Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery Advance Online Article

DOI: 10.1097/PRS.000000000010806

The Positive and Negative Predictive Value of Targeted Diagnostic Botox Injection in

Nerve Decompression Migraine Surgery

Hassan **ElHawary** MD, MSc¹; Kaitlin **Kavanagh**²; Jeffrey E. **Janis** MD, FACS²

- Division of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery, McGill University Health Centre, Montreal, Quebec
- Department of Plastic and Reconstructive Surgery, Ohio State University, Wexner Medical Center Columbus, Ohio

Corresponding author: Jeffrey E. Janis, MD FACS Ohio State University Wexner Medical Center 915 Olentangy River Road, Suite 2100 Columbus, OH 43212 USA Jeffrey.Janis@osumc.edu Twitter: @jjanismd Instagram: jeffreyjanismd

Short running title: BOTOX injections for trigger site identification

Financial Disclosure Statement: Dr. Janis receives royalties from Thieme and Springer

Publishing.

ABSTRACT

Introduction: Nerve decompression surgery is an effective treatment modality for patients who suffer from migraines. Botulinum toxin type A (BOTOX) injections have been traditionally used as a method to identify trigger sites, however there is a paucity in data regarding its diagnostic efficacy. The goal of this study was to assess the diagnostic capacity of BOTOX in successfully identifying migraine trigger sites and predicting surgical success.

Methods: A sensitivity analysis was performed on all patients receiving BOTOX for migraine trigger site localization followed by a surgical decompression of affected peripheral nerves. Positive and negative predictive values were calculated.

Results: A total of 40 patients met our inclusion criteria and underwent targeted diagnostic BOTOX injection followed by a peripheral nerve deactivation surgery with at least three months follow-up. Patients with successful BOTOX injections (defined as at least 50% improvement in Migraine Headache Index (MHI) scores post injection) had significantly higher average reduction in migraine intensity (56.7% vs 25.8%; p=0.020, respectively), frequency (78.1% vs 46.8%; p=0.018, respectively), and MHI (89.7% vs 49.2%; p=0.016, respectively) post-surgical deactivation. Sensitivity analysis shows that the use of BOTOX injection as a diagnostic modality for migraine headaches has a sensitivity of 56.7% and a specificity of 80.0%. The positive predictive value is 89.5% and the negative predictive value is 38.1%. Conclusion: Diagnostic targeted BOTOX injections have a very high positive predictive value. It is therefore a useful diagnostic modality that can help identify migraine trigger sites and improve pre-operative patient selection.

INTRODUCTION

Migraines are common neurovascular disorders affecting over one billion people worldwide.¹ In the United States (US) alone, over 50 million patients suffer with migraines. While not the most common type of headache, it is associated with the most personal and societal suffering with estimates reaching as high as 45 million years lived with disability due to migraines globally.¹

Migraines have been traditionally perceived as a central neurovascular disease that was often treated with acute analgesics and abortive medications.² However, several key anatomical studies have elucidated how specific peripheral nerve trigger sites can play a major role in the development and exacerbation of migraine headaches by demonstrating the connection between the central and peripheral nervous system, and hence supported the hypothesis that peripheral nerve compression is a possible contributing factor of this disease.³⁻¹⁶

Peripheral nerve deactivation surgery, or "migraine surgery", has steadily evolved evidence to support its efficacy over the last two decades.¹⁷ Several studies have demonstrated the clinical efficacy and safety of nerve deactivation surgery to cement it as an acceptable treatment modality.^{17, 18} However, a recent study by Gfrerer et al. has demonstrated a binary distribution of outcomes, where patients either significantly improve, or fail to improve after surgery, with very few intermediate outcomes.¹⁹ Therefore, a thorough pre-operative assessment and accurate diagnosis is of paramount importance to ensure optimal patient selection and improved surgical outcomes. Current methods for detection of migraine trigger sites have been previously described and begin with asking the patient to identify the most frequent site from which headaches originate, followed by exploration of that site with a physical exam and handheld Doppler to evaluate for vascular-related trigger sites.²⁰ If the patient has an active

3

headache during the visit, the site is preferentially injected with local anesthetic and a positive response to the nerve block (defined as at least a 50% improvement in pain) confirms presence of a trigger site, with a positive predictive value of 0.89.²¹ If the patient does not have an active headache at the time of clinical presentation, a diagnostic nerve block cannot be performed. For these patients, a targeted BOTOX injection can be considered, and positive responses again support the presence of a trigger site.

