
Research

Psycho-Neuro-Endocrine-Immunology and Vestibular Disorders: A prospective study

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Abstract: *Psycho-Neuro-Endocrine-Immunology (PNEI) is a scientific field of study that investigates the link between the bidirectional communication between the nervous, endocrine and immune systems and the correlation of this interaction with physical health. The innovative medical approach of PNEI represents a “paradigm shift” from a “compartmentalized” – strictly biomedical and largely pharmacology-focused – view of health and disease, to a more multi-systemic view, which relies on the integration of interdisciplinary approaches. The key element of the PNEI approach is the concept of a bidirectional dialogue between the psycho-neuro-endocrine and immune systems. In this manuscript, the PNEI hypothesis is considered in application to various*

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peripheral and central vestibular disorders. Overall, this study offers an overview of holistic approaches in the treatment of patients with vestibular disorders.

Keywords: Balance disorders, vestibular problems, PNEI, hormones, vestibular pathologies – peripheral or central, stress.

Abbreviations

ACH – Acetylcholine
BVD – Bilateral Vestibular Deafferentation
CGRP – Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide
fMRI – Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging
GR – Glucocorticoid Receptors
HPA – Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenal Axis
GCs – Glucocorticoids
MdDS – Debarkation Syndrome or Mal de Débarquement
MD – Ménière’s syndrome
MI – Migraine
MR – Mineralocorticoid Receptors
MVN – Medial Vestibular Nucleus
NK – “Natural Killer” cells
PNEI – Psycho-Neuro-Endocrine-Immunology
PPPD – Persistent Postural-Perceptual Syndrome
TVS – Trigeminal Vascular System
UL – Unilateral labyrinthectomy
UVD – Unilateral Vestibular Deafferentation
UVN – Unilateral Vestibular Neurectomy
VC – Vestibular Compensation
VID – Visually Induced Dizziness/Vertigo
VM – Vestibular Migraine

Introduction

The Psycho-Neuro-Endocrine-Immunology (PNEI) is a new theory that studies the bidirectional communication between the nervous system, the endocrine system, the immune system and the psyche (Demori *et al.*, 1975). The dynamic dialogue between these systems results in an overall influence on a patient’s health. Scientific evidence suggests that hormones may be involved in vestibular pathophysiology, particularly in peripheral vestibular disorders (Demori *et al.*, 1975). Specifically, steroid, amine and peptide hormones are all implicated in influencing the peripheral vestibular system. For

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example, vasopressin hypersensitivity of the endolymphatic sac is linked to Ménière's syndrome (MD). In addition, modulation of central vestibular pathways by neuroactive steroids may involve effects on the g-aminobutric acid and glutaminergic pathways. The vestibular nuclei also express enzymes that are important in the synthesis of steroids and the modulation of their activities (Seemungal *et al.*, 2001). Steroids mediate stress with both deleterious and beneficial vestibular compensations. This article provides an overview of peripheral and central vestibular conditions, describing their association with and influence on the endocrine system, the immune system and psychological states, within the PNEI model (Ortega *et al.*, 2024; Saman *et al.*, 2020).

The influence of gonadal hormone fluctuations on vestibular function is well documented, although their interactions remain partially unexplored and unorganized to enable direct conclusions and integration into routine clinical practice (C. Ishii *et al.*, 2009; Jeong, 2020; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018; Price *et al.*, 1994; P. F. Smith *et al.*, 2019). Hormonal fluctuations, especially in women during puberty, the menstrual cycle, pregnancy and menopause, have been shown to modulate vestibular symptoms in several disorders, including Benign Positional Paroxysmal Vertigo (BPPV) (8), Vestibular Migraine (VM) (Tang *et al.*, 2021), MD (Andrews *et al.*, 1992; Jian *et al.*, 2019) and Mal de Débarquement Syndrome (MdDS) (Mucci *et al.*, 2020; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018).

