Guidelines for All Healthcare Professionals in the Diagnosis and Management of Migraine, Tension-Type, Cluster and Medication-Overuse Headache

These guidelines are available at www.bash.org.uk
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1. Introduction

Headache affects nearly everyone at least occasionally. It is a problem at some time in the lives of an estimated 40% of people in the UK. It is one of the most frequent causes of consultation in both general practice and neurological clinics. In its various forms, headache represents an immense socioeconomic burden.

Migraine occurs in 15% of the UK adult population, in women more than men in a ratio of 3:1. An estimated 190,000 attacks are experienced every day, with three quarters of people affected reporting disability. Whilst migraine occurs in children (in whom the diagnosis is often missed) and in the elderly, it is most troublesome during the productive years (late teens to 50s). As a result, over 100,000 people are absent from work or school because of migraine every working day. The cost to the economy may exceed £1.5 billion per annum.

Tension-type headache in its episodic subtype affects up to 80% of people from time to time, many of whom refer to it as “normal” or “ordinary” headache. Consequently, they mostly treat themselves without reference to physicians using over-the-counter (OTC) medications and generally effectively.

Nevertheless, it can be a disabling headache over several hours and the high prevalence of this disorder means its economic burden through lost work and reduced working effectiveness is similar to that of migraine. In a minority of people, episodic tension-type headache is frequent, whilst up to 3% of adults have the chronic subtype occurring on more than 15 days every month. These people have high morbidity and may be substantially disabled; many are chronically off work.

Cluster headache is much less common, with a prevalence of about 0.05%, but it is both intense and frequently recurring. Medication-overuse headache is usually a chronic daily headache, and may affect 2% of adults as well as some children. Both of these disorders contribute significantly to the disability burden of headache.

Despite these statistics, there is evidence that headache disorders are under-diagnosed and under-treated in the UK, as is the case throughout Europe and in the USA.

2. Scope and Purpose of these guidelines

The purpose of these guidelines is to suggest strategies of management for the common headache disorders that have been found by specialists to work well. They are intended for all healthcare professionals who manage headache. Whether in general practice or neurology or headache specialist clinics, or in the community, the approach to management is the same. We recommend that health-care commissioners incorporate these guidelines into any agreement for provision of services. However, headache management requires a flexible and individualised approach, and there may be circumstances in which these suggestions cannot easily be applied or are inappropriate.

Where evidence exists, these guidelines are based on it. Unfortunately, the formal evidence for much of them is insecure; where this is so, there is reliance on expert opinion based on clinical experience.

2.1 Writing and approval process

The members of the writing group are headache specialists. The task of the writing group is to shoulder the burden of writing, not to promulgate their own opinions. Each edition of these guidelines, and major revisions thereof, are distributed in draft for consultation to all members of the British Association for the Study of Headache (BASH), amongst whom are general practitioners with an interest in headache, and to all neurologist members of the Association of British Neurologists.

Final approval for publication is by Council of BASH.

2.2 Currency of this edition

These guidelines are updated as developments occur or on production of new and relevant evidence.

This edition of these guidelines is current until the end of December 2009.
3. Headache classification

Although various schemes preceded it, the 1988 classification of the International Headache Society (IHS) was the first to be widely adopted. This was extensively revised in late 2003 and the new system, the *International Classification of Headache Disorders, 2nd edition* (ICHD-II), is the international standard. It includes operational diagnostic criteria and classifies headache disorders under 14 headings (table I). The first four of these cover the primary headache disorders.

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Table I*. The International Classification of Headache Disorders, 2nd Edition

| Primary headaches | 1. Migraine, including: | 3. Cluster headache and other trigeminal autonomic cephalalgias, including: |
| | 1.1 Migraine without aura | 3.1 Cluster headache |
| | 1.2 Migraine with aura | |
| | 2. Tension-type headache, including: | 4. Other primary headaches |
| | 2.1 Infrequent episodic tension-type headache | |
| | 2.2 Frequent episodic tension-type headache | |
| | 2.3 Chronic tension-type headache | |
| Secondary headaches | 5. Headache attributed to head and/or neck trauma, including: | 8.2 Medication-overuse headache |
| | 5.2 Chronic post-traumatic headache | 8.2.1 Ergotamine-overuse headache |
| | 6. Headache attributed to cranial or cervical vascular disorder, including: | 8.2.2 Triptan-overuse headache |
| | 6.2.2 Headache attributed to subarachnoid haemorrhage | 8.2.3 Analgesic-overuse headache |
| | 6.4.1 Headache attributed to giant cell arteritis | 9. Headache attributed to infection, including: |
| | 7. Headache attributed to non-vascular intracranial disorder, including: | 9.1 Headache attributed to intracranial infection |
| | 7.1.1 Headache attributed to idiopathic intracranial hypertension | 10. Headache attributed to disorder of homoeostasis |
| | 7.4 Headache attributed to intracranial neoplasm | 11. Headache or facial pain, attributed to disorder of cranium, neck, eyes, ears, nose, sinuses, teeth, mouth or other facial or cranial structures including: |
| | 8. Headache attributed to a substance or its withdrawal, including: | 11.2.1 Cervicogenic headache |
| | 8.1.3 Carbon monoxide-induced headache | 11.3.1 Headache attributed to acute glaucoma |
| | 8.1.4 Alcohol-induced headache | 12. Headache attributed to psychiatric disorder |

| Neuralgias and other headaches | 13. Cranial neuralgias, central and primary facial pain and other headaches including: |
| | 13.1 Trigeminal neuralgia | |

| 14. Other headache, cranial neuralgia, central or primary facial pain | |

*This table is a simplification of the IHS classification

4. Diagnosis of headache

4.1 Taking a history

There are no diagnostic tests for any of the primary headache disorders, or for medication-overuse headache. The history is all-important. A headache history requires time to elicit, and not finding the time to take it fully is the probable cause of most misdiagnosis. A simple and helpful ploy when the patient first presents in a busy clinic is to request the keeping of a diary over a few weeks. The pattern of attacks is a very helpful pointer to the right diagnosis, and review can be arranged at a time less rushed. First, of course, it must be ascertained that a condition requiring more urgent intervention is not present (see 5.0).

Different headache types are not mutually exclusive. Patients are often aware of more than one headache type, and a separate history should be taken for each. The crucial elements of a headache history are set out in table II.
Table II. An approach to the headache history

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. How many different headaches types does the patient experience?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Separate histories are necessary for each. It is reasonable to concentrate on the most bothersome to the patient but others should always attract some enquiry in case they are clinically important.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>2. Time questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Why consulting now?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) How recent in onset?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) How frequent, and what temporal pattern (especially distinguishing between episodic and daily or unremitting)?</td>
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<tr>
<td>d) How long lasting?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>3. Character questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Intensity of pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Nature and quality of pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Site and spread of pain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) Associated symptoms</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>4. Cause questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Predisposing and/or trigger factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Aggravating and/or relieving factors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) Family history of similar headache</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>5. Response questions</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) What does the patient do during the headache?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) How much is activity (function) limited or prevented?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) What medication has been and is used, and in what manner?</td>
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</table>

<table>
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<tr>
<th>6. State of health between attacks</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) Completely well, or residual or persisting symptoms?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) Concerns, anxieties, fears about recurrent attacks, and/or their cause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In children, distinctions between headache types, particularly migraine and tension-type headache, are often less clear than in adults.¹⁰

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4.2 Migraine

Patients with migraine typically give an account of recurrent episodic moderate or severe headaches (which may be unilateral and/or pulsating) lasting part of a day or up to 3 days, associated with gastrointestinal symptoms, during which they limit activity and prefer dark and quiet. They are free from symptoms between attacks.

Diagnostic criteria for migraine without aura are shown in table III. It is easy to regard these as a check-list, sufficient if ticked by a nurse or even the patient, but they require clinical interpretation. One of the weaknesses of the diagnostic criteria of ICHD-II is that they focus on symptoms, not patients. For migraine, therefore, they do not describe the all-important patterns of occurrence of attacks. Nevertheless, if used as they are meant to be, supplementary to normal enquiry practice, they distinguish effectively between migraine without aura and its principal differential diagnosis, tension-type headache.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table III. IHS diagnostic criteria for migraine without aura</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A</strong></td>
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<td><strong>B</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>C</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>D</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>E</strong></td>
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</table>

*In children, attacks may be shorter-lasting, headache is more commonly bilateral, and gastrointestinal disturbance is more prominent.
Migraine with aura, which affects about one third of migraine sufferers, is diagnosed relatively easily. The occurrence of typical aura clinches it, but beware of patients who bring “visual disturbance” into their accounts because of what they have read about migraine. Visual blurring and “spots” are not diagnostic. Symptoms of typical aura are progressive, last 5-60 minutes prior to headache and are visual, consisting of transient hemianopic disturbance or a spreading scintillating scotoma (patients may draw a jagged crescent if asked). In some cases visual symptoms occur together or in sequence with other reversible focal neurological disturbances such as unilateral paraesthesia of hand, arm or face (the leg is rarely affected) and/or dysphasia, all manifestations of functional cortical disturbance of one cerebral hemisphere.

Particularly in older patients, typical visual migrainous aura may occur without any further development of a migraine attack. When there is a clear history of earlier migraine with aura, and the description of aura remains similar, this is not alarming. Otherwise it should be remembered that transient ischaemic attack is in the differential diagnosis for older patients.

Patients may, at different times, have attacks of migraine with and migraine without aura. They may, over a lifetime, change from a predominance of one subtype to the other.

Prolonged aura, especially aura persisting after resolution of the headache, and aura involving motor weakness, require referral to specialists for exclusion of other disease. Amongst these cases are a very small number of families expressing recognized genes for familial hemiplegic migraine.11

Migrainous headache occurring every day (chronic migraine) is classified as a complication of migraine; it requires specialist referral because diagnosis and management are difficult.12

“Diagnosis” by treatment
It is tempting to use anti-migraine drugs as a diagnostic test for migraine. This is a condition where an empirical approach to management (“Try this and see how it works”) is not always unreasonable. However, triptans, despite being the most specific and effective drugs currently available, are at best effective in three quarters of attacks. As a diagnostic test they have rather low sensitivity so this approach is likely to mislead.

4.3 Tension-type headache (TTH)
Episodic tension-type headache also occurs in attack-like episodes, with variable and often very low frequency and mostly short-lasting - no more than several hours. Headache can be unilateral but is more often generalised. It is typically described as pressure or tightness, like a vice or tight band around the head, and commonly spreads into or arises from the neck. Whilst it can be disabling for a few hours, it lacks the specific features and associated symptom complex of migraine (although photophobia and exacerbation by movement are common to many headaches).