While BOTOX injections are generally performed in areas with known anatomical trigger sites containing muscle as a possible source of compression, mechanism of symptom relief is likely multifactorial and not limited to local muscle paralysis alone. Theoretical mechanisms of action include modulation of neurotransmitter release, inhibition of peripheral nociceptive fiber sensitization and neurogenic inflammation, and subsequent decrease in central sensitization.²²⁻²⁵ Therefore, headaches caused by peripheral nerve compression by structures other than muscle may be improved with BOTOX injection.

While the injection of targeted BOTOX is commonly used to confirm trigger sites preoperatively, its positive and negative predictive values have yet to be determined. To that end, the goal of this study was to quantitatively assess the diagnostic capacity of BOTOX in successfully identifying peripheral nerve migraine trigger sites.

METHODS

Study Design

This retrospective single institution chart review was performed on all patients receiving BOTOX for migraine trigger site localization, followed by a surgical decompression of affected peripheral nerves by the senior author (JEJ) from 2014-2021, who had at least 3 months followup with 100% compliance for all postoperative visits and 100% completed patient reported

Copyright © American Society of Plastic Surgeons. All rights reserved

outcome documentation forms. All included patients had neurologist-diagnosed migraine headaches and failed conservative non-surgical treatment. Patients were not actively receiving any other therapeutic intervention during the study, excluding oral medications. Exclusion criteria included any patient who did not have a surgical deactivation, did not have at least 3 months follow-up with 100% compliance with all postoperative visits, or 100% compliance with filling out all postoperative patient-reported outcomes documentation. Institutional Review Board approval was obtained before commencing the study.

BOTOX administration and workup

Patients were eligible for a BOTOX injection if they were able to describe quantifiable pain localized to a known anatomical trigger site that contained muscle as a possible source of compression, but no active pain at the time of clinical presentation (whereby a diagnostic nerve block, rather than BOTOX, was performed for given active pain at the time of presentation). Eligible patients underwent a targeted peripheral nerve directed BOTOX injection at the site of their migraine initiation.²⁶ Additional trigger sites were also injected in a sequential manner if symptoms remained as per Guyuron's et al's original algorithm.²⁷ Trigger sites included: greater occipital nerve (GON), supraorbital nerve (SON), supratrochlear nerve (STN), and zygomaticotemporal nerve (ZTN).

Diluted BOTOX at a concentration of 25 units/ml was used (4cc preserved saline per 100 unit vial, freshly reconstituted on the day of the clinic visit). A total of 0.5 ml (12.5 units) was used for each unilateral SON and STN, while 1ml (25 units) and 0.75 ml (18.75 units) were used for each unilateral GON and ZTN, respectively (Figure 1). Please refer to Janis et al. for full details on targeted BOTOX administration.²⁶ These dosages differ from those described in the PREEMPT trial, based on which BOTOX received on-label FDA approval for treatment of

chronic migraine headaches in 2010, in that these utilize a targeted, anatomically-based approach, and have been previously shown to be safe and efficacious in these locations with low risk of serious adverse outcomes.²⁸ Specifically, the PREEMPT technique describes administration of 155 units of BOTOX across 31 sites and representing 7 head and neck muscle groups, whereas the targeted approach used in the current paper involves injection of higher doses in more targeted locations with a lower cumulative injection dose, in contrast to injection of lower doses in a broader distribution.^{26, 28}

Patients were then asked to report their migraine intensity (1-10), frequency (number of migraines per month), and duration (as a fraction of 24 hours), one month post BOTOX injection. Migraine headache index (MHI) was calculated by multiplying the aforementioned factors. For the purpose of this study, a BOTOX injection was initially defined to be successful if it decreased MHI by over 50%. We then altered the threshold of success to be defined as over 70% and over 90% reduction in MHI post-injection. In the senior author's practice, patients with unsuccessful BOTOX injections are not re-injected at the initial site. In patients with unsuccessful BOTOX injections, the decision to proceed with surgery despite a negative BOTOX test was made based on various additional components of their individual presentations, including high suspicion based on constellation of symptoms,²⁹ physical exam findings, positive Doppler sites, imaging, and response to nerve blocks.

