

Aalborg Universitet

Botulinum neurotoxin A for chronic migraine headaches

does it work and how?

Cairns, Brian Edwin; Gazerani, Parisa

Published in: Pain Management

DOI (link to publication from Publisher): 10.2217/PMT.14.30

Publication date: 2014

Document Version Publisher's PDF, also known as Version of record

Link to publication from Aalborg University

Citation for published version (APA): Cairns, B. E., & Gazerani, P. (2014). Botulinum neurotoxin A for chronic migraine headaches: does it work and how? Pain Management, 4(6), 377–380. https://doi.org/10.2217/PMT.14.30

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
 You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
 You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal -

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us at vbn@aub.aau.dk providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

Downloaded from vbn.aau.dk on: June 18, 2025

EDITORIAL

For reprint orders, please contact: reprints@futuremedicine.com

Botulinum neurotoxin A for chronic migraine headaches: does it work and how?

Pain Management





Brian E Cairns*,1,2 & Parisa Gazerani2

Does it work?

In 2010, botulinum neurotoxin A (BoNTA) was approved to prevent headaches in adult patients with chronic migraine. The approval was based on the outcomes of two multicenter clinical trials (PREEMPT 1 & 2) that tested the efficacy and safety of BoNTA [1,2]. In PREEMPT 1, the primary efficacy end point, which was the average number of headache episodes, was similar for BoNTA and placebo. However, the number of headache days was reduced in the BoNTA group [1]. In the PREEMPT 2, the primary efficacy end point was the mean change from baseline in headache days from 21-24 weeks posttreatment and was found to be significantly lower in the BoNTA treatment group [2]. A planned pooled analysis of all patients included in PREEMPT 1 and 2 showed significant improvements in all secondary end points with BoNTA compared with placebo [3]. BoNTA was well tolerated, but adverse events including neck pain, muscle weakness, headache and migraine led to withdrawal of a small number of patients in these studies. However, a high placebo effect combined with concerns about inability to blind patients to the paralytic effects of BoNTA and the heterogeneity of the study participants in terms of headache diagnosis, have lead to lingering questions about the efficacy of BoNTA for migraine prophylaxis.

A recent high quality meta-analysis to assess the effects of BoNTA for prophylactic treatment of headaches that included 27 placebo-controlled and four activecontrolled trials has addressed questions about efficacy [4]. This analysis found that BoNTA injections significantly reduced the frequency of chronic daily headache and chronic migraine when compared with placebo, but did not have any significant effect on episodic migraines or chronic tension headaches. However, patients who received BoNTA had more adverse events than had been previously recognized and a large placebo effect was identified. Thus, while BoNTA appears to be effective for chronic migraine and chronic daily headache, more evidence-based data is needed to provide reliable information for or against the use of BoNTA in other types of headaches, which include cervicogenic or cluster headaches [5].

KEYWORDS

- chronic migraine clinical trials
- glutamate headache muscle
- neurotoxin neurotransmitter
 release nociceptor prophylaxis

"This analysis found that botulinum neurotoxin A injections significantly reduced the frequency of chronic daily headache and chronic migraine when compared with placebo..."



¹Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, V6T 1Z3, Canada ²Center for Sensory-Motor Interaction, Department of Health Science & Technology, Faculty of Medicine, Aalborg University, Aalborg E, Denmark

^{*}Author for correspondence: Tel.: +1 604 822 7715; Fax: +1 604 822 3035; brcairns@mail.ubc.ca

"It has also been proposed that botulinum neurotoxin A injected peripherally can access the CNS where it could act to decrease synaptic transmission in pain pathways."

The findings of these studies provide insight into which headache types might respond to BoNTA, but definitive predictors of individual patient response have not vet been identified. A single study reported a higher response rate to BoTNA when migraine patients who reported 'imploding' headaches, where pain is perceived as emanating from external pressure and includes a significant ocular component, were compared with those reporting 'exploding' headache, where pain is perceived to come from inside the head [6]. Chronic migraine is also more prevalent in women, but whether response to BoNTA differs in a sex-related manner is not known. Migraine aura might also be a predictor of response. While it is clear that additional work is needed to improve identification of best candidates for, and optimal route, location and dose of administration of BoNTA [7], there is general agreement that both fixed-site/fixed-dose and 'follow-the-pain' paradigms are effective for headache prophylaxis [5]. Future clinical trials may also reveal whether other botulinum neurotoxins (e.g., BoNTB) have comparable safety and efficacy profiles to BoNTA.

How does it work?