TTH may be stress-related or associated with functional or structural cervical or cranial musculoskeletal abnormality, and these aetiological factors are not

mutually exclusive. Patients may admit or deny stress. Clinically, there are cases where stress is obvious and likely to be aetiologically implicated (often in headache that becomes worse during the day) and others where it is not apparent. Equally there are cases with musculoskeletal involvement evident in the history (or on examination) and others where this is not a factor.

What causes people with TTH to consult healthcare professionals is that it is becoming frequent, in which case it may no longer be responding to painkillers. Chronic tension-type headache occurs by definition on >15 days a month, and may be daily. This condition is disabling.

Both migraine and TTH are aggravated by stress and, in practice, there are occasions when the distinction is not easily made. Where this is so, especially in patients with frequent headache, the two may co-exist. In such cases, unless both conditions are recognised and dealt with individually, management is unlikely to be successful (see 10.0).

4.4 Cluster headache (CH)

There is another group of disorders, the trigeminal autonomic cephalalgias, where daily occurrence of headache (often several attacks daily) is usual. The most common is cluster headache.

CH affects mostly men (male to female ratio about 6:1) in their 20s or older (very rarely children) and very often smokers. The condition has its name because, typically (although there is a less common chronic subtype), headaches occur in bouts for 6-12 weeks, once a year or two years, often at the same time each year.

The pain of CH is intense, probably as severe as that of renal colic, and strictly unilateral. Although most often focused in one or other eye, it can spread over a larger area of the head, which sometimes misleads the diagnosis. There may, also, be a continuous background headache. The other features should leave no diagnostic doubt, although unusual patterns do occur, especially in women. Typically CH occurs daily, at a similar time each day, and usually but far from always at night, 1-2 hours after falling asleep. The wakened patient, unable to stay in bed, agitatedly paces the room, even going outdoors. He may beat his head on the wall or floor until the pain diminishes, usually after 30-60 minutes. The associated autonomic features of ipsilateral conjunctival injection and lacrimation, rhinorrhea or nasal blockage, and ptosis as the most obvious feature of a partial Horner’s syndrome, may not all be present but almost invariably at least one or two secure the diagnosis. (There are other rare causes of painful Horner’s syndrome; referral to specialists is appropriate where doubt occurs.)

4.5 Medication overuse headache (MOH)

This term has displaced the pejorative alternatives of drug, analgesic or medication abuse or misuse headache. It is estimated that 1 in 50 adults suffer from MOH13, 5 women to each man, and some children.

Headache secondary to overuse of medication intended for the treatment of headache was first noted with phenacetin.

It became more apparent in patients overusing ergotamine prescribed for migraine. Ergot is very slowly eliminated from the body and is readily accumulated if taken three or more times a week, producing what ought to be a readily recognised withdrawal syndrome of sick headache. The patient, however, reasonably mistakes this for recurrent migraine. Continued repeated use of ergotamine leads to ever-shortening periods between medication intake and headache relapse, with the patient claiming - rightly - that only further doses bring relief.

Chronic ergotamine intoxication, a potentially serious condition, is nowadays rare. But increasingly in evidence is a related MOH syndrome occurring with triptan overuse. These drugs do not accumulate, but all of them are associated with headache relapse after acute therapy, through mechanisms not yet clear, whilst chronic usage probably results in down-regulation of 5-HT<sub>1B/1D</sub> receptors.

MOH results also, and much more commonly, from chronic overuse of analgesics to treat headache. Aspirin and probably all NSAIDs, paracetamol, codeine and dihydrocodeine are causally associated with this condition. Whilst the mechanism is again unclear, it is different from those of ergotamine intoxication and triptan-induced MOH, probably involving changes in neural pain pathways. Consequently, it may take a long time (weeks to months) for the headache to resolve after withdrawal.

Many patients with MOH use very large quantities of medication: 35 doses a week on average in one study, and six different agents. Much smaller amounts are sufficient to induce MOH: the regular intake of simple analgesics on more days than not or of codeine-containing analgesics, ergot or triptans on 10 or more days a month. Frequency is important: low doses daily carry greater risk than larger doses weekly.

MOH is highly variable but often oppressive, present - and often at its worst - on awakening in the morning. It increases after physical exertion. Associated nausea and vomiting are rarely pronounced. A typical history begins with episodic headache up to years earlier, more commonly migraine than TTH, treated with an analgesic or other acute medication.

Over time, headache episodes become more frequent, as does medication intake, until both are daily. Often what brings patients to the GP’s attention is that they seek prescriptions for “something stronger”. A common and probably key factor in the development of MOH is a switch to pre-emptive use of medication, in anticipation of rather than for headache. In the end-stage, which not all patients reach, headache persists all day, fluctuating with medication use repeated every few hours. This evolution occurs over a few weeks or much, much longer, depending largely but not solely on the medication taken. MOH rarely develops when analgesics are regularly taken for another indication, such as chronic backache or rheumatic disease, except in the presence of primary headache.
Prophylactic medication added to medication overuse is ineffective and can only aggravate the condition, which therefore must be recognised. Any patient complaining of frequently-recurring headache should give a detailed account of medication use (including, and particularly, OTC medications). If they cannot, or are suspected of having unreliable recall, they should keep a prospective diary over two weeks. Some patients dissemble, and need an understanding approach if a practice of which they may be ashamed is to be brought into the open.

The diagnosis of MOH based on symptoms and drug use is initially presumptive. It is confirmed only when symptoms improve after medication is withdrawn. Sometimes the diagnosis turns out to have been wrong. It is very difficult to diagnose any other headache in the presence of medication overuse which, in any event, must be detected and dealt with lest there be some other condition lurking beneath.

4.6 Differential diagnosis

Headache in almost any site, but often posterior, may arise from functional or structural derangement of the neck (cervicogenic headache), precipitated or aggravated by particular neck movements or positioning and associated with altered neck posture, movement, muscle tone, contour and/or muscle tenderness.

Headache, whether episodic or chronic, should not be attributed to sinus disease in the absence of other symptoms suggestive of it. Chronic sinusitis is not a validated cause of headache unless there is an acute exacerbation. Errors of refraction may be associated with migraine but are widely overestimated as a cause of headache which, if it does occur, is mild, frontal and in the eyes themselves, and absent on waking. Headache should not be considered secondary to conditions affecting the ears, temporomandibular joints or teeth unless other symptoms are indicative of these.

A number of serious secondary headache disorders should always be kept in mind during diagnostic enquiry (see 5.0)

4.6.1 Warning features in the history

- Headache that is new or unexpected in an individual patient
- Thunderclap headache (intense headache with abrupt or “explosive” onset)
- Headache with atypical aura (duration >1 hour, or including motor weakness)
- Aura occurring for the first time in a patient during use of combined oral contraceptives
- New onset headache in a patient older than 50 years
- New onset headache in a patient younger than 10 years
- Progressive headache, worsening over weeks or longer
- Headache associated with postural change
- New onset headache in a patient with a history of cancer
- New onset headache in a patient with a history of HIV infection.

4.7 Undiagnosed headache
A small minority of headaches do not meet recognised criteria and even after the keeping of a diary cannot reliably be diagnosed. The most important requirement in such cases is to exclude (or detect) serious causes (see 5.0).

4.8 Physical examination of headache patients
All of the headaches so far discussed are diagnosed solely on history, with signs present in cluster headache patients if seen during attacks (occasionally, ptosis may persist between). The purpose of physical examination is sometimes debated but, for reasons given below, the optic fundi should always be examined during the diagnostic consultation. Blood pressure measurement is recommended: raised blood pressure is very rarely a cause of headache but patients often think it may be. Raised blood pressure may make headache of other causes, including migraine, more difficult to treat unless itself treated. Drugs used for headache, especially migraine and cluster headache, affect blood pressure and vice versa.

Examination of the head and neck for muscle tenderness (generalised or with tender “nodules”), stiffness, limitation in range of movement and crepitation is often revealing, especially in TTH. Positive findings may suggest a need for physical forms of treatment but not necessarily headache causation. It is uncertain whether routine examination of the jaw and bite contribute to headache diagnosis but may reveal incidental abnormalities.

*In children*, some paediatricians recommend that head circumference is measured at the diagnostic visit, and plotted on a centile chart.

For many people with troublesome but benign headache, *reassurance* is very much part of successful management. The physical examination adds to the perceived value of reassurance and, within limits, the more thorough the examination the better. The time spent will likely be saved several times over, obviating many future consultations by a still-worried patient.

A recent outpatient study found only 0.9% of consecutive headache patients without neurological signs had significant pathology. This reinforces the importance of physical examination in diagnosing serious causes of headache such as tumour (see 5.0), although the history would probably be revealing in these cases. A prospective study has suggested that isolated headache for longer than ten weeks after initial presentation will only exceptionally be due to a tumour.

4.9 Investigation of headache patients
Investigations, including neuroimaging, do not contribute to the diagnosis of migraine or tension-type headache. Some experts, but not all, request brain MRI in patients newly-diagnosed with CH. There are no data on the rate of abnormal

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26. Detsky ME, McDonald DR, Baerlocker MO, Tomlinson GA, McCoy DC, Booth CM. Does this patient with headache have a migraine or need neuroimaging? JAMA 2006; 296: 1274-83.
findings. Otherwise, investigations are indicated only when history or examination suggest headache is secondary to some other condition. They may have the occasional therapeutic value of convincing a patient, who will not be convinced by any other means, that all is well.

Cervical spine x-rays are usually unhelpful even when neck signs suggest origin from the neck as they do not alter management.

Eye tests by an ophthalmic optician are unlikely to contribute to headache diagnosis, although many patients believe they will.

4.10 Conclusion

The great frequency with which complaints of headache are encountered in clinical practice coupled with a very low relative incidence of serious causes (see 5.0) makes it difficult to maintain an appropriate level of suspicion. If headache is approached with a standard operating procedure that supplements history with fundoscopic examination, brief but comprehensive neurological examination (which repays the time spent through its therapeutic value) and the use of diaries to record headaches, associated symptoms and medication use, and an awareness of the few important serious causes, errors should be avoided.

The greatest clinical difficulty, usually, is in distinguishing between migraine and TTH, which may coexist. The real concern, on the other hand, is that so much headache is iatrogenic. Many misused drugs are bought OTC. Failure to discover this in the history results in inappropriate treatment.