Surgical protocol and follow up

Post BOTOX injection, all patients underwent a peripheral nerve deactivation surgery based upon headache characteristics and the previously identified trigger sites. Prior to surgery, patients were asked to report their baseline headache outcomes. All patients were followed-up for at least 3 months.

Outcomes

Patient demographic outcomes including age, sex, and race were recorded. Migraine outcomes including migraine intensity, frequency, duration, and MHI were recorded preoperatively and at 3- and 12-months post operatively. A successful surgery was defined as a decrease in MHI of over 50%.

Statistical analysis

In addition to descriptive analysis, post-operative changes were assessed using generalized estimating equations (GEE) models to assess the overall change in migraine outcomes pre- and post-operatively. Furthermore, post-hoc measures with Bonferroni corrections were performed to assess for any change between 3- and 12-months follow-up. Data is presented as estimated marginal means \pm standard errors. Wilcox Sign test were used when the assumption for normal distributions was not met, and data is presented as median and interquartile ranges (IRQs). Sensitivity analyses were performed and repeated at different BOTOX injection success thresholds (>50%, >70%, and >90%). Positive predictive value (PPV) was calculated to evaluate the efficacy of BOTOX injections in diagnosing migraine trigger sites. PPV was defined as the probability that a patient with a successful BOTOX injection at a location has migraine symptoms due to pathology at that location and is treatable with a surgical decompression. True positives were defined as patients who had a successful BOTOX injection who underwent a successful surgery. False positives were patients who had a successful BOTOX injection but an unsuccessful surgery. All statistical analyses were performed using SPSS 25.0 (IBM, NY, USA). Significance was pre-determined and set at p < 0.05.

7

RESULTS

A total of 40 patients met our inclusion criteria and underwent targeted diagnostic BOTOX injection followed by a peripheral nerve deactivation surgery. Of these patients, 30 (75.0%) were females while the remaining 10 (25.0%) were males. The average age was 45.2 ± 14.2 (Table 1). At baseline, the patients' average migraine duration was 0.77 ± 0.12 , average migraine intensity was 7.49 ± 0.28 , average migraine frequency was 24.1 ± 1.75 , and MHI was 131.0 ± 18.2 .

After surgical deactivation, all MHI parameters significantly improved at 3 months (n=40) and 12 months follow-up (n=22) (p<0.001). Out of the 18 participants that were not included in the 12 months follow-up analysis, 11 were lost to follow-up and 7 had their surgeries within one year of the time of analysis and therefore were not included in the 12 months analysis. At 3 months follow-up, migraine duration decreased to 0.34 ± 0.07 (p=0.001), migraine intensity decreased to 4.44 ± 0.55 (p<0.001), migraine frequency decreased to 9.22 ± 1.84 (p<0.001), and average MHI decreased to 42.6 ± 13.2 (p<0.001). Post-hoc repeated measures with Bonferroni correction showed no significant change in all outcomes between 3 and 12 months. Specifically, migraine duration non significantly changed from 0.34 ± 0.07 to 0.25 ± 0.09 (p=0.621). Similarly, migraine intensity non significantly changed from 9.22 ± 1.84 to 8.42 ± 2.49 (p=1.0). Finally, MHI non significantly changed from 42.6 ± 13.2 to 21.7 ± 11.1 (p=0.206) (Table 1).

