

Comparison of Clinical Diagnoses versus Computerized Test (Expert System) Diagnoses from the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm (Expert System)

¹Alessandro Landi, ²William Speed, ^{*3}Nelson Hendler

¹Professor neurosurgery, University of Rome, Sapienza, Italy

²Former Associate Professor of medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, past president, American Headache Society, USA

^{*3}Former Assistant Professor of neurosurgery, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, past president American Academy of Pain Management, USA

Abstract

A number of researchers have found that 35%-70% of patients told they have migraine headache actually have muscle tension headaches, underscoring the need for more accurate diagnostic methodology. In this study, 34 patients were evaluated and 104 diagnoses made by the clinician, which were related to headache pain. For these 104 headache related diagnoses, the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm made diagnoses which appeared in the medical records 94.23% of the time (96/104).

Introduction

There are over 60 different types of headaches which have been classified. Unfortunately, many of the research articles failed to rigorously adhere to diagnostic criteria for classifying the headaches. Adding to this confusion is the ever-changing nomenclature associated with diagnosing and treating headaches. As with all components of medicine, proper diagnosis is the ultimate predictive analytic tool. It tells you the etiology of the problem, it tells you the appropriate test used to confirm diagnosis of the problem, it tells you the treatment for the problem, and give some predictive component about the outcome of treatment. Also, accurate diagnosis serves as a unifying language, allowing physicians across the world to understand what is meant with a single diagnosis. Therefore, rigorous adherence to the diagnostic criteria of headaches is essential. Without this, appropriate treatment cannot be implemented.

In a review of the incidence of migraine headache in US Armed forces 1998-2010, the report found that 3% of all men, and 6% of all female had migraine. It further states that 3.9% of men and 11.3% female have some sort of headache. [1]. If diagnosed with migraine, then less

than 1% had other types of headaches. [1]. However, this begs the question. What is a migraine?

The most common headaches are [2]:

- 1) Muscle Tension Headache
- 2) Migraine-common and classic
- 3) Trigeminal
- 4) Cluster
- 5) Chronic daily headache

***Corresponding author:** Nelson Hendler, Former Assistant Professor of neurosurgery, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, past president American Academy of Pain Management, USA. E-mail: DocNelse@aol.com

Received July 10, 2018; **Accepted** July 26, 2018; **Published** August 08, 2018

Citation: Nelson Hendler (2018) Comparison of Clinical Diagnoses versus Computerized Test (Expert System) Diagnoses from the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm (Expert System). SF J Headache Pain 1:1.

Copyright: © 2018 Nelson Hendler. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

However, the prevalence of misdiagnosis of headache disorders abounds. The medical literature reports that 35%-70% of patients called “migraine” don’t have it, but rather has muscle tension headaches or other types [3]. One of the best examples of failure to properly diagnose headaches correctly was reported by Donlin Long, MD, PhD, chairman of neurosurgery at Johns Hopkins Hospital and his colleagues [4]. They studied 70 patients with severe headache and neck pain after a head or neck injury (acceleration-deceleration injury). These patients had X-rays, MRIs and CT of their neck and head. All had been told that they had various types of headaches, such as post-traumatic migraine, post concussion syndrome, classic migraine, common migraine, whiplash, etc. and nothing more could be done to treat them except narcotic and other types of medication. When these 70 patients were evaluated by a multi-disciplinary team, the group determined that 67 of the 70 patients were candidates for additional medical testing, which was collectively called the “diagnostic block protocol.” The protocol consisted of C2-3 root blocks, C2-C4 zygapophyseal joint blocks, and provocative discograms C2-C7. Based on the response to the blocks, 44 of the 67 patients were considered candidates for a posterior cervical fusion, C1-C4, in various combinations. Of the patients who received surgery, 79% had complete relief of their headaches and neck pain, while 14% had satisfactory relief. Therefore, from a group of patients who were told that no treatment was available for their headache, 41 of the original 70 patients (58%) were able to obtain relief when accurately diagnosed and correctly treated [4].