Headache that defies diagnosis calls for specialist referral.
## 5. Serious causes of headache

### 5.1 Intracranial tumours

Rarely do intracranial tumours produce headache until quite large (although pituitary tumours are an exception to this). Usually they are then evident for other reasons, but 3-4% (that is 3 per million of the population per year) present as headache. Raised intracranial pressure is apparent in the history. Epilepsy is a cardinal symptom of intracerebral space occupying lesions, and loss of consciousness should be viewed very seriously. In all likelihood, focal neurological signs will be present. Problems are more likely to occur with slowly growing tumours, especially those in neurologically “silent” areas of the frontal lobes. Subtle personality change may result in treatment for depression, with headache attributed to it. Investigation may be prompted eventually by non-response to treatment, but otherwise some of these can be very difficult to pick up, whilst their infrequency does not justify routine brain scanning. *Fundoscopic examination is mandatory* at first presentation.

| 5. Serious causes of headache |
|-------------------------------|------------------|
| 5.1 Intracranial tumours      | 16               |
| 5.2 Meningitis                | 17               |
| 5.3 Subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH) | 17 |
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| 5.7 Carbon monoxide poisoning | 18               |

with headache, and it is always worthwhile to repeat it
during follow-up.
Heightened suspicion is appropriate in patients who develop
new headache and are known to have cancer elsewhere,
or a suppressed immune system.

5.2 Meningitis
The signs of fever and neck stiffness usually accompany
meningitis, in an obviously ill patient. Headache is nearly
always progressive over hours or longer, generalised or frontal,
perhaps radiating to the neck, and accompanied later by
nausea and disturbed consciousness.
The serious implications and urgent need for treatment and
investigations demand immediate referral to specialist care.

5.3 Subarachnoid haemorrhage
The clinical diagnosis of subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH) is
often straightforward, although the headache is not always of
sudden onset, and neck stiffness may take some hours to
develop. The headache of SAH is often described as the worst
ever, but some patients are inclined to use such descriptive
terms of migraine, rather devaluing them as diagnostic
indicators. Even “explosive” features can occur with migraine
(so-called “thunderclap headache”). Nevertheless, unless there
is a clear history of uncomplicated headaches from which the
present one is not particularly different, these characteristics
indicate an urgent need for brain imaging, then CSF
examination.

The serious consequences of missing SAH call for a low
threshold of suspicion. In the elderly particularly, classical
symptoms and signs may be absent.

5.4 Giant cell (temporal) arteritis
New headache in any patient over 50 years of age should raise
the suspicion of giant cell arteritis (GCA). Headache is the best
known but not an inevitable symptom of GCA.\textsuperscript{30} It is very
variable. It is likely to be persistent when present, often worse
at night, and it can be very severe indeed. In only a minority of
cases is it localised to the temple(s).\textsuperscript{32} Jaw claudication is so
suggestive that, in its presence, the diagnosis is GCA until
proved otherwise. Furthermore, the patient with GCA is
systemically unwell. Marked scalp tenderness is common on
examination, and may be a presenting complaint. Whilst the
temporal artery may be inflamed, and tender, tortuous and
thickened to palpation, this is an unreliable sign. Most patients
have an ESR >50 mm/hr, but this can be lower\textsuperscript{32} or it may be
raised in the elderly for other reasons so temporal artery biopsy
is usually necessary to secure the diagnosis.

The dilemma is that treatment may be long-term and toxic
(steroids in high dosage), and needs to be commenced
immediately - but not without very good reason.

5.5 Primary angle-closure glaucoma
Non-specific headache can be a symptom of primary angle-
closure glaucoma (PACG). This is rare before middle age, when
its prevalence is close to 1:1,000. Family history, female gender

\textsuperscript{30} Graham Jones G. Clinical features of giant cell arteritis. Baillière's Clin
Rheumatol 1991; 5: 413-430.
\textsuperscript{31} Ibid.
\textsuperscript{32} Wise CM, Agudelo CA, Chmelewski WL, McKnight KM. Temporal arteritis

with low erythrocyte sedimentation rate: a review of five cases. Arthritis Rheum
1991; 34: 1571-1574.
and hypermetropia are recognised risk factors. PACG may present dramatically with acute ocular hypertension, a unilateral painful red eye with the pupil mid-dilated and fixed, associated nausea and vomiting and, essentially, impaired vision. In other cases, headache or eye pain may be episodic and mild, with the diagnosis of PACG suggested if the patient reports coloured haloes around lights. The diagnosis of PACG is confirmed by skilled slit-lamp examination and gonioscopy. Glaucoma should not to be missed, and should prompt immediate referral.

5.6 Idiopathic intracranial hypertension

A rare cause of headache that nonetheless should always be in the physician’s mind, because it also leads to visual loss, is idiopathic intracranial hypertension (IIH) (formerly termed benign intracranial hypertension or pseudotumor cerebri). IIH is more common in young women, in whom it is strongly associated with obesity. It may not readily be diagnosed on history alone, though this may suggest raised intracranial pressure. The physical sign of papilloedema indicates the diagnosis in adults, but is not seen invariably in children with the condition.

Suspected cases require referral and diagnostic confirmation by measurement of CSF pressure - which is greatly elevated - after brain imaging, which is normal.

5.7 Carbon monoxide poisoning

Carbon monoxide (CO) poisoning is uncommon but an avoidable (and easily overlooked) cause of ill-health and fatalities. The symptoms of subacute CO poisoning include headaches, nausea, vomiting, giddiness, muscular weakness, dimness of vision and double vision. Not all of these may occur; lethargy may result in misdiagnosis of chronic fatigue syndrome.

In suspected cases, domestic gas appliances should be checked (gas flames should burn blue, not yellow or orange) although Department of Health advice is that the risk of CO poisoning is higher in households relying on solid fuel.

Measurement of blood carboxyhaemoglobin concentration shortly after exposure confirms the diagnosis.

34. Ibid.
6. Management of migraine

6.1 Objectives of management

Cure is not a realistic aim and patients need to understand this. On the other hand, there is evidence that many migraine sufferers have unduly low expectations of what is achievable through optimum management. In the past, physicians’ attitudes have reinforced this. The shared objective should be control of symptoms so that the effect of the illness on a patient’s life and lifestyle is the least it can be.

6.2 Basic principles

To this end, patients should work through the treatment options in a rational order, and continue to do so until it is certain they have found what suits them best. In applying the following guidelines, follow-up should ensure optimum treatment has been established. Denial of best available treatment is difficult to justify for patients generally and, therefore, for individual patients. Unnecessary pain and disability are the result. In addition, increasingly it is being demonstrated that under-treatment is not cost-effective: sufferers’ and their carers’ lost time is expensive, as are repeated consultations in the search for better therapy. Never underestimate the benefit of just listening to patients and taking them seriously. It should be remembered that needs may change. Migraine typically varies with time, and concomitant illness including other headaches may develop.

Children often respond to conservative management, which should therefore be the initial approach. Reassurance of
parents is an important aspect of treating children. Otherwise, most can be managed as adults, with allowance for different symptom presentation and perhaps different dose-requirements and contraindications.

Children with troublesome migraine not responding to trigger avoidance and simple analgesics taken early with or without anti-emetics should be seen by a paediatrician with an interest in headache.

In adults, there are four elements to good migraine management:

- correct and timely diagnosis;
- explanation and reassurance;
- predisposing/trigger identification and avoidance;
- intervention (drug or non-drug).

Diagnosis has been covered above. Explanation keeps patients' expectations realistic, and fosters appropriate use of therapy. Reassurance following diagnosis and explanation is all some patients need. In any event the effect of reassurance is added to that of any therapeutic intervention.

6.3 Predisposing and trigger factors

Predisposing factors should be distinguished from precipitating or trigger factors (see 6.3.2). Certain predisposing factors are well recognised. They are not always avoidable but may be treatable (see table).
### 6.3.1 Predisposing factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predisposing factor</th>
<th>Management summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>Lifestyle change; stress reduction/coping strategies (see 6.6.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression/anxiety</td>
<td>Specific therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menstruation</td>
<td>See 6.5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menopause</td>
<td>Hormone replacement therapy (see 6.5.12)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head or neck trauma</td>
<td>Physiotherapy (see 6.6.1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 6.3.2 Trigger factors

Trigger factors are important in occasional patients but generally less so than is commonly supposed. Dietary sensitivities affect, at most, 20% of migraine sufferers. Many attacks have no obvious trigger and, again, those that are identified are not always avoidable (see table).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trigger factor</th>
<th>Management summary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relaxation after stress, especially at weekends or on holiday</td>
<td>Stress avoidance; lifestyle change (see 6.6.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other change in habit: missing meals; missing sleep; lying in late; long distance travel</td>
<td>Avoidance if possible; otherwise avoidance of additional triggers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bright lights and loud noise (both perhaps stress-inducing)</td>
<td>Avoidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary: certain alcoholic drinks; some cheeses</td>
<td>Avoidance if indicated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strenuous unaccustomed exercise</td>
<td>Keeping fit / avoidance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Menstruation</td>
<td>See 6.5.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Diaries (see 6.3.3) may be useful in detecting triggers but the process is complicated as triggers appear to combine, jointly contributing to a “threshold” above which attacks are initiated. Too much effort in seeking triggers causes introspection and may be counter-productive. Enforced lifestyle change is inappropriate management if it adversely affects quality of life by more than is offset by improvement in migraine. Simple advice to patients is to minimise potential triggers: at stressful times eat regularly, for example.

Anxiety and emotion. Most migraineurs cope well with stresses but many have attacks when they relax (so giving rise to weekend migraine, which is common). Stress may induce other triggers such as missed meals, poor sleep and muscle tension. Although stress may be unavoidable, its existence may make it more important to avoid other triggers.

Missing meals may trigger attacks. Regular meals should be encouraged.

Specific foods are less commonly implicated in triggering migraine than is widely believed. A food is a trigger when: a) migraine onset occurs within 6 hours of intake; b) the effect is reasonably reproducible; c) withdrawal leads to improvement. Most migraineurs can eat whatever they like as long as they keep up with their energy demands. A few susceptible individuals note a definite relationship between the consumption of certain foods, particularly alcohol, and the onset of migraine. The foods may not always trigger an attack but tip the balance when the person is vulnerable. Dietary triggers, when real, become obvious to patients and are usefully avoided. A suspected food should be excluded for a few weeks. When many foods are suspect, supervision by a dietician is advisable as elimination diets can result in malnutrition. Excluded foods should be reintroduced if there is no significant improvement. There is no case for blanket avoidance of cheese, chocolate or other foods, or for other dietary manipulation.

Cravings for sweet or savoury foods are probably premonitory symptoms heralding the headache, not triggers.

Food allergy (ie, an immunological process) has no part in the causation of migraine.

Too much and too little sleep can both play a role. Sleepless nights result in over-tiredness which triggers migraine. Conversely, sleeping in for even half an hour longer than usual, often at the weekend, can trigger migraine. In both cases, the cause of the altered sleep pattern (stress, relaxation) may be the true trigger.

Hormonal changes. Migraine is three times more common in women than in men. Attacks in most women start around puberty and continue until the menopause, with respites during pregnancy. Many women are far more susceptible to migraine at the time of their periods and a small percentage have attacks exclusively at or near (±48 hr) onset of menstruation (menstrual migraine). Women with obvious hormonal triggers may benefit from specific intervention (see 6.5.9).