Out of the 40 included patients, 19 (47.5%) had a successful BOTOX injection. Amongst these patients, all their headache outcomes significantly improved after surgery. Specifically, migraine duration decreased from 0.5 (0.9) to 0.01 (0.3); (p=0.006), migraine intensity decreased

Downloaded from http://journals.lww.com/plasreconsurg by JX80RQ+v8jYf0SCIwHBSo0zwPCyzBpVF0esJrfKsZ1J SYPB00qOtUV/Mflfm8ByPIBRCo7xUqcSux+40113jB3qhckTIAG/UoaFBqpyIA/2RKHUqGzhsf/RvVAoFGruk7MKlgr89OEGKKTF

⁷6ucKsw== on 01/08/2024

from 8 (2.5) to 3.5 (7.0); (p<0.001), migraine frequency decreased from 30 (14.0) to 0.67 (9.0); (p<0.001), and MHI decreased from 105 (157.5) to 0.42 (2.3); (p<0.001).

On the other hand, 21 patients had unsuccessful BOTOX injections. All the headache outcomes improved after surgery. Specifically, migraine duration decreased from 1 (0.8) to 0.17 (1.0); (p=0.015), migraine intensity decreased from 8 (1.0) to 7 (6.5); (p=0.018), migraine frequency decreased from 30 (16.0) to 8 (29.8); (p<0.001), and MHI decreased from 128 (216.2) to 21 (138.0); (p<0.001). An analysis of the patients that were lost to follow up showed a similar distribution of successful to unsuccessful BOTOX injections; five patients (45.5%) had successful injections while six (55.5%) had unsuccessful injection. (Table 2)

Patients with successful BOTOX injections had significantly higher mean reductions in migraine intensity (56.7% vs 25.8%; p=0.020, respectively), frequency (78.1% vs 46.8%; p=0.018, respectively), and overall MHI (89.7% vs 49.2%; p=0.016) post-operatively. While they also experienced higher average reductions in migraine duration (78.3% vs 37.0%; p=0.167), the reductions were not statistically significant.

Surgery success was defined as a post-operative reduction in MHI by at least 50%. Out of the 19 patients that had a successful BOTOX injection (over 50% reduction in MHI post injection), 17 had a successful surgery. On the other hand, out of the 21 patients that had an unsuccessful BOTOX injection, only 13 had a successful surgery. Sensitivity analysis demonstrates that the use of BOTOX injection as a diagnostic modality for migraine headaches has a sensitivity of 56.7% and a specificity of 80.0%. The positive predictive value is 89.5% and the negative predictive value is 38.1%. By changing the definition of a successful BOTOX injection to over 70% reduction in MHI post injection, the PPV and NPV slightly changed to 93.3% and 36.0%, respectively. Similarly, if a successful BOTOX injection was defined over

9

90% reduction in MHI post injection, PPV and NPV further decreased to 87.5% and 28.1%, respectively (Table 3 and Figure 2).

DISCUSSION

The results of this study suggest there is diagnostic benefit of pre-operative targeted BOTOX injections in patients suffering from migraine headaches. Our study shows that on average, patients who have a successful BOTOX injection (defined as at least 50% improvement in MHI) have improved outcomes post-surgical deactivation compared to those who have unsuccessful BOTOX injection. Furthermore, this is the first study to demonstrate the high positive predictive value of pre-operative targeted diagnostic BOTOX injections, which further reinforces its importance in the pre-operative workup for migraine headaches.

Peripheral nerve deactivation surgery for headaches is a prospering field with excellent outcomes and outstanding safety profile.¹⁸ The results of this study show that surgery significantly improves outcomes and is successful in approximately 80% of cases (regardless of the success of BOTOX injections), which is in line with previous literature.^{30, 31} The fact that the majority of patients experience significant improvements after this surgery, as is demonstrated in this study and previous literature.¹⁹ lends further support to the importance of pre-operative patient selection in order to continue improving outcomes in this field.

While BOTOX injections have been used as a treatment modality for migraine headaches since their FDA approval for on label use in October 2010, their use as diagnostic modality predates that.²¹ Alongside a thorough clinical examination and trigger site mapping, BOTOX injections and peripheral nerve blocks have been recently used to better identify trigger sites. In the current study, patients who had a successful BOTOX injection had significantly larger reductions in migraine frequency and intensity and MHI compared to their counterparts who had

unsuccessful BOTOX injections. While surgery was successful in 75% of all patients in this study, the success rate in the positive BOTOX group was significantly higher at approximately 89.5%. In other words, approximately 9 out of 10 patients suffering from migraines, who have a successful diagnostic BOTOX injection pre-operatively, will improve after surgery. This supports the utility of BOTOX as a reliable diagnostic tool for identifying patients that will respond to surgery. A recent systematic review evaluating the efficacy of migraine surgeries demonstrated that 68.5-100% of patients report improvement after migraine surgery, with our data falling within this reported range.¹⁸