Further adding to the misdiagnosis of headache is the totally imprecise nomenclature now used by some clinicians to describe headaches. The most egregious example of this lack of precision is “chronic daily headache, “defined as a headache which occurs more than 15 days a month. This type of headache lasts more than 4 hours a day. If it lasts less than 4 hours a day, it is considered a trigeminal autonomic cephalalgia (TAC). TACs include episodic & chronic cluster headache, episodic & chronic paroxysmal hemicrania, SUNCT, & hypnic headache. If duration is great than 4 hours, then it is possible to chronic daily headache (CDH) but the differential diagnosis is chronic migraine, chronic tension-type headache, new daily persistent headache and hemicrania continua. [5] This term has no diagnostic value. It is merely a description. It tells you nothing of the etiology of the headache, whether the pain is throbbing, or pounding, or muscle tension, or associated with vertebral body movement. This approach

to so-called “diagnosis” is as ridiculous as saying the patient complaining of low back pain has the “diagnosis” of low back pain.

A physician should immediately understand why headaches should be classified based on origin. A single symptom may have multiple origins, such a flat tire, which can be caused by a nail in the tread, cut sidewall, leaky valve stem, or bad bead. A physician has to know the cause in order to properly repair the tire. This is the value of a DIAGNOSIS.

A single cause (DIAGNOSIS), like a spirochete, the causative organism of syphilis or Lyme disease, may have multiple clinical manifestations, such as joint pain, vascular disease, dementia, or neurological pain. Defining the origin of any disorder allows a doctor to treat the causes and address multiple symptoms. There were few reliable diagnostic tests for headache. Headaches are one of the most common symptoms and the list of differential diagnoses has over 60 different types and causes.

The most important element of establishing an accurate diagnosis for headache is a careful history. This is especially important, because there are very few tests which as physician can use to establish the cause of a headache. In one study of 3026 neuroimaging scans in patients with headache and a normal neurological examination, the researchers found the following pathology: brain tumours, 0.8%; arteriovenous malformations, 0.2%; hydrocephalus, 0.3%; aneurysm, 0.1%; subdural hematoma, 0.2%; and strokes, including chronic ischemic processes, 1.2% [6]. In the 1440 scans of patients with migraine: brain tumour, 0.3%; arteriovenous malformation, 0.07%; and scapular aneurysm, 0.07% [7].

Obtaining a comprehensive history often is difficult. Two studies reported that physician time with patients averaged 10.7 to 11 minutes. [8, 9]. One study recorded the amount of time the patient was able to speak during these patient visits, and found that the patient was able to speak only for about 4 minutes of the 11 minutes [8]. The other study reported face-to-face patient time measured was 10.7 minutes, and even when the time spent on “visit-specific “work outside the examination room was combined it with face-to-face time, the average time per patient visit was only 13.3 minutes [9].

In 2018, The International Classification of Headache Disorders- 3rd edition was published [10]. It is impressively comprehensive, and lists virtually any type of headache or facial pain or injury which could lead to a symptom of “headache.” A list of the major categories of

the ICHD-3 Classification Code follows:

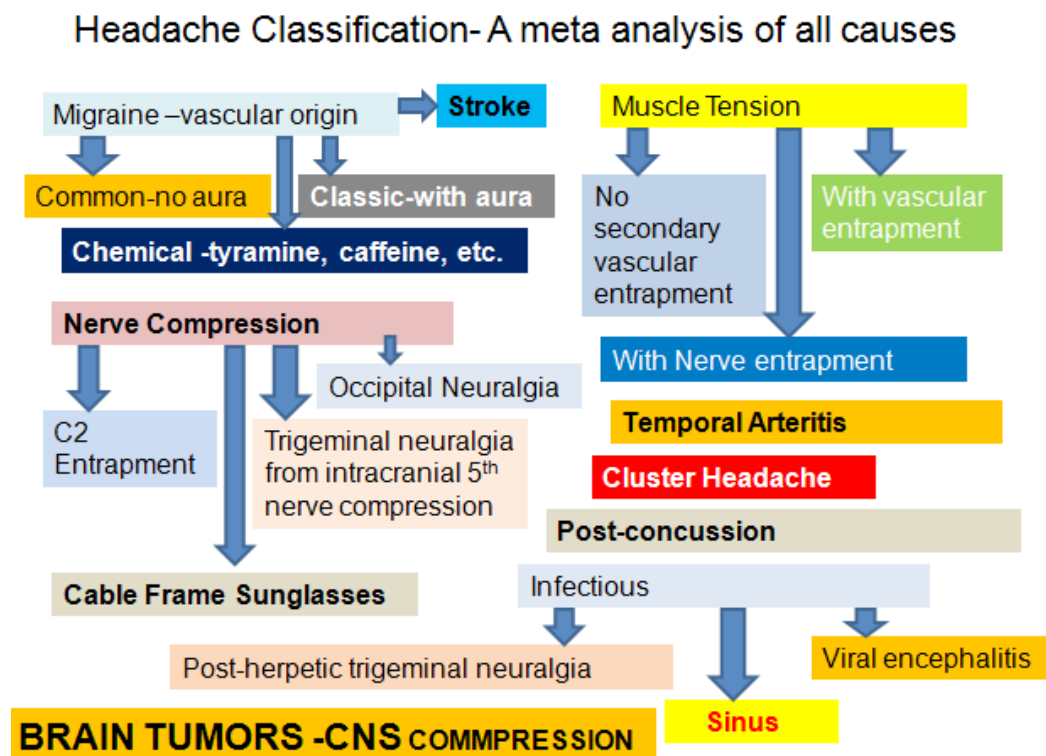
1. Migraine
 - 1.1 Migraine without aura
 - 1.2 Migraine with aura
2. Tension-type headache (TTH)
3. Trigeminal autonomic cephalalgias (TACs)
4. Other primary headache disorders
5. Headache attributed to trauma or injury to the head and/or neck
6. Headache attributed to cranial and/or cervical vascular disorder
7. Headache attributed to non-vascular intracranial disorder
8. Headache attributed to a substance or its withdrawal
9. Headache attributed to infection
10. Headache attributed to disorder of homeostasis
11. Headache or facial pain attributed to disorder of the cranium, neck, eyes, ears, nose, sinuses, teeth, mouth or other facial or cervical structure
12. Headache attributed to psychiatric disorder
13. Painful lesions of the cranial nerves and other facial pain
14. Other headache disorder

A system of headache classification was formulated by doing a meta analysis of articles, which examined various types of treatment for different headache disorders [11-46], and is shown in Figure 1 below, which is reproduced, with permission, from Chapter 12 (Headaches-migraine versus muscle tension versus dental versus tumours) from “Why 40%-80% of Chronic Pain Patients Are Misdiagnosed and How To Correct That.” [47]. This list is by no means comprehensive. It represents the types of headaches most often seen in clinical practice, and forms the clinical basis for the creation of the questionnaire and scoring algorithm of this article (Figure 1).

Confirmation of diagnosis of certain headaches cannot be done by medical testing. The only real measure of the correct diagnosis was the improvement a patient experiences after accurate diagnosis and the use of the correct medication. This can be a complicated process. As an example of this, one patient, who had a residual acoustic neuroma, underwent a trial of 19 medications before he obtained relief [40]. However, each medication used has a different mechanism of action, which helped to delineate the pathology causing the headache.

The use of the correct medication is also

Figure: 1



problematic. It should not be symptomatic, but specific for the type of tissue damage associated with each type of headache. Matching tissue damage with pharmacological response is described in a recently published article [48].

In order to address the high level of misdiagnosis, often attributable to incomplete history [49], a comprehensive Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was created. Diagnoses generated by results of the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm were compared to diagnoses from physicians from Johns Hopkins Hospital. The results of this comparison are reported in this paper.

Subjects

All subjects were patients at Mensana Clinic, which was an inpatient and outpatient multidisciplinary diagnostic and treatment center for diagnosing and treating chronic pain problems, which operated from 1978 until 2006 in Stevenson, Maryland. Seventy-five percent of the inpatients came from 47 states and 8 foreign countries, and were not from Maryland. There were 34 patients included in this study. The patients included in this study represent new evaluations and returning patients seen between February 2000, through July 2002 by Dr. Hendler and/or Dr. Speed, who functioned as the headache consultant to the clinic. The average age of the patients was 43.4 years. Forty-two percent of the subjects were males, and fifty eight percent were females.