Strenuous exercise can precipitate an attack in a person...
unaccustomed to it. This puts many people off exercise when in fact regular exercise may help prevent migraine attacks. This is because it improves blood sugar balance, helps breathing, stimulates the body to release its own natural pain killers and promotes a general sense of well-being.

6.3.3 The trigger diary
When migraine attacks are frequent, a trigger diary may be useful in addition to the attack diary. Patients can be given a list of common triggers and record those present each day whether they have a migraine attack or not. The daily trigger diary and attack diary are best reviewed after at least five attacks. The information in each is compared for coincidence of (multiple) triggers with attacks.

6.4 Drug intervention (acute)
The evidence-base for many acute anti-migraine drugs is poor. For aspirin/metoclopramide combination the evidence is better and for the triptans it is generally good. Whilst, logically, drug treatment should be selected for each patient according to his or her need and expected response to it ("stratified management"), little basis other than guesswork presently exists for achieving this. In particular, the superiority of triptans over other treatments in all patients or in any clearly identifiable subgroup of them can be questioned.

Consequently, there is a treatment ladder which begins with drugs chosen because they are safest and cheapest whilst being known to have efficacy. All patients should start on the first step of this ladder ("stepped management"). Stepped management is not contrary to the principle of individualised care: on the contrary, it is a reliable strategy for achieving it based on evidence manifestly applicable to the individual patient. Speed is sacrificed only if a better alternative exists, for which a search continues. It is suggested, but not an invariable rule, that failure on three occasions should be the criterion for progressing from each step to the next. Statistically, three consecutive failures are still compatible with an 80% success rate but, in practice, few patients will persist for longer.

People who recognise attacks of more than one sort, or of differing severity, may apply different steps for each accordingly.

As a general rule, all acute drug therapy should be combined with rest and sleep (promoted if necessary with temazepam or zolpidem). However, the central objective of treatment for some patients is to be able to carry on with their activities and, for these, this recommendation is inappropriate.

6.4.1 Step one: simple oral analgesic ± anti-emetic
Recommended analgesic doses for acute migraine are typically greater than standard doses to achieve rapid therapeutic levels against a background of gastric stasis.

1a) Over-the-counter analgesic ± anti-emetic:
For pain:
- aspirin 600-900mg or ibuprofen 400-600mg mg and placebo in acute migraine attack. Cephalalgia 1994; 14:156-161.

in either case best taken in buffered soluble or orodispersible formulations\(^{45,46}\) and early in the attack when absorption may be least inhibited by gastric stasis. Up to 4 doses can be taken in 24 hours. These drugs should be used without codeine or dihydrocodeine (see 6.4.11). There is little evidence for the efficacy of paracetamol alone\(^{47}\).

For nausea and vomiting (if required):

- prochlorperazine 3-6mg buccal tablet,\(^{48}\) dissolved between gum and cheek up to twice in 24 hours, or
- domperidone 10mg, up to four times in 24 hours.

1b) OTC or prescription NSAIDs combined with a prokinetic anti-emetic:

- aspirin 600-900mg, up to 4 doses in 24 hours or
- ibuprofen 400-600mg, up to 4 doses in 24 hours or
- tolfenamic acid rapid release 200mg,\(^{49}\) repeated once if necessary after 1-2 hours or

- naproxen 750-825mg\(^{50,51,52}\) with a further 250-275mg up to twice in 24 hours or
- diclofenac-potassium 50-100mg\(^{53,54,55}\) repeated up to a total of 200mg in 24 hours in all cases in a non-delayed release formulation and combined with a prokinetic anti-emetic to promote gastric emptying:
  - metoclopramide 10mg,\(^{56,57}\) or
  - domperidone 20mg\(^{58}\)

Domperidone is less sedating than metoclopramide and creates less risk of extrapyramidal side effects.

MigraMax\(^{59,60}\) (lysine acetylsalicylate 1620 mg [equivalent to aspirin 900mg] plus metoclopramide 10mg per sachet; up to three sachets in 24 hours) is a convenient preparation. An alternative for those who cannot tolerate aspirin is Paramax sachets (paracetamol 500mg plus metoclopramide 5mg per sachet; 2 sachets per dose; up to 3 doses in 24 hours). There is no other way at present to give metoclopramide in a soluble oral formulation. Paramax tablets are not soluble.

52. Synflex SmPC. September 2005.
55. Dahlöf C, Björkman R. Diclofenac-K (50 and 100 mg) and placebo in the acute treatment of migraine. Cephalalgia 1993; 13: 117-123.
Contraindications to step one:
In adults there are no general contraindications, unless it has clearly failed before. There may be specific contraindications to aspirin or to other NSAIDs. In children under 16 years of age aspirin should be avoided. Metoclopramide is not recommended for children or adolescents; prochlorperazine is not recommended for children.

6.4.2 Step two: rectal analgesic ± anti-emetic
Diclofenac suppositories 100mg (up to 200mg in 24 hours) for pain plus domperidone suppositories 30-60mg (up to 120mg in 24 hours) when needed for nausea or vomiting.

Contraindications to step two:
Peptic ulcer (misoprostol 800µg or omeprazole 20-40 mg daily may give limited gastroduodenal protection\(^{61,62}\)) or lower bowel disease. The occurrence of diarrhoea during acute migraine may prevent effective use. Some patients will not accept suppositories.

6.4.3 Step three: specific anti-migraine drugs
The marketed triptans differ in ways that might rationally suggest one rather than another for a particular patient. Clinical trials indicate that they range in comparative efficacy.\(^{63}\) They also range in cost, suggesting that they might be ranked according to their cost-effectiveness (in the accounts of each below, prices are basic NHS costs per dose for branded triptans).\(^{64}\) However, there are unpredictable individual variations in response to different triptans. About 30% of patients fail to respond to any particular one, with non-response attributable to a variety of factors including low and inconsistent absorption, use of the medication at the wrong time (too early or too late in an attack), inadequate dose and individual biological variability.\(^{65}\) Evidence from several trials confirms the common clinical observation that patients with a poor response to one triptan can benefit from another in subsequent attacks. Ideally, each triptan should be tried in three attacks before it is rejected for lack of efficacy. Not only a different triptan but also dosage and a different route of administration should be considered.

Unlike symptomatic therapy, triptans should not be taken too early. There is increasing evidence of greater efficacy when taken whilst pain is still mild,\(^{66}\) but triptans appear to be ineffective if administered during aura.\(^{67,68}\)

All triptans are associated with return of symptoms within 48 hours in 20-50% of patients who have initially responded (relapse). This is a troublesome limitation (see 6.4.7).

When triptans are taken orally, concomitant administration of a prokinetic anti-emetic, metoclopramide or domperidone, is suggested on theoretical grounds: there is some evidence to support the former.\(^{69}\)

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Sumatriptan was first launched, and clinical experience of its use is greatest. The 50mg tablet (£4.37-£4.60 [generic versions available at lower cost]) and the rapidly-dispersing RADIS 50mg tablet (£4.15) are equally appropriate for first use of a triptan. When response to these is inadequate, the 100mg tablet (£7.44 [generic versions available at lower cost]), RADIS 100mg tablet (£7.44) or 20mg nasal spray (£6.14) may be used according to preference. Total dosage per 24 hours should not exceed 300mg orally or 40mg intranasally. The nasal spray is not useful if vomiting precludes oral therapy since its bioavailability depends largely on ingestion.

Imigran RECOVERY 50mg tablet (£3.98) is available from pharmacies, without prescription.

If a rapid response is important above all, 6mg subcutaneously (autoinject device) (£21.02-£22.10) is the triptan of choice. Only sumatriptan offers this option. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 12mg.

For adolescents (12-17 years), sumatriptan 10mg nasal spray (£6.14) is a specifically licensed formulation.

Zolmitriptan 2.5mg tablet (£4.00) and 2.5mg RAPIMELT [orodispersible tablet placed on the tongue] (£4.00) are also equally appropriate for first use of a triptan. A second dose may be taken for lack of effect after two hours if needed. When this is usually the case, a first dose of 5mg RAPIMELT (£4.36) is recommended. Total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 10mg. Zolmitriptan 5mg nasal spray (£6.75) produces a rapid response, and may be useful if vomiting is already occurring since up to 30% is absorbed through the nasal mucosa. Although zolmitriptan is not licensed for use in children or adolescents (12-17 years), there is evidence to suggest efficacy in adolescents.

Rizatriptan 10mg tablet (£4.46) and 10mg MELT (orodispersible wafer placed on the tongue) (£4.46) are alternatives to sumatriptan 100mg. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 20mg. Metabolism is affected by propranolol and patients on this drug should take 5mg tablet (£4.46) with a maximum dose per 24 hours of 10mg.

Naratriptan 2.5mg tablet (£4.09) is well tolerated but its relatively low efficacy and slow onset of effect limit its use in patients seeking a rapid response. It is recommended when side-effects to other triptans are troublesome. The evidence for less relapse is not convincing. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 5mg.

82. Mathew NT, Asgharnejad M, Peykamian M, Laurenza A. Naratriptan is effective and well tolerated in the acute treatment of migraine: Results of a double-blind, placebo-controlled, crossover study. Neurology 1997; 49: 1485-1490.a
Almotriptan 12.5mg tablet (£3.02) has shown similar efficacy and relapse rates to sumatriptan 100mg in clinical trials, and it is well tolerated.83,84 These features suggest it is a strong candidate for first-line use as a triptan. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 25mg.

Elettriptan is unlike other triptans in exhibiting a clear dose-response relationship for efficacy in the range 20-80mg.85,86 The standard starting dose is 40mg tablet (£3.75). Those who find this dose well-tolerated but not efficacious may benefit from 80mg (two tablets; £7.50). A 20mg tablet (£3.75) is marketed for those with mild or moderate renal impairment, but may be used if side-effects occur at higher doses. This dose-flexibility makes elettriptan another strong candidate for first-line use as a triptan. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 80mg.

Frovatriptan 2.5mg tablet (£2.95) has a substantially longer half-life (26 hours) than all other triptans, but this does not appear to translate into markedly lower relapse rates.87 In comparative clinical trials, frovatriptan 2.5mg was less efficacious than sumatriptan 100mg as but with fewer adverse events.88 The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 5mg. Post-marketing experience is needed to establish the position of frovatriptan amongst other triptans.

Ergotamine tartrate 1-2 mg, in clinical trials in which it has been used as a comparator, has shown significantly lower relapse rates which may be due to its prolonged duration of action.90 Ergotamine may therefore still have a place if relapse is a particular problem (see 6.4.7), but toxicity and misuse potential are greater risks with ergotamine than with triptans. It has very poor bioavailability and is better taken rectally. Each suppository contains 2mg (plus caffeine 100mg) (£0.34) and a half suppository is adequate for some people. The total dose per 24 hours should not exceed 4mg.