In addition to hormonal changes, most vestibular patients with a peripheral or central disorder are also known to suffer from secondary mood disorders such as anxiety and stress (Bittar & von Söhsten Lins, 2015; Staab, 2019). In light of this, this manuscript aims to shed light on the main peripheral and central vestibular disorders for which the integration of endocrine, psychological and immunological components supports or fits into the PNEI model.

Methodology

This article reviews the available literature on peripheral and central vestibular disorders, chronic symptoms, the influence of stress, hormonal states and psychological disorders (such as depression and anxiety), to determine their relationship with the PNEI theory and to assess whether this theory is applicable in patients with different vestibular conditions.

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Main vestibular disorders and the applied pnei theory

Central vestibular disorders

The central vestibular disorders that we will hereby consider are persistent postural-perceptual vertigo (PPPD) (Indovina *et al.*, 2021; Staab & Ruckenstein, 2007), VM (Formeister *et al.*, 2018; Lempert, 2009; Sacco *et al.*, 2012) and MdDS (Cha *et al.*, 2008; Mucci *et al.*, 2018). These disorders are known to have a clear female pre-dominance and their symptomatic manifestation appears to be related to hormonal fluctuations (P. F. Smith *et al.*, 2019; Stolte *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, these disorders are associated with secondary mood disorders such as anxiety and major depressive disorder (Furman *et al.*, 2013; Indovina *et al.*, 2021; Mucci *et al.*, 2018; Riccelli *et al.*, 2017; P. F. Smith & Darlington, 2013).

VM is a subtype of migraine (MI) and is one of the most common central vestibular disorders. VM is characterized by episodes of vertigo or dizziness, often associated with typical MI symptoms. The pathophysiology of VM appears to be modulated by gonadal hormones (Tang *et al.*, 2021). In clinical practice, VM is often misdiagnosed and poorly managed, with only 8-20% of patients being correctly identified (Yan *et al.*, 2020). Patients with VM report symptomatic fluctuations due to the impact of gonadal hormones, according to the so-called “oestrogen withdrawal theory” (Sacco *et al.*, 2012). In addition, patients with VM present higher levels of anxiety than MI patients (Kutay *et al.*, 2017) and usually have a clinical history of MI. The main characteristics of patients with VM are similar to those of MI patients, with or without aura (Huang *et al.*, 2019). Studies implementing functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) have demonstrated the presence of brain dysfunction in patients with VM, particularly in relation to pain, vestibular processing and multisensory integration (Zhe *et al.*, 2023). Increased functional connectivity during nociception between vestibular and visual cortex regions has been observed in patients with VM (Mucci *et al.*, 2022; Wang *et al.*, 2014). Furthermore, an abnormal immune response and cytokine dysregulation appear to play a significant role in VM, as well as in other vestibular conditions, including MD. A recent clinical study observed that patients with MI and VM show a type 1 lymphoid cell response, mediated by natural killer (NK) cells, involving an interleukin signaling cascade (IL-1, IL-2, IL-15 and IL-18). Consequently, VM fits perfectly with the theoretical hypothesis of PNEI, which considers how a neuroendocrine imbalance can reflect on the immune system and have a psychological impact. A dysfunction of the neuroendocrine system, evidenced by an immunological and inflammatory response, can therefore manifest itself with a psychological component, e.g. by affecting mood.

The pathophysiology of MI is complex and controversial. In addition to the

widely accepted theory involving the trigeminal-vascular system (TVS), the relevance of propagated cortical depression (CSD) has re-emerged in recent years (Espinosa-Sanchez & Lopez-Escamez, 2015). CSD is an electrophysiological phenomenon involving a massive transient neural depolarisation, which slowly propagates through the cortex. It has been hypothesised that CSD may be a trigger for MI with silent aura, as aura is not present in most MI patients. According to this theory, MI could be a pathological condition in which alterations of diverse neural networks play a role (Charles, 2013). Headache in migraineurs could result from a dysfunction within diencephalic structures and the brainstem/thalamic nuclei that modulate trigeminal nociceptive and vestibular inputs, thus affecting multisensory integration. In summary, VM involves an interaction between the nociceptive and vestibular pathways.