Methods

The Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was compiled based on the set of questions either Dr. Hendler or Dr. Speed would ask a patient. This resulted in a questionnaire with 45 questions, and 758 possible answers. They then selected which answers would lead them to reach a particular diagnosis. Mr. Berne programmed these answers into a computer scored algorithm, using Bayesian logic, which assigned the likelihood of a diagnosis to each of the 758 answers, based on clinical assessment of each answer. The sum of the weighted answers gave a diagnosis and differential diagnosis.

Once the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was completely programmed, the researchers then retrospectively reviewed 34 patients who had headache as their only chief complaint, or as one of their chief complaints (with or without associated neck pain and facial pain). On the day of their initial medical evaluation, prior to seeing the physician for an evaluation, these patients completed the Pain Validity Test, The Diagnostic

Paradigm and Treatment Algorithm, and the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm, The Pain Validity Test and Diagnostic and Treatment Algorithm have been described in earlier publication [50-55]. The information from the answers from the paper-pencil version of the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was entered into the recently created Internet based electronic format. The Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was scored, by running the computer program, and the computer generated diagnoses and differential diagnoses were recorded, based on the symptoms transferred from each chart to the questionnaire.

The computer generated diagnoses were then compared to the clinical diagnosis recorded in the chart. In some instances, the only chart record was an initial evaluation, while others contained a more complete evaluation, including medical tests, and responses to medicine to help confirm the diagnosis made at the time of the initial evaluation. The diagnosis made at the time of the latest visit recorded in each chart was compared to the diagnoses generated by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm. The results of this comparison are reported in the next section.

Results

The results of comparing the diagnosis found in the chart and the diagnosis generated by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm were tabulated. Diagnoses generated by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm were compared to diagnoses in the chart. The diagnoses by clinicians were assumed to be accurate. The computer generated diagnosis was considered a match if the same diagnosis made by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm also appeared in the chart. If a diagnosis generated by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm did not appear in the chart, then this was considered a false positive result. If a diagnosis was not generated by Headache Diagnostic Paradigm, but did appear in the chart, this was considered a false negative result. The Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was designed to be overly inclusive, so that all types of headaches related to a given set of symptoms would be reported. The Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was also designed to consider diagnoses and differential diagnoses. Therefore a patient might have a number of diagnoses made by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm, but these are rank ordered by the Bayesian analytic technique. Finally, the responses to medication given to help headaches were recorded.

In the 34 patients included in the study, there were 104 diagnoses made by the clinician, which were related

to headache pain, often associated with cervical or jaw pathology. Diagnoses of co-existing lower back pain, and limb pain, with the exception of radial nerve entrapment and thoracic outlet syndrome (which produce headache symptoms), were not included in the tabulation.

In the review of 104 headache related diagnoses made by the clinician, the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm made diagnoses which appeared in the medical records 94.23% of the time (96/104). This represents the accuracy or “match rate.” On the other hand, 23% (24/104) of the time the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm made diagnoses which were not in the chart. This is considered a “false positive rate.” Finally, 6.73% (7/104) diagnoses which appeared in the medical records were not detected by the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm, representing the “false negative” rate, which essentially is a missed diagnosis.

The rationale for the Report of the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm was to be as inclusive as possible with diagnoses and differential diagnoses, so that no diagnosis would ever be overlooked. This led to generating a large number of false positive results, which then would require refinement using pharmacological trials, since there are very few objective tests which can diagnosis headache. By being overly inclusive in diagnoses, the chance of missing a possible diagnosis is reduced. However, the actual sensitivity of the test cannot be calculated.

In general, sensitivity and specificity requires the prevalence of a disorder in order to be properly calculated. The prevalence of disorders is determined by the number of cases extant in a population at a give point in time. Unfortunately, the prevalence of various types of headaches is hard to determine, since so many types of headaches are over-diagnosed, as in the case of migraine, or under-diagnosed, as in the case of a mixed muscle-tension/vascular headache, or totally undiagnosed, as in the case of the description “chronic daily headache”. Moreover, the sample size, at present, it too small to generate any meaningful statistics.