On the other hand, the negative predictive value of the BOTOX injection is only 38.1%, which means that over half of the patients that had an unsuccessful BOTOX injection will still improve after surgery. It is also important to note that changing the threshold of BOTOX injection success from a reduction in MHI of 50% to 70% or 90%, only slightly reduced the positive and negative predictive values. Based on these results, the authors of this paper recommend the routine use of diagnostic BOTOX injections in the pre-operative assessment as it can help identify patients who are more likely to benefit from the surgery (regardless of how significant the improvement in outcomes are post-injection). Moreover, it is important to note that an unsuccessful BOTOX injection does not completely eliminate the possibility of compression at the specified trigger site. Therefore, in patients with an unsuccessful BOTOX injection, we recommend further diagnostic modalities such as peripheral nerve blocks, which have been recently shown to also have a high positive predictive value, as well as other tests such as constellation of symptoms, Doppler, CT scan, and pain sketches.^{20, 21, 31}

This study is not without limitations. The first of which is the relatively small sample size and loss to follow-up (n=22 at 12 months), which might have contributed to limited

generalizability and lack of statistical significance in some of the migraine outcomes between patients who had successful and unsuccessful injections. However, we have performed post hoc analyses which showed no significant changes in any of the outcomes between 3 and 12 months post operatively, which suggests that patients lost to follow up had similar outcomes to those retained at 12 months post op. Furthermore, as mentioned above, patients who presented with active pain during clinic were preferentially offered a nerve block (not part of this study), while those without active pain were offered a diagnostic targeted BOTOX injection and were eligible for this study. This can potentially affect the generalizability of results as we did not include patients who had active pain. However, the patient population included in this study is generally representative of the overall American population experiencing migraine headaches, in accordance with previous studies, and significant findings are therefore likely applicable to a larger population.³²

Moreover, many patients had multiple trigger sites addressed, as well as BOTOX injections at multiple sites (guided by constellation of symptoms), which limits our assessment of the diagnostic accuracy of BOTOX injections of specific independent trigger sites. However, in the author's experience, the diffusion capacity of BOTOX makes it difficult to address some sites singularly (i.e. SON and STN).³³ An additional limitation is that the reported MHI is not stratified by location of symptoms, but overall symptom quality. Future studies evaluating specific trigger sites will be useful in determining if the efficacy of BOTOX as a diagnostic modality is affected by location of injection.

Copyright © American Society of Plastic Surgeons. All rights reserved

CONCLUSION

BOTOX injections are a useful diagnostic modality that can help identify migraine trigger sites and improve pre-operative patient selection. BOTOX injections have very high positive predictive values which means that patients who improve after BOTOX will most likely have positive outcomes post peripheral nerve deactivation surgery. Moreover, patients who do not experience significant improvements after BOTOX injections can still be surgery candidates (low negative predictive value) and therefore warrant further preoperative workup.

Referneces

 Global, regional, and national burden of migraine and tension-type headache, 1990-2016: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2016. *Lancet Neurol*. Nov 2018;17(11):954-976. doi:10.1016/s1474-4422(18)30322-3

Panerai AE. Is migraine a disorder of the central nervous system? *Neurol Sci.* May 2013;34 Suppl 1:S33-5. doi:10.1007/s10072-013-1363-3

3. Dash KS, Janis JE, Guyuron B. The lesser and third occipital nerves and migraine headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. May 2005;115(6):1752-8; discussion 1759-60.

doi:10.1097/01.prs.0000161679.26890.ee

4. Fallucco M, Janis JE, Hagan RR. The anatomical morphology of the supraorbital notch: clinical relevance to the surgical treatment of migraine headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Dec 2012;130(6):1227-1233. doi:10.1097/PRS.0b013e31826d9c8d

