 with anti-gliadin antibodies, spinocerebellar ataxia, myasthenia gravis (MG), and Miller-Fisher
147 syndrome.^{7,8}

148 Rotary or torsional nystagmus is caused by dysfunction of vertical semicircular canal inputs from
149 one side or by otolith dysfunction. It often presents as a constant nystagmus with oscillopsia that may
150 dampen with convergence. Smooth pursuits may be poor; a skew deviation is present in approximately
151 30% of patients. The most common etiologies are lesions of the pontomedullary junction involving the
152 vestibular nucleus including stroke, MS, or tumor of the pons or cerebellum.⁹ Other rare causes include:
153 vascular compression, trauma, syringobulbia, seizures, and congenital.

154 Horizontal gaze palsy involves loss of all conjugate movements toward the side of the lesion
155 including saccades, pursuits, and vestibulo-ocular reflex (VOR) with sparing of vertical movements and
156 vergence. Horizontal gaze-evoked nystagmus occurs on looking contralesionally, with fast phases
157 directed away from the lesion. Causes include congenital, brainstem lesions, cerebellar mass, or
158 neurodegenerative (e.g. Wernicke encephalopathy, Gaucher disease, Leigh Syndrome).⁸

159 The differential diagnosis of optic atrophy includes the following general categories: congenital,
160 inflammatory, demyelinating, ischemic, compressive, infiltrative, paraneoplastic, traumatic, nutritional,
161 toxic, radiation, papilledema, and hereditary.^{10,11} Clinical characteristics and test results of this case
162 suggest the most likely etiology of the bilateral optic atrophy was due to former asymptomatic episodes
163 of demyelinating optic neuritis and/or active MS-associated accelerated retinal nerve fiber layer loss.
164 Longitudinal OCT studies have shown RNFL axonal loss in the absence of acute optic neuritis in MS

165 patients.^{12,13} Active MS has also been associated with accelerated retinal ganglion cell and inner
166 plexiform layer thinning.¹⁴

167 So, what is the role of the primary eye care provider in the patient presenting with dizziness? A
168 detailed history is critical with questions pertaining to the dizziness red flags. Onset date, duration,
169 frequency, context, triggers, aggravating or alleviating factors, and any associated signs or symptoms are
170 important. The ocular examination should focus attention on the cover test and extraocular muscle
171 findings looking for evidence of smooth pursuit, saccadic, cranial nerve, nystagmus or saccadic intrusion
172 abnormality. Additional optokinetic nystagmus, Halmagyi head thrust maneuver, oculoccephalic
173 response (e.g., Doll’s eye maneuver), Dix-Hallpike maneuver, cranial nerve screen, and gait assessment
174 tests are helpful in isolating where in the brain a problem is most likely. Physical examination may also
175 include blood pressure measurement (sitting and supine), heart rate, and temperature.

176

177 **CONCLUSION**

178 The primary eye care provider may be the first physician to encounter the patient with a
179 complaint of dizziness. Awareness of trigger red flags is useful for prompt emergent evaluation. A
180 careful ophthalmic examination with attention to history, cover test, and extraocular muscles as well as
181 ancillary testing results are valuable to ascertain an underlying etiology. Communication of the
182 ophthalmic findings to other medical specialists is important in the differential diagnosis of dizziness.

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