

tient may involve trial and error. Triptans should not be used in patients with major risk factors for, or suffering from, cardiovascular disease. The main concern with all triptans is their potential for coronary vasoconstriction and no triptan appears to be safer than the others.

If **ergotamine** is used it should be given at the first warning of an attack; the earlier it is given, the more effective the treatment. Since its oral bioavailability is poor and may be reduced further during a migraine attack, ergotamine has sometimes been given in sublingual or rectal preparations. Ergotamine can also exacerbate nausea and vomiting; metoclopramide or domperidone, or in severe cases the phenothiazines chlorpromazine or prochlorperazine, may be given. Dihydroergotamine may be of use if parenteral treatment is required; it can also be given intranasally but there is less experience with this route.

Patients who rapidly develop severe migraine may be given **parenteral** dihydroergotamine or sumatriptan. Some consider parenteral metoclopramide to be suitable first-line treatment. If there is no response to these drugs, dopamine antagonists such as chlorpromazine or prochlorperazine given parenterally may be effective in relieving the pain of acute migraine attacks. Prolonged attacks (status migrainosus) may require intravenous administration of dihydroergotamine with metoclopramide.

Other drugs that may be given alone or in combination include corticosteroids or pethidine. Lidocaine has been given intravenously for the emergency treatment of migraine; intranasal lidocaine has also been tried. The opioid agonist-antagonist butorphanol, given by nasal spray, has been advocated, but its place in therapy, if any, remains to be established. Other drugs under investigation include botulinum A toxin and CGRP antagonists; intravenous valproic acid has also shown promise in aborting acute attacks.

Guidelines have been issued for the treatment of migraine in **children and adolescents**. For acute treatment, ibuprofen and paracetamol were found to be effective in children aged 6 years and over; sumatriptan nasal spray should be considered in those aged 12 years and over.

Prophylactic treatment should be considered for patients in whom abortive measures are ineffective or migraine attacks occur frequently, or for those with less frequent but severe or prolonged attacks. Some recommend prophylaxis if attacks occur more often than once or twice a month. Prophylaxis can reduce the severity and/or frequency of attacks but does not eliminate them completely and patients still need additional abortive or symptomatic treatment. Drugs suggested for prophylaxis have a range of actions which reflects uncertainty over the pathogenesis of migraine. It is important to give prophylactic drugs for an adequate period before assessing their efficacy. Once an optimum effect has been achieved the need for continuing prophylaxis should be reviewed at intervals of about 3 to 6 months.

The main prophylactic drugs are **beta blockers**, tricyclic **antidepressants**, and the **antiepileptics**, topiramate and valproate. Propranolol is considered by many to be the prophylactic drug of choice. Lethargy appears to be the most common adverse effect. Other beta blockers reported to be effective are those that, like propranolol, possess no intrinsic sympathomimetic activity, which include atenolol, metoprolol, nadolol, and timolol. The potential for beta blockers to interact with some serotonin (5-HT₁) agonists and ergotamine should be borne in mind. Tricyclic antidepressants, particularly amitriptyline, given in gradually increasing doses at night are useful for preventing migraine, especially in patients who also have depression or tension-type headache, although antimuscarinic adverse effects may occur. Valproate is also used for preventing migraine. Nausea appears to be the most common adverse effect. Topiramate is the main alternative to valproate. Weight loss and paraesthesia are commonly reported adverse effects. Topiramate and valproate are particularly useful in patients who also have epilepsy or bipolar disorder.

Other drugs have been used for the prophylaxis of migraine: pizotifen, an antihistamine and serotonin antagonist, has been widely used but evidence for its efficacy is limited; it may be tried in children. Of the drugs with calcium-channel blocking activity, flunarizine appears to be effective, and has been suggested for use in children, and verapamil may be useful, but evidence for the efficacy of

other calcium-channel blockers such as diltiazem, nifedipine, or nimodipine is less convincing; NSAIDs may be worth trying. The use of methysergide, a potent serotonin antagonist, has declined because of serious adverse effects, in particular retroperitoneal fibrosis. MAOIs such as phenelzine have been used occasionally but are best reserved for severe cases refractory to other forms of prophylactic treatment. Cyproheptadine, an antihistamine and serotonin antagonist, has been used for migraine prophylaxis, particularly in children. Other drugs used for the prophylaxis of migraine have included butterbur, clonidine, cyclandelate, indoramin, feverfew, and the ergot derivative metergoline. Positive results have been seen with magnesium and riboflavin. Other drugs still under investigation, which have shown potential for prevention of migraine attacks are: baclofen, botulinum A toxin, candesartan, gabapentin, lisinopril, and venlafaxine.

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Post-dural puncture headache

For the management of headache associated with lumbar puncture or spinal anaesthesia, see Post-dural Puncture Headache under Local Anaesthetics, p.1851.

Tension-type headache

Tension-type headaches, also referred to as muscle-contraction headaches, are probably the commonest form of headache. They are characterised by bilateral pain, which unlike migraine is continuous and non-pulsatile. The pain

is often described by the patient as feeling like a tight band pressed around the head. Headaches of this type may be precipitated by many factors including psychosocial stress or muscular stress. Many patients also have associated symptoms of anxiety or depression. Tension-type headaches and migraine often co-exist and may then be referred to as combination or mixed headaches. Some patients only experience isolated acute attacks of tension-type headache (episodic tension-type headache), but others may develop chronic tension-type headache which is difficult to treat.

Treatment is aimed at removing the underlying causes where these can be identified. Simple massage may help if muscle contraction is a prominent component of the pain. Non-opioid analgesics, such as aspirin or other NSAIDs and paracetamol, may be tried for individual acute attacks of headache, but analgesic overuse must be avoided as this can lead to chronic headache resistant to other measures (see Medication-overuse Headache, above). Opioids alone or in combination preparations with other analgesics should also be avoided. Hypnotics or sedatives have sometimes been used in combination preparations with analgesics in the management of tension-type headache that disrupts sleep but, because of the potential for abuse, they should be avoided in chronic headaches. Muscle relaxants appear to have little place in the management of tension-type headache; although some patients may respond, results are generally disappointing. Other drugs that have been tried include valproate and botulinum A toxin.

Prophylaxis is preferable to regular short-term use of analgesics in controlling chronic tension-type headache. Tricyclic antidepressants, particularly amitriptyline, are generally considered as first choice, although benefit is rarely complete. The mode of action is unclear and appears to be independent of any antidepressant action. In most cases, improvement is seen with low doses, but full antidepressant doses are necessary in the presence of underlying depression. Addition of a beta blocker such as propranolol may sometimes be of benefit for patients with some migraine features.

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Almotriptan Malate (BANM, USAN, rHNNM)

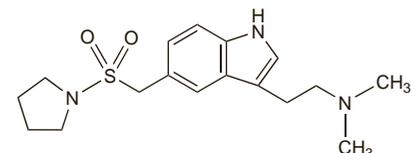
Almotriptan, Malate d'; Almotriptani Malas; LAS-31416 (almotriptan); Malato de almotriptán; PNU-180638E (almotriptan malate). 1-[(3-[2-(Dimethylamino)ethyl]indol-5-yl)methyl]sulfonylpyrrolidine malate (1:1).

Альмотриптана Малат
C₁₇H₂₅N₃O₂S₂.C₄H₆O₅ = 469.6.

CAS — 154323-57-6 (almotriptan); 181183-52-8 (almotriptan malate).

ATC — N02CC05.

ATC Vet — QN02CC05.



(almotriptan)