Ergotamine should not be taken concomitantly with any triptan, but is probably safe 12 hours after all but frovatriptan (see 6.4.6).

Contraindications to step three:

a) Uncontrolled hypertension.

b) Risk factors for coronary heart disease or cerebrovascular disease: past history; strong family history (the significance of this is age-related); advanced age; signs of either. The cardiovascular risk of triptans is very low in the absence of these contraindications.91 In cases of uncertainty, cardiological referral and/or exercise ECG are recommended.

c) Children under 12 years: no experience has been reported and neither safety nor efficacy are established.

There are additional specific contraindications to some triptans. Ergotamine taken with beta-blockers, which impair nutrient flow to the skin, can cause digital gangrene.
6.4.4 Step four: combinations
There is some evidence that the combination of sumatriptan 50mg and naproxen 500mg is superior to either drug alone. Other combinations of steps one + three may be worth trying, followed by steps two + three.

Although it is not common practice, diclofenac 75mg intramuscularly may be self-injected. It is difficult: the intramuscular volume is 3ml, requiring two injection sites.

6.4.5 Emergency treatment of patients at home
This usually falls to general practitioners. Parenteral narcotics often carried by GPs are not recommended (see 6.4.11). If an effective therapy has not been established previously, the treatment of choice for pain is diclofenac 75mg intramuscularly and, if needed, chlorpromazine 25-50mg intramuscularly as a potent anti-emetic and sedative. If this is not available, metoclopramide 10mg intramuscularly or intravenously is an alternative.

Early follow-up is suggested.

6.4.6 Treatment of relapse within the same attack after initial efficacy
Symptomatic medications (steps one and two) may, and if needed should, be repeated within their dosage limitations. In the case of triptans, there is good evidence that a second dose is effective for relapse but very little to show that it is the most appropriate treatment. In most people it is the sensible option, with a minimum of 2 hours between doses and within the total daily dose limitation for the particular triptan. But, in some, relapse appears to be a manifestation of rebound and repeated dosing can give rise to repeated rebound over several days.

There is no clear consensus on the best management of these people, but naproxen 500mg or tolfenamic acid 200mg may be preferable for the first or second relapse.

Ergotamine tartrate may be an alternative but efficacy has not been formally established; it should not be used within 24 hours after frovatriptan or 12 hours after any other triptan.

6.4.7 Patients who consistently experience relapse
There is some evidence that this occurs more in those whose untreated attacks last longer than 24 hours.

Naratriptan, eletriptan and frovatriptan are associated with relatively low relapse rates. The differences are not marked.

If step three fails:
Review the diagnosis. Review compliance and manner of use of medication. Steps four may be worth trying. Consider prophylaxis (see 6.5).

Ergotamine is associated with significantly less relapse and is a fall-back option (see 6.4.3). Naproxen or tolfenamic acid may be used pre-emptively if relapse is anticipated.

6.4.8 “Long-duration migraine”
Migraine lasting longer than 3 days (status migrainosus) is uncommon. Apparently long-duration attacks may be migraine with a superseding tension-type headache for which naproxen or diclofenac are preferable to specific anti-migraine drugs. Multiple relapses over days following repeated doses of a triptan are a well-recognised complication (see 6.4.6).

6.4.9 Slowly developing migraine
Patients whose attacks develop slowly may initially be uncertain whether their headache is migrainous or not. If treatment is required at this stage, simple analgesics are recommended and may prevent further development. **Triptans** should not be used, if at all, until it is certain that the headache is migrainous.

6.4.10 Migraine in pregnancy and lactation
**Paracetamol** in moderation is safe throughout pregnancy. **Aspirin** and NSAIDs are safe except in the third trimester. For nausea, metoclopramide or domperidone are unlikely to cause harm throughout pregnancy and lactation.

Many women ask whether they can continue to use triptans whilst pregnant. On present knowledge, this cannot be recommended as a routine. Most of the available information relates to sumatriptan, and suggests that exposure during pregnancy leads to no higher risk of birth defects than is recorded in the general population. Women who have inadvertently taken triptans and then find themselves pregnant can be reassured that the outcome of the pregnancy is very unlikely to be adversely affected by the triptan.

A number of drugs can be used by breastfeeding women to treat migraine. These include the painkillers ibuprofen, diclofenac, and paracetamol, which may be combined with domperidone. The manufacturers of almotriptan, eletriptan, frovatriptan, sumatriptan and rizatriptan all recommend avoiding breastfeeding for 24 hours after treatment, although studies on eletriptan and sumatriptan show that only negligible amounts enter breast milk. In contrast, the manufacturers’ advice for naratriptan and zolmitriptan state only “Caution should be exercised when considering administration… to women who are breast-feeding.” The American Academy of Pediatrics (AAP) Committee on Drugs advises that sumatriptan is compatible with breast-feeding.

6.4.11 Drugs to avoid in acute intervention
**Opiates and opioids** (including diamorphine, morphine, pethidine, dextropropoxyphene, buprenorphine, codeine and dihydrocodeine) increase nausea, promote systemic shut-down and have addictive potential. **Buprenorphine** is particularly emetic. **Codeine** and dihydrocodeine are used extensively in OTC combination analgesics; they provide small additional benefit in a range of painful conditions but evidence of this does not extend to headache and it is at the expense of increased side-effects. Furthermore, when these drugs are implicated in MOH, management is significantly more difficult (see 9.0).


6.4.12 Limits to acute therapy: frequency of use
Over-frequent use of drugs for acute intervention may be one
criterion for prophylaxis (see below). On a regular basis:

a) use on **more than two days per week** is inappropriate for
migraine and is associated with a clear risk of MOH;
b) use on **more than one day per week** calls for close enquiry
into how it is used, and review of the diagnosis.

6.5 Drug intervention (prophylactic)

6.5.1 Indications for prophylaxis
Prophylaxis is used to reduce the **number** of attacks in
circumstances when acute therapy, used appropriately, gives
**inadequate symptom control**. The judge of this is usually the
patient. In *children*, an index of this is frequency of absence from
school because of migraine.

Over-frequent use of acute therapy is also a criterion for migraine
prophylaxis, but prophylactic drugs are inappropriate and will be
ineffective for medication overuse headache. This condition must
first be excluded.

When indicated, prophylactic therapy is used *in addition* to acute
therapy, not in place of it.

6.5.2 Dose-titration
Most prophylactics are used within a dose range, and in
general must be up-titrated slowly to an effective dose (or to
the maximum dose) in order to avoid side-effects that will
precipitate premature discontinuation. This can lead to a delay
in efficacy which itself, unfortunately, sometimes triggers
discontinuation (see 6.5.3). Careful explanation is needed.

6.5.3 Duration of use
Migraine is cyclical: treatment is required for periods of
exacerbation and uninterrupted prophylaxis over very long
periods is rarely appropriate.

Drugs that are **effective** should be continued for **4-6 months**,then withdrawal considered to establish continued need.
Withdrawal is best achieved by tapering the dose over
2-3 weeks.

Prophylactic drugs that are apparently **not effective** should
not be discontinued too soon since efficacy may be slow to
develop, particularly when dose-titration is necessary (see
6.5.2). In practice patients usually decide when they stop
medication, so careful explanation is needed lest they be
labelled non-responders inappropriately (eventually,
perhaps, to all drugs). There is no absolute guide but, in
the absence of unacceptable side-effects, **6-8 weeks** is a
reasonable trial following dose-titration, and **3 cycles** in the
case of specific therapy for hormone-related migraine (see
6.5.9).

6.5.4 First-line prophylactic drugs
The criteria for preferring one prophylactic drug to another are
based upon:
The following recommendations are based on this evidence coupled with expert clinical experience.

**Beta-adrenergic blockers without partial agonism** are first-line if not contraindicated by asthma, heart failure, peripheral vascular disease or depression. Cardioselectivity and hydrophilicity both improve the side-effect profile; on this basis, *atenolol* 25-100mg bd is to be preferred over *metoprolol* 50-100mg bd and this over *propranolol LA* 80mg od-160mg bd. On the same basis plus the knowledge that once-daily dosing is associated with significantly better compliance,¹¹² *bisoprolol* 5-10mg od may be the beta-blocker of choice but better evidence of its efficacy is needed. Commonly reported adverse events include cold extremities, reduced exercise tolerance and dizziness.

**Amitriptyline** 10-150mg daily, at or 1-2 hours before bedtime, is first-line when migraine coexists with:
- troublesome tension-type headache (see 6.7);
- another chronic pain condition;
- disturbed sleep;
- depression.

Except in the last case it is wise to explain the choice of this drug to patients who do not consider themselves depressed or they may reject it. Commonly reported adverse events include dry mouth, sedation, dizziness and nausea. These are most apparent in the first couple of weeks and usually settle with continued use.

**Desipramine***, *nortriptyline*** and *protriptyline*** are less sedative alternatives with no formal evidence of efficacy.

6.5.5 Second-line prophylactic drugs

*Topiramate* 25mg od-50mg bd and *sodium valproate* 300-1000mg bd are second-line.

Topiramate was licensed for migraine prophylaxis in 2005. Clinical trials suggest equivalent efficacy with sodium valproate.¹¹³ Hence, in the event of failure or poor tolerability of one treatment, the other is worth trying. These drugs, but particularly sodium

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* Unlicensed indication
104. Mulleners WM, Whitmarsh TE, Steiner TJ. Noncompliance may render migraine prophylaxis useless, but once-daily regimens are better. Cephalalgia 1998; 18: 52-56.
112. Mulleners WM, Whitmarsh TE, Steiner TJ. Noncompliance may render migraine prophylaxis useless, but once-daily regimens are better. Cephalalgia 1998; 18: 52-56.
valproate, are not safe during pregnancy and therefore contraindicated when pregnancy may occur. Sodium valproate does not reduce the efficacy of hormonal contraception. Topiramate is an enzyme-inducer and reduces the efficacy of hormonal contraception in anti-epileptic doses. However, it is unlikely to have a clinically significant effect on hormonal contraception at doses not exceeding 100mg daily.\(^{114}\)

Adverse events reported for sodium valproate include nausea, asthenia, somnolence, weight gain and alopecia. Blood cell count, platelet count, bleeding time and coagulation tests are recommended prior to starting treatment and in case of spontaneous bruising or bleeding. Liver dysfunction is reported rarely.

About 50% of patients taking topiramate for migraine experience tingling sensations, like ‘pins and needles’, which usually resolve with continued use. Around a quarter report relative anorexia and loss of more than 10% of their body weight, and almost as many experience some degree of cognitive dysfunction. Use of topiramate has been associated with nephrolithiasis, depression and mood alterations. Secondary angle-closure glaucoma has been reported.