Considering the PNEI theory, we pose two specific hypotheses:

- A patient with specific comorbidities (such as major depression) might be more prone to develop an altered neuroendocrine system, which in turn triggers an immunological and inflammatory response, manifesting in an altered brain state.
- Alternatively, is there a genetic predisposition that makes such patients more prone to develop a dysfunctional immune system (e.g. neuroinflammation and systemic inflammation)?

This second hypothesis could be a key aetiopathogenic mechanism involved in the onset and development of affective disorders, which could lead or predispose to VM attacks. Although only a hypothesis, this possibility opens up a new view on vestibular disorders (in this case, the pathophysiology of VM): these cannot be understood in isolation, but rather as part of a multisystemic context, involving the dynamic interaction between different factors and systems, in with with the PNEI theory (Ortega *et al.*, 2024). Overall, the discussed evidence suggests that patients with VM require a holistic, and not “compartmental”, management approach to address all pathophysiological aspects.

A similar hypothesis can be extended to two other significant central vestibular disorders: PPPD and MdDS. Similarly to VM, PPPD and MdDS also present a female prevalence, with a female-to-male ratio of 2:1 (Bittar & von Söhsten Lins, 2015; Staab & Ruckenstein, 2007). Previous studies have shown how hormonal fluctuations in MdDS (33) influence patients’ symptoms. MdDS not only affects significantly more women (approximately 80%), but in particular, women going through a specific hormonal phase: the onset of menopause (Matchock, Levine, Gianaros, 2008). Among patients of reproductive age, a causal relationship between hormonal fluctuations in the menstrual cycle and increased severity of MdDS symptoms and sensitivity to triggers has been reported (Mucci *et al.*, 2020; Mucci, Canceri *et al.*, 2018). Given the clear female predominance (Van Ombergen, Van Rompaey *et al.*, 2016; Van

Ombergen, Wuyts *et al.*, 2016), recent studies have investigated the role of gonadal hormones in this context (Mucci, Canceri *et al.*, 2018; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018), showing that hormonal changes correlate with the onset of MdDS, with most patients developing the condition during the menopausal transition phase (Mucci, Canceri *et al.*, 2018).

Moreover, symptoms appear to be more frequent and more severe during menstruation (Mucci, Canceri *et al.*, 2018) and reduce (or resolve completely) during the first two trimesters of pregnancy, as observed in MI patients (Mucci, Canceri *et al.*, 2018). These studies have generated the hypothesis that the pathophysiology of MdDS may be driven by specific hormonal fluctuations and phases (Mucci *et al.*, 2020; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018). A recent study (Mucci *et al.*, 2020) hypothesised that patients with MdDS may have experienced a specific hormonal phase (low E2) at the time of disease onset that altered their GABAergic system, as well as their calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) levels (Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018). CGRP is known to be implicated in the pathophysiology of MI and is a common comorbidity factor for MdDS (Balaban *et al.*, 2011; Cha, 2015; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018). Animal studies have also shown that CGRP receptors support vestibular functions (Luebke *et al.*, 2014; Ohno *et al.*, 2016). In particular, CGRP-positive neurons have been found in the vestibular nuclei and in the vestibulo-cerebellum (Ohno *et al.*, 2016), and could therefore be relevant for neuroplasticity mechanisms within the vestibular system, influencing neurotransmitters such as the brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) (Buldyrev *et al.*, 2006; Wu *et al.*, 2015).