BoNTA is made up of a light chain, which contains a zinc protease component, connected by a disulfide bridge to a heavy chain that facilitates uptake of the toxin into the peripheral endings of nerve fibers [8]. The toxin rapidly enters the axon terminal by binding to receptors expressed on the membrane [8,9]. In the cytosol, the disulfide bond between the heavy and light chain is broken and the two chains separate. The light chain of BoNTA binds to and cleaves SNAP-25, part of the structure responsible for vesicular docking to the membrane that permits neurotransmitter release [10]. This results in a long lasting, reversible inhibition of neurotransmitter release from the terminal due to the stability of the BoNTA light chain in the cytosol [11]. As a result, injected BoNTA blocks neurotransmission from motor and autonomic nerve terminals, leading to muscle paralysis and inhibition of autonomic function, respectively [12]. It also reduces the sensitivity of sensory afferent fibers to noxious stimulation and inhibits neurogenic inflammation.

For migraine prophylaxis, BoNTA is injected into craniofacial muscles including the temporalis muscle. BoNTA has been found to decrease the mechanical sensitivity

of nociceptors that innervate these muscles as well as the underlying periosteum, within 3 h of injection [13,14]. One important determinant of muscle nociceptor mechanical sensitivity is the concentration of the amino acid glutamate in the interstitial space [15]. Intramuscularly injected BoNTA has been shown to significantly decrease muscle interstitial glutamate concentration [14,15]. BoNTA may also block the normal cycling of receptors (e.g., glutamate receptors) from inside the axon to the axon membrane surface [11]. Through these mechanisms, BoNTA would directly attenuate nociceptive input from the muscles. It has recently been found that some nociceptors that innervate the dura, which is proposed to be a principal source of pain in migraines, have extracranial projections to the periosteum underlying the temporalis muscle [13,16]. Thus, it is possible that injection of BoNTA into the temporalis muscle also acts on these extracranial branches of dural nociceptors to lower nociceptive input [13].

It has also been proposed that BoNTA injected peripherally can access the CNS where it could act to decrease synaptic transmission in pain pathways. It has been known for some time that injected radiolabeled BoNTA can be transported through sensory (and motor) axons as far as the CNS [9,11]. Indirect evidence based on immunohistochemical detection of the cleaved form of SNAP-25 has recently suggested that functional BoNTA not only reaches the central endings of nociceptor axons but may act on neurons in the CNS [11]. If confirmed, this evidence would suggest that part of the analgesic action of BoNTA is due to central mechanisms [9,11].

In addition to preclinical work, the analgesic effect of BoNTA in experimental models of pain in healthy humans has also been investigated. BoNTA injection into the human temporalis muscle was found to significantly reduce glutamate-evoked pain and vasomotor responses beginning 3 h after injection and lasting for at least 7 days [17]. These findings suggest a relatively short onset of analgesic effect when BoNTA is injected intramuscularly. It has subsequently been shown that BoNTA decreased pain and cutaneous glutamate release provoked by capsaicin plus mild heat application to the volar forearm, which suggests that attenuation of tissue glutamate concentrations also contributes to the mechanisms of BoNTA analgesia in humans [18].

So, why do these actions of BoNTA decrease migraine headache duration and severity? It

is thought that sustained input from tender craniofacial muscles increases the sensitivity of trigeminal sensory neurons in the brainstem and activates non-neuronal glial cells to contribute to central sensitization; a state of pain hypersensitivity. BoNTA, through its proposed peripheral and central mechanisms, decreases central sensitization and this raises the threshold for headache initiation [10]. Evidence in support of this concept comes from reports that single local anesthetic nerve blocks or even trigger point injections, which provide comparatively short periods of analgesia, also appear to provide long lasting relief from headache in some migraine patients [19]. It is possible that the quick onset of muscle analgesia after BoNTA injection may be as, or even more, important than a long duration of action in terms of decreasing headache frequency. Based on this mechanism, the variability in effectiveness of BoNTA to decrease headache frequency would not be due to a failure of BoNTA to produce muscle analgesia per se, but rather to the fact that in certain migraine sufferers, mechanisms other than sustained painful input from craniofacial muscles are responsible for maintaining central sensitization. This may explain the observation that BoNTA is more effective at preventing 'imploding' headaches, which are proposed to be generated by extracranial pain input. It may also explain why subcutaneous injections of BoNTA have also been reported to be effective for headache prophylaxis in certain patients.

Research is currently underway to produce the next generation of botulinum neurotoxins that will be engineered for increased duration of action and improved proteolytic activity. In addition, toxin formulations and novel methods of toxin delivery (e.g., topical) are being investigated as a way to improve efficacy and safety. One interesting direction has involved the creation of a composite protein of the BoNTE protease moiety with BoNTA to produce a toxin that has a more rapid onset of effect, like BoNTE, but lasts six-times longer than this short acting neurotoxin. In a related approach, substance P has been conjugated to the light chain of BoNTA. The conjugated protein was endocytosed by trigeminal ganglion neurons in culture and retained its protease activity against SNAP-25 [20]. This approach could be used to selectively target BoNTA to nociceptors and could one day help answer whether muscle paralysis is important for BoNTA's prophylactic effect against migraine. The ultimate goal is to introduce selective, specific and potent botulinum neurotoxin products to yield unique antinociceptive activity where it is needed.