Neither drug is generally recommended for migraine prophylaxis in children (but see 6.5.8).

6.5.6 Third-line prophylactic drugs
There is some clinical justification for considering other antiepileptics such as **Gabapentin**\(^*\) 300mg od-800mg tds,\(^{115}\) although evidence of efficacy is far from robust. The most common adverse events reported are dizziness and sedation.

**Methysergide 1-2mg tds\(^{116}\)** is generally considered (on limited formal evidence) to be the most effective prophylactic, but is held in reserve. This is partly because of its association with retroperitoneal fibrosis although it is said not to have this side-effect in courses of less than 6 months (see 6.5.3). Perhaps more importantly, methysergide has 5-HT\(_{1B/1D}\) agonist activity which may be responsible for the severe rebound headache experienced by many patients attempting to withdraw from this drug after several months of usage. There is no consensus on managing this problem, although some experts provide cover with prednisolone 60mg od reducing over 2-3 weeks. Commonly reported side-effects of methysergide are gastrointestinal intolerance and sedation, and can be minimised by taking it with food.

**Beta-blockers** and **amitriptyline** can be used together, and a synergistic effect is claimed for this combination without formal evidence. It is logical if there may be a depressive trait.

6.5.7 Other drugs used in prophylaxis but with limited or uncertain efficacy

**Pizotifen**\(^{117}\) and **clonidine**\(^{118}\) have been widely used for many years but with little clinical trials evidence of efficacy. They should now be superseded.

\*Unlicensed indication


Verapamil* MR 120-240mg bd has limited clinical-trials evidence of efficacy. Headache is sometimes a side-effect. 

Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors are of uncertain value. Fluoxetine* 20mg alter die to 40mg od is best studied with inconclusive evidence of efficacy against migraine.119

Despite promising initial results, there is no evidence to support the use of botulinum toxin* for migraine management.120

Other drugs, including lisinopril121 and montelukast122 show potential benefit from randomised controlled trials but further research is necessary before they can be recommended.

6.5.8 Prophylaxis in children

There is little formal evidence of efficacy of prophylactic drugs in children. For the few children who need prophylaxis, beta-blockers or pizotifen (available as an elixir) may be tried. Paediatric headache specialists employ the full range of treatments used in adults, often with benefit.

Dosage is adjusted according to age.

6.5.9 Prophylaxis for hormone-related migraine

An effect of hormones on migraine is common, and greater for migraine without aura.123 Evidence suggests estrogen withdrawal triggers migraine in some women.124,125

Menstrual migraine, defined as attacks of migraine without aura that occur regularly on day 1 of menstruation ± 2 days and at no other time, is rare.126 Correct diagnosis of menstrual migraine is essential for successful hormonal management. The diagnosis is clinical and confirmed by diary card evidence over three months. Depending on need for contraception, several options can be tried in whatever order seems appropriate. Prophylaxis should be tried for a minimum of three cycles at maximum dose before it is deemed ineffective.

A) Non-hormonal prophylaxis does not depend on regular menstruation. Mefenamic acid* 500mg tds-qds can be given from the onset of menstruation until the last day of bleeding. It is recommended as first-line in migraine occurring with menorrhagia and/or dysmenorrhoea.

B) Triptans have been studied in clinical trials of short-term prophylaxis of menstrual attacks of migraine. The greatest evidence of efficacy is for frovatriptan* for 6 days (5mg bd on day 1; 2.5mg bd on days 2-6) starting 2 days before the expected onset of migraine.127

C) Hormones for menstrual migraine are supplements: if the women has an intact uterus and is menstruating regularly, no progestogens are necessary. Transdermal estrogen*100µg128

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*Unlicensed indication


is used from 3 days before onset of menses for 7 days, preferably using a 7-day patch. When this is effective but not well tolerated, 50μg may be tried. Alternatively, estradiol 1.5mg in 2.5g gel is applied daily from day -3 for 7 days. The gel produces higher, more stable levels of estrogen and may be better.

**D) Combined oral contraceptives (COCs)** (also see 6.5.10), oral desogestrel (Cerazette) and subdermally implanted etonogestrel (Implanon) without estrogen, and injectable depot progestogens inhibit the ovarian cycle. Migraine in the pill-free interval is most notable with high-progestogen contraceptives and can often be resolved by changing to a more estrogen-dominant pill. As for menstrual migraine, estrogen supplements can be used during the seven-day pill-free interval. Taking the pill continuously for 9 weeks rather than 3 (“tricycling”), followed by the usual 7-day pill-free interval, results in 5 rather than 13 withdrawal bleeds per year and is an alternative approach. With the exception of desogestrel, oral progestogen-only contraception does not inhibit ovulation.

6.5.10 Migraine and hormonal contraception

Headache is a common side-effect of COCs and many women report onset of migraine after starting them. Others report improvement of pre-existing migraine. There is concern that migraine and COCs are both independent risk factors for stroke in young women, in the latter case related to the ethinylestradiol component. This has led to the development of opinion-based recommendations for the use of COCs in migraineurs although not all experts agree.

**Relative or absolute contraindications to ethinylestradiol COCs:**

a) Migraine with aura (experts disagree over whether this is an absolute contraindication).

b) Migraine treated with ergot derivatives but not triptans (relative).

**Progestogen-only contraception** is acceptable with any type of migraine contraindicating synthetic estrogens as its use is not associated with increased thrombotic risk. The standard progestogen-only pill has a higher failure rate but desogestrel, 

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*Unlicensed indication


etonogestrel, injectable depot progestogens and the levonorgestrel intrauterine system all have lower failure rates than COCs. Women can switch immediately from COCs to progestogen-only contraception.

6.5.11 Migraine in pregnancy and lactation
Most women with migraine improve during pregnancy and a need for prophylaxis does not commonly arise. When it does, propranolol* has best evidence of safety during pregnancy and lactation. Amitriptyline* in the lowest effective dose may also be used. As always, women should be counselled with regard to the relative risks and benefits.

6.5.12 Migraine and hormone replacement therapy (HRT)
Hormone replacement therapy is not contraindicated: there is no evidence that risk of stroke is elevated or reduced by the use of HRT in women with migraine, with or without aura. The menopause itself commonly exacerbates migraine and symptoms can be relieved with optimised replacement therapy. Nevertheless, in practice, a number of women on HRT do find their migraine becomes worse. This is often no more than a problem of formulation or dosage. Adequate, stable levels of estrogen are best provided by percutaneous or transdermal delivery systems used continuously. Headache associated with cyclical progestogens may be controlled by changing the type of progestogen, using transdermal progestogens or the levonorgestrel intrauterine system, or changing to progesterone (vaginal gel pessary or suppository).

After hysterectomy, estrogen implants are an option.

6.5.13 Drugs to avoid in prophylactic intervention
Oral contraceptives (see 6.5.10) often improve migraine; but they may exacerbate it and should be changed or discontinued if they do. They are contraindicated if exacerbation includes the development of focal neurological signs.

The active ingredient of feverfew is sometimes claimed to be parthenolide but standardised formulations of this drug do not have proven efficacy. Other marketed preparations of feverfew are variable in what they contain. Furthermore, feverfew contains potential carcinogens; its toxicity is not well understood and its long-term effects are unknown. It is particularly unsuitable for children.

6.5.14 If prophylaxis fails
Review the diagnosis. Review both compliance with treatment (often poor, especially with multiple daily doses) and concordance, which may not have been achieved. Review other medication, especially for medication overuse. Consider combinations (no formal evidence for any). If prophylaxis still fails to have measurable benefit, discontinue it.

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*Unlicensed indication


144. Pittler MH, Ernst E. Feverfew for preventing migraine. Cochrane database of systematic reviews 2004: CD002286
6.6 Non-drug intervention

6.6.1 Physical therapy
Improving physical fitness may reduce susceptibility to migraine.\(^{145}\)

Physical therapy may be helpful where a specific indication (eg, neck dysfunction) exists. In other cases it may be useful as adjunctive therapy.\(^{146}\) A therapist with specific training is more likely to achieve good results than a generalist.

Acupuncture is of little benefit.\(^{147,148}\)

Dental treatment, including the fitting of splints or bite-raising appliances and other procedures to correct malocclusion, is of unproven benefit in migraine but occasional patients claim benefit. It may improve temporomandibular joint dysfunction and secondary head pain. The importance of bruxism in headache causation is undetermined.

6.6.2 Psychological therapy

Relaxation therapy, stress reduction and coping strategies are first-line treatments where a specific indication exists (eg, anxiety, stress), since migraine treatments may fail unless these underlying problems are dealt with. In other cases they may be useful as adjunctive therapy, particularly the simple device of relaxation tapes. They need formal evaluation. Yoga and meditation are said to enhance stress management and appeal to some people.

Biofeedback techniques have some support from clinical trials; being operator-dependent, they are difficult to standardise. Hypnotherapy is of unproven value.

6.6.3 Homoeopathy

This appears to be of no value.\(^{149,150,151}\) Its basis calls for expert prescribing if it is to be used, so there is no case for over-the-counter sales of homoeopathic remedies for migraine. Patients should be discouraged from spending money on treatments for which there is no evidence of benefit.

6.6.4 Other alternative remedies

Reflexology has no scientific basis but it may have placebo effect.

Many devices are on the market, some at considerable cost and promoted with specific but unsupported claims of efficacy. “Testimonials” can be attributed to placebo effect and should be disregarded. Any of these that may have efficacy should be formally evaluated in clinical trials. Unless that has been done, and evidence of efficacy adduced, patients encouraged to buy them are done a disservice.


7. Management of Tension-type Headache

7.1 Objectives of management
Episodic TTH is self-limiting, non-disabling, and rarely raises anxieties about its causation or prognosis. Reassurance, if needed, and intermittent symptomatic treatment are often quite sufficient. Provided that patients are not at risk of escalating consumption, little more may need to be done. Long-term remission is the objective of management of very frequent episodic or chronic TTH. It is not always achievable, particularly in long-standing chronic TTH. In such cases, avoidance of aggravation by medication overuse remains important, as do recognition and appropriate treatment of contributory factors.

7.2 Basic principles
As with migraine, reassurance is important and often effective on its own; it should never be omitted. Underlying contributory factors are of greater potential importance in TTH than in migraine. Effective treatment is likely to depend on successfully identifying these, particularly when headaches are frequent. TTH may be stress-related or associated with functional or structural cervical or cranial musculoskeletal abnormality. These aetiological factors are not mutually exclusive. Clinically, there are cases where stress is obvious and likely to be aetiologically implicated and others where it is not apparent. Equally there are cases with musculoskeletal involvement evident in the history or
on examination and others where this is not a factor. The distinction between episodic and chronic TTH, based on frequency, is somewhat arbitrary but it has practical importance for two reasons. One arises from the potential for overuse of symptomatic medication, to the extent that long-term harm outweighs short-term benefit. Medication overuse must always be discovered and remedied because it can mask the diagnosis, causes illness and markedly reduces the effectiveness of all forms of headache treatment. The other relates to likely comorbidity. Clinical depression must be diagnosed and treated appropriately. In the background of chronic TTH, either of these will defeat management unless recognised and adequately dealt with.