The model proposed by Mucci *et al.* (2020) describes how a specific neurochemical imbalance, involving the GABAergic network, can lead to imbalances in the inhibitory transmission or to disproportions in the levels of CGRP and BDNF (e.g. low levels of oestrogen and high levels of CGRP and BDNF), predisposing susceptible and vulnerable individuals (Mucci *et al.*, 2020). While this hypothesis has been proposed mainly in relation to MdDS, similar mechanisms could also be involved in VM and PPPD, likewise predisposing susceptible and vulnerable individuals (Mucci *et al.*, 2020; Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018). The PNEI model aligns closely with the theory previously proposed by Mucci (Mucci, Jacquemyn *et al.*, 2018), according to which patients with MdDS report a potential inflammatory response and neuroendocrine dysregulation that could influence multisensory integration in the vestibular nuclei. The immunological component, in specific relation to MdDS and PPPD, remains unexplored. Further research is needed to consider the application of the PNEI theory to the discussed pathologies.

Peripheral vestibular disorders

Ménière's syndrome: MD describes a condition of the labyrinth of the inner ear whereby there is an accumulation of endolymphatic fluid. MD is responsible for tinnitus, vertigo, hearing loss and a feeling of air pressure, aka "fullness within the ear". The syndrome is related to conditions of excessive stress that can generate neural hyperactivity of the autonomic sympathetic system. Stress can consequently impact hormonal regulation and the immune response, leading to a progression and exacerbation of the syndrome (Horner & Cazals, 2003; M. Ishii *et al.*, 2022; S.-H. Lee & Kim, 2010; Söderman *et al.*, 2004). If chronicised, stress can alter the production and release of hormones – including cortisol – that can affect the immune response, in turns accentuating ear inflammation (Saman *et al.*, 2012). Steroids, known for their anti-inflammatory properties, have been used to manage MD symptoms. In this context, one study (Barrs *et al.*, 2001) showed that intratympanic steroid injections (specifically, 4 mg/mL dexamethasone for 4 weeks) may offer temporary relief of persistent vertigo in patients with MD. Moreover, relief was maintained in 52% of cases at 3 month follow-up, and in 43% of cases at 6 month follow-up. This suggests that modulation of the immune response may relieve symptoms.

Similarly, a more recent study (Barrs *et al.*, 2001) showed that intratympanic therapy with gentamicin or dexamethasone is an effective approach to treat MD symptoms (incl. the "fullness within the ear" sensation), with negligible side effects. Specifically, the former shows greater efficacy than the latter, if one selectively considers the complete control of vertigo. In contrast, dexamethasone causes higher improvements in tinnitus, albeit without statistical significance. Gentamicin, on the other hand, seems to cause more hearing loss than dexamethasone at high frequencies. Using methylprednisolone and/or dexamethasone, another study (Dodson *et al.*, 2004) supports that intratympanic steroid injections are, in approximately 50% of MD patients, an effective treatment for temporary symptom relief, but that they do not result in relief of vertigo and hearing loss in the long-term. Overall, the evidence supports the PNEI theory, emphasising the interrelation between psychological stress, the immune function and the clinical manifestations of MD. The low long-term efficacy of monofactorial treatments in some studies may suggest that holistic, i.e. multisystemic, approaches are needed to achieve more significant and sustained effects over time. A patient with MD might therefore benefit from complementing mere pharmacological interventions with multisystemic interventions aimed at reducing the patient's stress level, e.g. by introducing mindfulness, physical exercise and a targeted diet (Koukoulithras *et al.*, 2022; Oğuz *et al.*, 2021).

Benign Paroxysmal Positional Vertigo: BPPV is a disorder of the inner ear caused by small calcium carbonate crystals (otoliths) that, when displaced, cause disturbances

such as episodes of vertigo of short duration (<60-sec) depending on the head's position and angle. Additional disturbances include nausea and nystagmus. When patients with BPPV develop visual-induced dizziness (VID), we refer to postural instability associated with peripheral vestibular conditions. Although BPPV is considered a purely mechanical disorder, patients with anxiety disorders have a higher risk of developing BPPV, highlighting the link between psyche and vestibular function (Chen *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, chronic stress can influence the immune response and hormonal regulation, potentially aggravating BPPV symptoms (Saman *et al.*, 2020; L. J. Smith *et al.*, 2024).