 Hagan RR, Fallucco MA, Janis JE. Supraorbital Rim Syndrome: Definition, Surgical Treatment, and Outcomes for Frontal Headache. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open*. Jul 2016;4(7):e795. doi:10.1097/GOX.000000000000802

 Janis JE, Ghavami A, Lemmon JA, Leedy JE, Guyuron B. Anatomy of the corrugator supercilii muscle: part I. Corrugator topography. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Nov 2007;120(6):1647-1653. doi:10.1097/01.prs.0000282725.61640.e1

 Janis JE, Ghavami A, Lemmon JA, Leedy JE, Guyuron B. The anatomy of the corrugator supercilii muscle: part II. Supraorbital nerve branching patterns. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Jan 2008;121(1):233-240. doi:10.1097/01.prs.0000299260.04932.38

8. Janis JE, Hatef DA, Ducic I, et al. Anatomy of the auriculotemporal nerve: variations in its relationship to the superficial temporal artery and implications for the treatment of migraine

headaches. Plast Reconstr Surg. May 2010;125(5):1422-1428.

doi:10.1097/PRS.0b013e3181d4fb05

Janis JE, Hatef DA, Ducic I, et al. The anatomy of the greater occipital nerve: Part II.
 Compression point topography. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Nov 2010;126(5):1563-1572.

doi:10.1097/PRS.0b013e3181ef7f0c

10. Lee M, Brown M, Chepla K, et al. An anatomical study of the lesser occipital nerve and its potential compression points: implications for surgical treatment of migraine headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Dec 2013;132(6):1551-1556. doi:10.1097/PRS.0b013e3182a80721

Lee M, Lineberry K, Reed D, Guyuron B. The role of the third occipital nerve in surgical treatment of occipital migraine headaches. *J Plast Reconstr Aesthet Surg*. Oct 2013;66(10):1335-9. doi:10.1016/j.bjps.2013.05.023

12. Mosser SW, Guyuron B, Janis JE, Rohrich RJ. The anatomy of the greater occipital nerve: implications for the etiology of migraine headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Feb 2004;113(2):693-7; discussion 698-700. doi:10.1097/01.Prs.0000101502.22727.5d

 Peled ZM, Pietramaggiori G, Scherer S. Anatomic and Compression Topography of the Lesser Occipital Nerve. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open*. Mar 2016;4(3):e639.
 doi:10.1097/gox.0000000000654

 Sanniec K, Borsting E, Amirlak B. Decompression-Avulsion of the Auriculotemporal Nerve for Treatment of Migraines and Chronic Headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open*. Apr 2016;4(4):e678. doi:10.1097/gox.0000000000663

15. Totonchi A, Pashmini N, Guyuron B. The zygomaticotemporal branch of the trigeminal nerve: an anatomical study. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Jan 2005;115(1):273-7.

16. Gfrerer L, Wenjie Xu L, Austen W, et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA alters inflammatory gene expression and immune cells in chronic headache patients. *Brain*.

2021;doi:10.1093/brain/awab461

ElHawary H, Gorgy A, Janis JE. Migraine Surgery: Two Decades of Innovation. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Nov 1 2021;148(5):858e-860e. doi:10.1097/prs.00000000008467

18. ElHawary H, Barone N, Baradaran A, Janis JE. Efficacy and Safety of Migraine Surgery:
A Systematic Review and Meta-analysis of Outcomes and Complication Rates. *Annals of Surgery*. 9000;

 Gfrerer L, Hulsen JH, McLeod MD, Wright EJ, Austen WG, Jr. Migraine Surgery: An All or Nothing Phenomenon? Prospective Evaluation of Surgical Outcomes. *Ann Surg.* May 2019;269(5):994-999. doi:10.1097/sla.00000000002697

20. Guyuron B, Nahabet E, Khansa I, Reed D, Janis JE. The Current Means for Detection of Migraine Headache Trigger Sites. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Oct 2015;136(4):860-867. doi:10.1097/prs.00000000001572

21. Rangwani SM, Hehr JC, Janis JE. Clinical Effectiveness of Peripheral Nerve Blocks for Diagnosis of Migraine Trigger Points. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Dec 1 2021;148(6):992e-1000e. doi:10.1097/prs.00000000008580