7.3 First measures
TTH is more common in sedentary people. Regular exercise is of general and potentially considerable benefit and always worth recommending.

Physiotherapy may be appropriate, and the treatment of choice, for musculoskeletal symptoms. A therapist with specific training is more likely to achieve good results than a generalist. Physiotherapy may include massage, mobilisation, manipulation and, particularly in those with sedentary lifestyles, correction of posture. Regular home exercises are often prescribed. Mobilisation and manipulation sometimes aggravate symptoms before they improve, and cervical spine manipulation is not risk-free.

Physiotherapy may help symptoms secondary to trauma such as whiplash injury but is less useful in degenerative disease of the neck. It is unlikely to be beneficial in stress-related illness for which lifestyle changes to reduce stress and relaxation therapy and cognitive training to develop stress-coping strategies are the mainstays of treatment. Yoga and meditation are said to enhance stress management and appeal to some people.

7.4 Drug therapy
This is of limited scope but effective nevertheless in many patients. Symptomatic treatment is appropriate for episodic TTH occurring on fewer than 2 days per week. Over-the-counter analgesics (aspirin 600-900mg, ibuprofen, 400mg) are usually sufficient; other NSAIDs (ketoprofen 25-50mg, naproxen 250-500mg) are sometimes indicated. Paracetamol 500-1000mg appears less effective.

Children, and adolescents under 16 years, are not advised to use aspirin.

As the frequency of headaches increases, so does the risk of medication overuse. Therefore, these treatments are inappropriate in chronic TTH, whether they appear to give short-term benefit or not. Nevertheless, a 3-week course of naproxen 250-500mg bd, taken regularly, may break the cycle of frequently recurring or unremitting headaches and the habit of responding to pain with

analgesics. If it fails, it should not be repeated.

**Amitriptyline** is otherwise the drug treatment of choice for frequently recurring episodic TTH or for chronic TTH. Its use in chronic pain syndromes is not dependent on its antidepressant activity. Clinical trials evidence does not establish how best to use this drug, or in what dose. Intolerance is relatively common but greatly reduced by starting at a low dose (10-25mg at night). Increments of 10-25mg should be as soon as side-effects permit, perhaps each 1-2 weeks and usually into the range 75-150mg at night. Withdrawal may be attempted after improvement has been maintained for 4-6 months.

Failure of tricyclic therapy may be due to subtherapeutic dosage, insufficient duration of treatment or non-compliance. Patients who are not informed that they are receiving medication often used as an antidepressant, and why, may default when they find out.

Some experts offer alternatives, eg, **dothiepin**, if amitriptyline fails. **Nortriptyline** and **protriptyline** may be better tolerated but their usefulness is less certain. There is no evidence that **SSRIs** reduce headache in chronic TTH, though they may be indicated for underlying depression. **Anxiolytics** may be appropriate when specifically indicated but **beta-blockers** may promote depression whereas the high risk of dependence generally rules out prolonged use of **benzodiazepines**.

### 7.4.1 Drugs to avoid in TTH management

**Codeine** and **dihydrocodeine** are not indicated, and there is no place for powerful analgesics.

**Botulinum toxin** is ineffective for TTH.

### 7.5 If all else fails

Chronic TTH in particular is often refractory. Its association with personality factors and psychosocial dysfunction that militate against effective treatment is often suspected but not consistently demonstrated. Some of these patients end up in pain management clinics where cognitive therapies are more readily available and where non-specific therapies such as **transcutaneous electrical nerve stimulation (TENS)** may be offered.

The role of **acupuncture** is unproven but worth trying in the absence of other options. Detection of tender muscle nodules on palpation, with needling aimed at these, is said to offer a good prospect of at least limited success but evidence to support this is poor. As with physiotherapy, symptoms may at first be aggravated by acupuncture. It is sometimes claimed that early exacerbation is prognostic of later improvement.

**Homoeopathy** is of unknown value. Its basis calls for expert prescribing if it is to be used. There is no case for over-the-counter sales of homoeopathic remedies for TTH.

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162. Ibid.
management of cluster headache

8. Management of cluster headache

8.1 Objectives of management

Cluster headache management is usually better left to experienced specialists who see this disorder frequently.

8.1.1 Objectives of management

Although short-lasting, CH is excruciatingly painful and patients suffer badly. Because of the frequency of attacks, disability during a cluster period can be considerable. Whilst CH may spontaneously enter long-term remission, there is no present prospect of curative medical intervention. The ultimate attainable goal of treatment is total attack cessation or suppression - but only until the next episode. More conservatively, and usually more realistically, its aim is to shorten the cluster period in episodic CH and to reduce the frequency and/or severity of attacks in both episodic and chronic CH.

As the biological nature of the underlying mechanism of CH is poorly understood, prophylactic methods are empirical.

8.2 Basic principles

Patients experiencing their first attacks will be greatly concerned, and need reassurance.

Drug treatment is always necessary. In most cases, prophylactic drugs are the mainstay of treatment as symptomatic treatment alone is rarely sufficient to achieve adequate control. Exceptions are cluster periods of short-duration (<2-3 weeks), when this can be anticipated from past experience, and cases where prophylaxis has failed.
Prophylactic drugs should be commenced as early as possible after the start of a new cluster period, since there is some evidence of their greater effectiveness then.\textsuperscript{164} Treatment found effective in a previous cluster period should be rapidly reintroduced at the start of the next. To facilitate this, patients may benefit from being given a supply before the next cluster period is anticipated. Early review is recommended in such cases. Unfortunately, what has worked well before does not invariably do so again.

Failure of one drug does not predict failure of others. All those recommended below should be tried if necessary. There is no consensus on what level of benefit should be considered satisfactory. Many treatments in use are potentially toxic, and risk/benefit evaluation is often central to decision-making.

Partial relief presents an obvious dilemma, with no clear rules of guidance. Not uncommonly, two or more prophylactic drugs are needed in combination,\textsuperscript{165} although the potential for toxicity is obviously high.

For most drugs, dosage should be escalated as quickly as tolerability permits, and often to the maximum tolerated dose. When benefit is not apparent within 1 week of achieving the maximum tolerated dose of a drug, it should be discontinued and replaced, or supplemented. Acute therapy may be used in addition in the period until prophylactic drugs become effective, and/or if breakthrough attacks still occur.

Alcohol should be wholly avoided during active cluster periods. Other contributory factors are of little importance to management. Many patients with CH have been heavy smokers. Advice to stop smoking is always good advice, but there is no evidence that this affects the prognosis of CH.

### 8.3 Prophylactic drug intervention

The formal evidence base for all drugs listed below is limited, with a very small number of published trials, but expert opinion strongly supports their use. Not all experts use them in the same order, but the following is recommended.

#### 8.3.1 Drugs with efficacy

**Verapamil\textsuperscript{*}** is a reasonable first-line choice for both episodic and chronic CH.\textsuperscript{166,167} Doses of 80mg tds or qds may be effective but up to 960mg daily is sometimes required. Some experts believe that standard preparations of verapamil are more useful than modified-release formulations.

Verapamil is usually well tolerated: constipation (which may be severe) and flushing are common side-effects. Gingival hyperplasia is heralded by gum bleeding that should trigger referral for dental review. The ECG should be checked for AV-block before the dosage reaches 480mg daily and whenever it is increased beyond that. Beta-blockers should not be given concomitantly.

**Prednisolone\textsuperscript{*}** may be preferred because, unlike all other treatments, it is commenced in high dosage.\textsuperscript{168} A starting dose of 60-100mg, once daily for 2-5 days, will, if this treatment will work at all, most often produce marked improvements.
almost immediate relief. Because of the potential otherwise for serious side-effects, treatment is limited to a very short and intensive course. Dose reduction is initiated after 2-5 days and continued, in 10mg decrements each second or third day, so that treatment is discontinued after 2-3 weeks. Relapse may occur as the dose is reduced. Second (and sometimes third) courses, administered with due caution, can consolidate efficacy of the first following relapse but are not indicated otherwise. Prednisolone may be used as an initial add-on therapy to other prophylactics until the latter are effective (see Combinations below).

Gastric intolerance is the most likely side-effect in short-term use. Standard contra-indications to steroid therapy apply. Usual counselling should be given to patients, but short courses of steroids do not seriously risk suppression of endogenous steroid production.

Lithium carbonate* should be considered in episodic or chronic CH if verapamil is not effective.\textsuperscript{169,170} In the episodic form, with short-duration treatment courses (<12 weeks) expected, higher doses of 800-1600mg daily may be needed and serum concentrations pushed if necessary into the range 1.0-1.4 mmol/l. Tolerance may develop, and efficacy be lost, after two or three cluster periods treated with lithium. Patients with chronic CH, needing long-term treatment, may benefit from lower daily doses in the range 600-900mg, and serum concentrations of 0.3-0.8 mmol/l.\textsuperscript{171}

Serum concentrations must be frequently monitored, both to ensure adequacy of dosing in the absence of symptom remission and to guard against over-dosing. Symptoms of early toxicity (nausea, diarrhoea, polyuria, polydipsia) without benefit mandate abandonment of this therapy. Serious long-term side-effects include tremor, oedema, electrolyte disturbance, muscle weakness, central nervous system disturbance, ECG abnormality and hypo- or hyperthyroidism. Renal, cardiac and thyroid functions should be monitored. NSAIDS should not be taken concomitantly.

Methysergide 1-2mg tds may be effective in up to 70% of patients with episodic CH\textsuperscript{172} and is worth trying when other treatments fail. Tolerance may develop after two or three treatment periods.\textsuperscript{173}

The short-term side-effects are few but may include nausea, abdominal discomfort and leg cramps. Potential long-term side-effects of retroperitoneal, endomyocardial or pulmonary fibrosis are serious.\textsuperscript{174} Treatment should therefore be interrupted every 6 months for at least one month. As the usual duration of cluster periods is 6-12 weeks, this limitation is seldom a practical problem in episodic CH. Although ergotamine should not be taken during methysergide therapy because of increased risk of ergotism, there is no evidence against concomitant use of triptans.

Ergotamine tartrate* 1-2mg rectally (half to one Cafergot suppository) is rarely a suitable preventative drug in chronic CH

\textsuperscript{*Unlicensed indication}

but still useful in short-term management of episodic CH when attacks occur predictably during the day or at night. Nocturnal attacks are prevented by taking it at bedtime. Expected daytime attacks may be prevented by a dose at least one hour before they are due, but are sometimes only delayed. The maximum total daily dosage is 3-4 mg. Treatment should be omitted from time to time (every 7th day is common practice) to establish continued need.