The interaction between the endocrine system and vestibular syndromes is two-fold. Vestibular deficits can cause hormonal changes at different times, such as during acute crises or compensation phases. Specific hormonal profiles may also increase susceptibility to vertigo. For instance, the prevalence of BPPV increases with age, particularly in postmenopausal women due to decreased levels of oestrogen and progesterone, which affect the microcirculation of the inner ear. Diabetic patients are more likely to develop BPPV, with 46% of patients with type 2 diabetes affected, compared to 37% without diabetes. Hyperglycaemia is a risk factor for recurrence of BPPV. BPPV is also linked to thyroid disorders such as goiter (i.e. thyroid volumetric increase), thyroiditis, hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism. MD, common in anxious individuals, can be induced by stress-related increases in vasopressin. Hypothyroidism has also been associated with MD. Hormonal changes have been observed at different stages of vestibular pathology. The syndrome begins with an acute crisis characterised by dizziness and anxiety, followed by a phase of functional recovery mediated by vestibular compensation. The vestibular system's connections with the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis lead to changes in the stress hormone profile, demonstrated by altered levels of cortisol and acetylcholine (ACH). Central vestibular compensation varies between patients and is slower in those experiencing stress.

Vestibular neuritis is an inflammation of the vestibular nerve, which is part of the peripheral vestibular system. It causes intense vertigo and a sudden loss of balance, although without affecting hearing. The symptoms of unilateral vestibular neurectomy (UVN) can cause stress and activate the HPA, leading to postural, oculomotor, perceptual and neurovegetative syndromes. In a 2003 study on guinea pigs, unilateral vestibular deafferentation (UVD) (n=6) and sham intervention (n=6) were compared. The UVD intervention resulted in a significant increase ($P<0.05$) in nocturnal cortisol concentrations compared to pre-operative salivary cortisol concentrations, also showing a significant interaction ($P<0.05$) between nocturnal cortisol concentration and time. No significant difference was shown in terms of morning salivary cortisol concentrations between pre- and post- UVD surgery, nor between pre- and post- sham surgery. This suggested that the oculomotor and postural imbalances might cause activation of the HPA (Gliddon *et al.*, 2003).

Another study in adult cats showed that prolonged activation of the HPA is a likeable index of the chronic stress experienced by the animals. This stress corresponds to the duration required for complete vestibular compensation and is no longer evident when the animals are completely free of postural-locomotor symptoms at 90 days (Tighilet *et al.*, 2009). The development of vestibular compensation after unilateral labyrinthectomy (UL) is significantly influenced by stress and stress-related steroids, as well as by conditions such as anxiety and major depression, which alter the normal HPA function. Glucocorticoids (GCs) released from the adrenal cortex, in response to stress-induced HPA activation, exert extensive actions throughout the body. In addition, they have significant modulatory effects on neurons and synapses within the brain. GCs can have a direct impact on membrane ion channels and neurotransmitter receptors to regulate their function or alter gene expression in neurons via specific intracellular receptors, including glucocorticoid receptors (GR) and mineral corticoid receptors (MR). Moreover, GCs can be rapidly converted by various enzymes into active neurosteroids. Neurosteroids derived from sex steroid progesterone also influence neuronal and synaptic function in the vestibular system and the cerebellum.

Several studies indicate that glucocorticoids and neurosteroids can modulate the vestibular system's function and compensation. Anxiety and stress in patients with vertigo substantially delay recovery from vestibular symptoms. In contrast, treatment with the GR steroid methylprednisolone has been reported to improve vestibular compensation. The acute stress that accompanies behavioural symptoms immediately after UL could facilitate cell plasticity in medial vestibular nucleus (MVN) neurons. An essential site of glucocorticoid action during vestibular compensation (VC) appears to be the cerebellar flocculus. However, an optimal level of GR activation seems to be necessary in that additional stress, such as restraint applied to a compensatory animal after UL, may hinder behavioural recovery.