Becker WJ. Botulinum Toxin in the Treatment of Headache. *Toxins (Basel)*. Dec 17 2020;12(12)doi:10.3390/toxins12120803

23. Do TP, Hvedstrup J, Schytz HW. Botulinum toxin: A review of the mode of action in migraine. *Acta Neurol Scand*. May 2018;137(5):442-451. doi:10.1111/ane.12906

16

24. Hehr JD, Schoenbrunner AR, Janis JE. The Use of Botulinum Toxin in Pain Management: Basic Science and Clinical Applications. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Mar 2020;145(3):629e-636e. doi:10.1097/prs.00000000006559

25. Nahabet E, Janis JE, Guyuron B. Neurotoxins: Expanding Uses of Neuromodulators in Medicine--Headache. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Nov 2015;136(5 Suppl):104s-110s.

doi:10.1097/prs.000000000001732

26. Janis JE, Barker JC, Palettas M. Targeted Peripheral Nerve-directed Onabotulinumtoxin
A Injection for Effective Long-term Therapy for Migraine Headache. *Plast Reconstr Surg Glob Open.* Mar 2017;5(3):e1270. doi:10.1097/gox.00000000001270

27. Guyuron B, Kriegler JS, Davis J, Amini SB. Comprehensive surgical treatment of migraine headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg.* Jan 2005;115(1):1-9.

28. Dodick DW, Turkel CC, DeGryse RE, et al. OnabotulinumtoxinA for treatment of chronic migraine: pooled results from the double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled phases of the PREEMPT clinical program. *Headache*. Jun 2010;50(6):921-36. doi:10.1111/j.1526-4610.2010.01678.x

29. Liu MT, Armijo BS, Guyuron B. A comparison of outcome of surgical treatment of migraine headaches using a constellation of symptoms versus botulinum toxin type A to identify the trigger sites. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Feb 2012;129(2):413-419.

doi:10.1097/PRS.0b013e31823aecb7

Gfrerer L, Guyuron B. Surgical treatment of migraine headaches. *Acta Neurol Belg.* Mar 2017;117(1):27-32. doi:10.1007/s13760-016-0731-1

31. Gfrerer L, Hansdorfer MA, Ortiz R, et al. Patient Pain Sketches Can Predict Surgical Outcomes in Trigger-Site Deactivation Surgery for Headaches. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Oct 2020;146(4):863-871. doi:10.1097/prs.000000000007162

Buse DC, Reed ML, Fanning KM, Bostic RC, Lipton RB. Demographics, Headache
Features, and Comorbidity Profiles in Relation to Headache Frequency in People With Migraine:
Results of the American Migraine Prevalence and Prevention (AMPP) Study. *Headache*. Oct 14
2020;doi:10.1111/head.13966

33. Rohrich RJ, Janis JE, Fagien S, Stuzin JM. The cosmetic use of botulinum toxin. *Plast Reconstr Surg*. Oct 2003;112(5 Suppl):177S-88S; quiz 188S, 192S; discussion 189S-191S. doi:10.1097/01.Prs.0000082208.37239.5b

Table and figure legends

Table 1: Participants' demographics and migraine outcomes pre- and post-operatively

P values represent the overall trend assessed using generalized estimating equation models

Values presented as estimated marginal means \pm standard error

Table 2: Migraine outcomes stratified based on success of BOTOX injection

Success of BOTOX injection defined as at least 50% reduction in MHI post injection

Wilcox Sign test was used to assess post-operative changes in migraine outcomes.

Data presented as median (interquartile ranges) (IQR).