For reasons unknown, CH patients appear relatively resistant to the toxic effects of ergotamine that limit its use in migraine. Nevertheless, because of its systemic vasoconstrictor action, this treatment is contra-indicated in those with any vascular disease or significant hypertension, and in the presence of multiple risk factors for vascular disease (most cluster headache patients are smokers). Beta-blockers or methysergide should not be used concomitantly, nor should sumatriptan as acute therapy.

8.3.2 Drugs with uncertain efficacy

Frovatriptan* 2.5mg bd has been tried by some experts as a presumed safer alternative to ergotamine. This is the only triptan with a long half-life (26 hours). Experience is limited and, anecdotally, results have not been uniformly good.

Pizotifen* 1.5-3mg daily is of limited value.

There is no evidence yet to support the use of topiramate*.

Other anti-epileptics, including sodium valproate*, gabapentin* and carbamazepine*, are all of little or no value.

8.3.3 Combinations of prophylactic drugs

Therapeutic delay as verapamil is up-titrated can be avoided by early short-term concomitant use of prednisolone. This is an option when rapid control is a high priority because of frequent severe attacks.

Otherwise, monotherapy is recommended initially, but resistance to monotherapy is not rare in both episodic and chronic CH. In these cases, combinations can be recommended. Verapamil should be the basic treatment to which ergotamine, lithium or methysergide is added. In severe chronic cases, all of verapamil, lithium and ergotamine may be required, but the potential for toxicity is obviously high.

8.3.4 Duration of use

With the exception of prednisolone, prophylaxis should be continued in episodic CH until the patient has been headache-free for at least 14 days. This is probably sufficient to minimise the risk of relapse, although no formal proof exists that this is so. Drugs should be withdrawn by progressive dosage reduction rather than ceased abruptly. If relapse does occur, treatment must be resumed but, unfortunately, control is not always quickly re-established.

Prophylaxis sometimes converts chronic CH into the episodic

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*Unlicensed indication


sub-type, and can be withdrawn according to the same criterion of 14 days symptom-free. Otherwise, medication may need to be continued indefinitely.

8.4 Acute drug intervention

8.4.1 Drugs with efficacy

Sumatriptan 6mg subcutaneously (£21.02-£22.10) is the treatment of choice, unless contra-indicated. It is the only proven highly-effective acute treatment. In a high proportion of cases it aborts the attack in 5-10 min.

Sumatriptan is contra-indicated in uncontrolled hypertension or the presence of risk factors for coronary heart disease or cerebrovascular disease.

Oxygen* 100% at 10-15 l/min for 10-20 min helps some people. Its advantage, when it works, is its safety, allowing multiple daily uses. The high flow-rate requires a special regulator and non-rebreathing mask.

Oxygen can be prescribed using the Home Oxygen Order Form, which is sent to the supplier who has the contract in that region. All cylinders (1,360 litre, and 460 litre portable) come with integral high regulators allowing up to 15 litres per minute. The oxygen supplier will also provide non-rebreathing masks.

Sumatriptan 20mg nasal spray* (£6.14) and zolmitriptan 5-10mg nasal spray* (£6.75-£13.50) have delayed bioavailability compared with sumatriptan subcutaneously. They were effective in placebo-controlled trials, but achieve lower response rates than injectable sumatriptan. Although they may suit some people, they should not be preferred on grounds of cost.

Sumatriptan and zolmitriptan are contra-indicated in uncontrolled hypertension or the presence of risk factors for coronary heart disease or cerebrovascular disease. Zolmitriptan is contraindicated in patients with Wolff-Parkinson-White syndrome.

8.4.2 Drugs to avoid in acute intervention

Analgesics have no place in treating CH. Ergotamine tartrate and all orally-administered triptans are of no use as acute therapy.

8.5 Non-drug intervention

Surgical options include implantation of occipital nerve or deep brain stimulators, and are experimental, carried out by a very few specialist centres.

*Unlicensed indication


9. Management of medication-overuse headache

9.1 Objectives of management

There are four separate objectives in the complete management of MOH, and all are important.

The first is to achieve withdrawal from the overused medication. The second, which should follow, is recovery from MOH. The third is to review and reassess the underlying primary headache disorder (migraine or tension-type headache), which will probably become unmasked and may or may not need a treatment plan according to the principles above. The fourth is to prevent relapse, which has a rate of around 40% within five years and is most likely to occur within the first year after withdrawal.\(^\text{181,182}\)

9.2 Basic principles

Prevention, through education, is better than cure.

Once MOH has developed, early intervention is important. The long-term prognosis depends on the type of primary headache and the type of overused medication.\(^\text{183}\)

The only treatment of established MOH is withdrawal of the suspected medication(s).\(^\text{184}\)

Some patients are psychologically dependent upon their medication. They will be difficult to manage successfully unless this is dealt with.

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9.3 Management of withdrawal

Patients must be motivated. Clear understanding that their “treatment” for headache is actually the cause of it is vital to success. They may be told that the outcome of withdrawal is usually good, whereas the alternative to withdrawal is ever-worsening headache.

Use of a diary to record symptoms and medication use during withdrawal is strongly recommended.

With forewarning that it will lead initial aggravation of symptoms, withdrawal is most successfully done abruptly. It should be planned to avoid unnecessary lifestyle disruption. Sick leave for 1-2 weeks may be needed. Admission to hospital is rarely necessary.

Good hydration should be maintained. Aggravation is expected over 3-7 days. The beginning of improvement follows, and occurs soonest (within 7-10 days) with triptan overuse, usually after 2-3 weeks with simple analgesic overuse, and after 2-4 weeks with opioid overuse.

9.4 Follow-up

Review is advised after 2-3 weeks to ensure withdrawal has been achieved.

Recovery continues slowly for weeks to months. Further follow-up is necessary. Most patients revert to their original headache type (migraine or tension-type headache) within 2 months.

Overused medications (if appropriate) may be reintroduced after 2 months, with explicit restrictions on frequency of use. Many patients require extended support to prevent relapse.

9.5 Management of failure to withdraw

This may have several explanations. Lack of commitment should be addressed by further explanation. Evidence of psychological dependence may require referral for cognitive behavioural therapy. In either of these cases, there is a potential role for counselling, but this has not been formally explored in the context of MOH.

Inability to cope with emergent aggravation can be managed by offering naproxen, 250mg tds or 500mg bd, to be taken regularly whether symptoms are present or not. The purpose of this instruction is to break the habit of responding to pain with medication use. Naproxen should be prescribed for a course of 3-4 weeks, and not repeated, or some specialists suggest it is taken three times daily for two weeks, twice daily for two weeks, once daily for two weeks and then stopped. Prednisolone, 60 mg/day for 2 days, 40 mg/day for 2 days and 20 mg/day for 2 days has also been used. An alternative is to start amitriptyline, 10-75mg at night, which is then continued as long-term prophylaxis.

9.6 When recovery does not follow withdrawal

The diagnosis of MOH is presumptive. Sometimes withdrawal
of overused medication (which is necessary anyway) does not lead to recovery. This situation, in which chronic daily headache persists more or less unabated, requires a new diagnosis to be made and is an indication for specialist referral.

In all cases, enquiry should confirm, as far as possible, that medication overuse is not continuing. Once medication overuse has been eliminated, preventative drugs may become effective. Dependent upon the symptoms, these may include migraine prophylactics. Alternatively, management should be as for multiple coexisting headache disorders (see below).

Persistent daily headache after withdrawal may be refractory, and may be associated with personality factors and psychosocial dysfunction that militate against effective treatment. Referral to a pain management clinic may be indicated.
10. Management of multiple coexisting headache disorders

Symptomatic medication should be restricted to no more than 2 days per week. Where migraine coexists with episodic tension-type headache and prophylaxis is considered, **amitriptyline 10-150mg daily** is the drug of choice (see 6.5.4 and 7.4). Some specialists are using **sodium valproate 0.6-2.5g daily**, **topiramate 25mg od-50mg bd** or **gabapentin 300-800mg tds** as alternatives.

Where migraine occurs in association with other, more troublesome headache (usually chronic tension-type headache or medication-overuse headache), *that headache should be treated first*. Improvement in migraine often occurs concomitantly.
11. Costs of implementing these guidelines

It is predicted that fully implementing these guidelines will:

a) **improve** diagnosis, reducing the rate of inappropriate treatment;

b) **increase** the number of consultations per patient initially, to find the best treatment for each individual;

c) **increase** the number of patients with migraine using triptans;

d) **reduce** misuse of medication, including triptans, and **reduce** iatrogenic illness;

e) **improve** the overall effectiveness of management;

f) **raise** expectations, and lead to **more** patients consulting in primary care;

g) **reduce** the need for specialist referral, with opportunity gain for other neurological disorders;

h) **reduce** the overall burden of illness, with **savings** elsewhere.

Whereas some of these outcomes will increase NHS costs, at least initially, others will reduce them. Management costs may rise overall, but there is no good financial argument for treating headache disorders suboptimally. In the case of migraine, evidence is accruing that under-treatment is not cost-effective, although figures are not yet available to show the levels of savings overall that better management can achieve.

Troublesome and inadequately managed TTH is also costly. Whilst not all cases can be treated effectively, there is considerable potential for making things worse by inappropriate management. Again, it is not known what savings might result from better care. It should be a priority to find out. Inadequately treated cluster headache causes considerable disability. Indirect costs per individual are likely to be high, although they have not yet been well estimated. Medication-overuse headache wastefully consumes resources unless correctly managed.
12. Audit

Audit should aim to measure headache burden in the target population and its diminution over time after implementation of these guidelines. Measurements may be made in random samples of patients large enough to represent the target population and to show change. It is not sufficient to assess outcome only in those with known headache: this will not measure success or failure in identifying and diagnosing those not complaining of headache, who are likely to be numerous and in whom burden may nevertheless be significant. 188

Within the population of a primary care trust, it may be appropriate to assess burden annually in random samples of 1,000 adults reselected at each audit. Of these, about 150 will have migraine, more will have tension-type headache and 20-30 will have chronic daily headache. Instruments such as MIDAS189 or HIT-6190 may be useful. These self-administered questionnaires, which can be mailed, measure limitations on work, other chores and social activity attributable to headache over the preceding 1-3 months. Although developed for migraine, MIDAS appears to be applicable to any headache and regardless of whether any headache condition has been diagnosed. Both instruments have yet to be validated for this purpose but, as a measure of change, those people who are significantly affected by headache seem more likely to complete the assessment and those who do not can probably safely be discounted.

In addition, audit should measure direct treatment costs: consultations, referrals and prescriptions.