The interactions between HPA, glucocorticoids and vestibular plasticity have potentially important implications for the treatment and management of patients with balance disorders. The effectiveness of vestibular rehabilitation exercises in promoting VC may be partly due to the acute stress resulting from initially aversive movements, which facilitate the brain plasticity mechanisms required for VC. It is also possible that patients who fail to compensate adequately after UL may either (A) have pre-existing alterations in their HPA function due to depression or anxiety or (B) develop changes in their HPA due to vestibular dysfunction and associated symptoms. This could cause inappropriate stress responses to vestibular, visual and postural challenges, impeding the necessary cellular plasticity in vestibular pathways for VC. Further investigations are needed to shed light on the cellular mechanisms of stress steroids on VC in animal models and to study the function of the

HPA in patients with balance disorders (Dutia & Straka, 2009). In addition to this, there is to consider that the contrast to the effects of UVD, following bilateral vestibular deafferentation (BVD) in rats, where their serum corticosterone was not elevated when compared to sham surgery at 3 weeks (59) or 6 months (Russell *et al.*, 2006) or 9 months (Zheng *et al.*, 2008). However a reduction in anxiety was observed in animals after BVD (Zheng *et al.*, 2008) suggesting that the interactions between the vestibular and limbic systems are chronically altered (Saman *et al.*, 2012).

Stress modulation and symptoms

It is crucial to understand the interaction between the vestibular and endocrine systems. There is an urgent need to determine how hormonal profiles influence patients with vertigo and their vestibular conditions. Preclinical and clinical studies are essential to develop diagnostic tools to identify different types and stages of vestibular disorders and to create targeted therapies. These therapies aim to prevent vestibular disorders, reduce vertigo attacks and promote rapid recovery. There is currently a lack of information on the proportion of vestibular disorders linked to hormonal factors or profiles. Filling these gaps in the scientific knowledge could significantly improve the management and clinical outcomes of patients with vertigo and instability (El Khiati *et al.*, 2023).

Stress has been shown to influence vestibular symptoms (3). Whether one considers peripheral or central disorders, the vestibular system is influenced by stress responses (i.e. activation of the HPA, and the autonomic nervous system, through the release of “stress mediators” such as neuropeptides, steroids and monoamine hormones). The activation of the stress response may be necessary for vestibular compensation (Ortega *et al.*, 2024). However, excessive stress may adversely affect compensation (Saman *et al.*, 2012), highlighting the fine line separating healthy and pathological states. It is known that, in patients with MdDS, stress causes an aggravation of symptoms (Mucci *et al.*, 2018). Similarly, in PPPD, (Popkirov *et al.*, 2017) psychological distress modulates symptoms (Bittar & von Söhsten Lins, 2015; J. O. Lee *et al.*, 2018). When considering peripheral disorders, stress not only influences symptomatology, but also prevents vestibular compensation mechanisms and thus a complete recovery of functionality.

Future studies for hypothesis-validation

Based on the discussed evidence, we propose to determine whether the PNEI theory may apply to central and peripheral vestibular disorders. To this end, it would be necessary that future studies examine patients with a multidisciplinary approach. Immunological studies and genetic assessments of vestibular patients would be of particular relevance, as the literature in this context is still very scarce. For example, it is assumed

that, in the presence of the glucocorticoid polymorphism, patients report higher levels of anxiety and cortisol. It would hence be important to determine whether patients suffering from chronic vertigo and vestibular symptoms have a higher prevalence of polymorphisms that prevent them from fully compensating, thus predisposing them to developing secondary mood disorders (i.e. anxiety and depression).

As discussed, women are more prone to various vestibular disorders (including VM, PPPD and MdDS) and kinetosis. Therefore, another key research question would be to investigate how gonadal hormones, stress and dysfunctions of neuroendocrine modulation might influence the symptomatology or pathophysiology of vestibular disorders. In conclusion, these abovementioned aspects highlight the association between immunoendocrine and psychological factors in vestibular disorders, as well as the importance of a combined “mind-and-body” management in patient care.

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