Table 3: Positive and negative predictive values based on different thresholds of BOTOX

injection success

PPV: positive predictive value

NPV: negative predictive value

*Successful surgery was defined as at least 50% improvement in MHI post-operative

Figure 1: BOTOX injection sites, nerves and structured involved, and amount injected per

site

Figure 2: Receiver Operator Curve showing sensitivity and specificity for BOTOX injections in predicting migraine surgical success

Blue line: Botox injection success defined as an injection that caused MHI to be decreased by over 50 percent

Red line: Botox injection success defined as an injection that caused MHI to be decreased by over 70 percent

Green line: Botox injection success defined as an injection that caused MHI to be decreased by over 90 percent

Copyright © American Society of Plastic Surgeons. All rights reserved

| | Pre- operative (n=40) | 3 months (n=40) | 12 months (n=22) | P value |
|----------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|---------|
| Age (mean ± SD) | 45.2±14.2 | 45.2±14.2 | 45.0±13.7 | - |
| Ethnicity | | | | |
| - Caucasia n | 39 | 39 | 21 | - |
| - Unknown | 1 | 1 | 1 | - |
| Migraine duration | 0.77±0.12 | 0.34±0.07 | 0.25±0.09 | <0.001 |
| Migraine intensity | 7.49±0.28 | 4.44±0.55 | 3.30±0.76 | <0.001 |
| Migraine frequency | 24.1±1.75 | 9.22±1.84 | 8.42±2.49 | <0.001 |
| Migraine headache index | 131.0±18.2 | 42.6+13.2 | 21.7±11.1 | <0.001 |

Table 1: Participants' demographics and migraine outcomes pre- and post-operatively

P values represent the overall trend assessed using generalized estimating equation models

Values presented as estimated marginal means \pm standard error

| Outcome | Successful BOTOX injection (n=19) | | | Unsuccessful BOTOX injection (n=21) | | |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------------|------------|---------|--|------------|---------|
| | Pre op | Post op | P value | Pre op | Post op | P value |
| Migraine duration | 0.5 (0.9) | 0.01 (0.3) | 0.006 | 1 (0.8) | 0.17 (1.0) | 0.015 |
| Migraine intensity | 8 (2.5.0) | 3.5 (7.0) | <0.001 | 8 (1.0) | 7 (6.5) | 0.018 |
| Migraine frequency | 30 (14.0) | 0.67 (9.0) | <0.001 | 30 (16.0) | 8 (29.8) | <0.001 |
| Migraine headache index | 105 (157.5) | 0.42 (2.3) | <0.001 | 128 (216.2) | 21 (138.0) | <0.001 |

Table 2: Migraine outcomes stratified based on success of BOTOX injection

Success of BOTOX injection defined as at least 50% reduction in MHI post injection

Wilcox Sign test was used to assess post-operative changes in migraine outcomes.

Data presented as median (interquartile ranges) (IQR).

| | Threshold of success of BOTOX injection | | | |
|----------------------|---|---------|--------|--|
| | 50% | 70% | 90% | |
| Total number of | | | | |
| patients with | 30 | 30 | 30 | |
| successful surgery | | | | |
| Total number of | | | | |
| patients with | 10 | 10 | 10 | |
| unsuccessful surgery | | | | |
| Patients with | | | | |
| successful injection | 10 (17) | 15 (14) | 8 (7) | |
| (of whom had | 19(17) | 13 (14) | 8(7) | |
| successful surgery) | | | | |
| Patients with | | | | |
| unsuccessful | | | | |
| injection (of whom | 21 (8) | 25 (9) | 32 (9) | |
| had unsuccessful | | | | |
| surgery) | | | | |
| PPV | 89.5 | 93.3 | 87.5 | |
| NPV | 38.1 | 36.0 | 28.1 | |

Table 3: Positive and negative predictive values based on different thresholds of BOTOX

injection success

PPV: positive predictive value

NPV: negative predictive value

*Successful surgery was defined as at least 50% improvement in MHI post-operative

| Injection site | Botox injection pattern | Nerves involved | Structured involved | Units of BOTOX injected |
|-------------------|-------------------------|--|---|--|
| SON/STN | | Supraorbital and supratrochlear nerves | Glabellar muscles, foramina, and fascial bands | 12.5 units (0.5 cc) unilaterally |
| ZTN | | Zygomaticotemporal branch of cranial nerve | Temporalis muscle, deep temporal fascia, and surrounding vessels | 18.75 units (0.75 cc) unilaterally |
| GON | | Greater occipital nerve | Semispinalis capitis, fascial bands, and occipital artery | 25 units (0.5 cc) unilaterally |

Copyright © American Society of Plastic Surgeons. All rights reserved

Figure 2



Page 1