Financial & competing interests disclosure

BE Cairns is the recipient of a 2012 Pain Research Award from Pfizer Canada. P Gazerani's research is supported by a 2010 FSS grant from the Danish Research Council. The authors have no other relevant affiliations or financial involvement with any organization or entity with a financial interest in or financial conflict with the subject matter or materials discussed in the manuscript apart from those disclosed.

No writing assistance was utilized in the production of this manuscript.

References

- Aurora SK, Dodick DW, Turkel CC et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA for treatment of chronic migraine: results from the doubleblind, randomized, placebo-controlled phase of the PREEMPT 1 trial. Cephalalgia 30(7), 793-803 (2010).
- Diener HC, Dodick DW, Aurora SK et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA for treatment of chronic migraine: results from the doubleblind, randomized, placebo-controlled phase of the PREEMPT 2 trial. Cephalalgia 30(7), 804-814 (2010).
- Silberstein SD, Blumenfeld AM, Cady RK et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA for treatment of chronic migraine: PREEMPT 24-week pooled subgroup analysis of patients who had acute headache medication overuse at baseline. J. Neurol. Sci. 331(1-2), 48-56 (2013).

- Jackson JL, Kuriyama A, Hayashino Y. Botulinum toxin A for prophylactic treatment of migraine and tension headaches in adults: a meta-analysis. JAMA 307(16), 1736-1745 (2012).
- Peña E. Treatment with botulinum toxin: an update. World J. Neurol. 3(3), 29-41 (2013).
- Jakubowski M, Mcallister PJ, Bajwa ZH, Ward TN, Smith P, Burstein R. Exploding vs. imploding headache in migraine prophylaxis with botulinum toxin A. Pain 125, 286-295 (2006).
- Lionetto L, Negro A, Palmisani S et al. Emerging treatment for chronic migraine and refractory chronic migraine. Expert Opin. Emerg. Drugs 17(3), 393-406 (2012).
- Tighe AP, Schiavo G. Botulinum neurotoxins: mechanism of action. Toxicon 67, 87-93 (2013).

- Simpson L. The life history of a botulinum toxin molecule. Toxicon 68, 40-59 (2013).
- Durham PL, Cady R. Insights into the mechanism of onabotulinumtoxinA in chronic migraine. Headache 51(10), 1573-1577 (2011).
- Matak I, Lackovic Z. Botulinum toxin A, brain and pain. Prog. Neurobiol. (2014) (In Press).
- Arezzo JC. Possible mechanisms for the effects of botulinum toxin on pain. Clin. J. Pain 18(6 Suppl.), S125-S132 (2002).
- Burstein R, Zhang X, Levy D, Aoki KR, Brin MF. Selective inhibition of meningeal nociceptors by botulinum neurotoxin type A: Therapeutic implications for migraine and other pains. Cephalalgia (2014) (In Press).
- Gazerani P, Au S, Dong X, Kumar U, Arendt-Nielsen L, Cairns BE. Botulinum

EDITORIAL Cairns & Gazerani

- neurotoxin type A (BoNTA) decreases the mechanical sensitivity of nociceptors and inhibits neurogenic vasodilation in a craniofacial muscle targeted for migraine prophylaxis. *Pain* 151(3), 606–616 (2010).
- 15 Cairns BE, Dong X, Mann MK *et al.*Systemic administration of monosodium glutamate elevates intramuscular glutamate levels and sensitizes rat masseter muscle afferent fibers. *Pain* 132(1–2), 33–41 (2007).
- 16 Schueler M, Messlinger K, Dux M, Neuhuber WL, De Col R. Extracranial

- projections of meningeal afferents and their impact on meningeal nociception and headache. *Pain* 154(9), 1622–1631 (2013).
- 17 Bittencourt Da Silva L, Kulas D, Karshenas A et al. Time course analysis of the effects of botulinum neurotoxin type A on pain and vasomotor responses evoked by glutamate injection into human temporalis muscles.

 Toxins (Basel) 6(2), 592–607 (2014).
- 18 Bittencourt Da Silva L, Karshenas A, Bach FW, Rasmussen S, Arendt-Nielsen L, Gazerani P. Blockade of glutamate release by botulinum neurotoxin type A in humans: a

- dermal microdialysis study. *Pain Res. Manag.* 19(3), 126–132 (2014).
- 19 Blumenfeld A, Ashkenazi A, Napchan U et al. Expert consensus recommendations for the performance of peripheral nerve blocks for headaches – a narrative review. Headache 53(3), 437–446 (2013).
- 20 Mustafa G, Anderson EM, Bokrand-Donatelli Y, Neubert JK, Caudle RM. Anti-nociceptive effect of a conjugate of substance P and light chain of botulinum neurotoxin type A. *Pain* 154(11), 2547–2553 (2013).

future science group fsg