Discussion

After years of work in the area of expert systems, a number of authors feel limited progress has been made [56]. One major hurdle to any developer of an expert system is the quality of knowledge used to create the system, and the availability of accurate patient data [57]. Other authors emphasize the value of the longitudinal clinical data collection, and “data mining” to develop expert systems [58].

The accuracy of any “expert systems” is a core issue. The expert systems which have the best results are those which focus on specialized area of medicine. One questionnaire for rheumatologic disease, evaluated 358 patients. It had 60 questions, and evaluated 32 rheumatologic diseases, [59]. The correlation rate was 74.4%, and an error rate of 25.6%. Forty-four percent of the errors were attributed to “information deficits of the computer using standardized questions,” [59]. However in a prospective study of “RHEUMA” on 51 outpatients, there was a 90% correlation with clinical experts [60]. The diagnosis of jaundice has been addressed by other groups. The expert system ICTERUS produced a 70% accuracy rate [61], while ‘Jaundice’ also had a 70% overall accuracy rate [62]. An expert system for vertigo has an accuracy rate of 65%, [63]. The expert system was named O to Neurological Expert (ONE), and it had same results reported in the earlier article [64]. In the psychiatric realm, an expert system and a clinician had a 76% agreement for diagnosis of depression [65]. There was an 85.7% agreement level with three clinicians using the Computer Assisted Diagnostic Interview (CADI) for a broad range of psychiatric disorders, [66]. However, a group of 18 family practitioners felt the treatment suggested by the computer system Hypercritic was erroneous 16% of the time [67]. Others have developed a check-list to remind treating physicians about tests they should order, based on input into electronic patient records [68]. Only in the narrow area of managing lipid levels was there an agreement of 93% between expert system management advice and a specialist, using the interpretation of laboratory and clinical data [69]. One major stumbling block to the use of expert systems is the low level of accepting comments from expert systems (65%) regarding diagnosis of a patient, and the resistance to recommendations for prescriptions for patients, with only a 35% acceptance level [70].

The Headache Diagnostic Paradigm has achieved the same level of accuracy as the Diagnostic Paradigm and Treatment Algorithm, in the 94%-96% range (54, 55). In large part, this is due to the high percentage of headaches which are of cervical origin, or are post-traumatic in nature. Therefore there were a number of questions which overlapped between the two diagnostic tests. Further testing on a large number of more diverse headache patients is needed to improve the specificity and sensitivity as well as the accuracy of the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm.

Disclosure

Mr. Berne and Dr. Hendler have a financial interest in www.HeadacheAssist.com, the website which offers the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm.

References

1. Armed Forces Health Surveillance Center (AFHSC), MSMR (2012) Outpatient encounters associated with diagnostic codes for migraine and other types of headaches, active component service members, 1998-2010, *MSMR* 19: 12-17.
2. Robbins MS, Lipton RB (2010) the epidemiology of primary headache disorders, *Semin Neurol* 30: 107-119.
3. Watson DH, Drummond PD (2012) Head pain referral during examination of the neck in migraine and tension-type headache. *Headache* 52: 1226-1235.
4. Long D, Davis R, Speed W, et al. (2006) Fusion for occult post-traumatic cervical facet injury. *Neurosurg Quart* 16: 129-135.
5. Bigal ME, Lipton RB (2007) the differential diagnosis of chronic daily headaches: an algorithm-based approach. *J Headache Pain* 8: 263-272.
6. Evans RW (1996) Diagnostic testing for the evaluation of headaches. *Neurol Clin* 14: 1-26.
7. Amin FM, Asghar MS, Hougaard A et al. (2013) Magnetic resonance angiography of intracranial and extra cranial arteries in patients with spontaneous migraine without aura: a cross-sectional study. *Lancet Neurol* May 12: 454-461.
8. Rhoades DR, McFarland KF, Finch WH et al. (2001) Speaking and interruptions during primary care office visits. *Fam Med* 33: 528-532.
9. Gottschalk A, Flocke S (2005) Time Spent in Face-to-Face Patient Care and Work Outside the Examination Room *Ann Fam Med* 6: 488-493.
10. Headache Classification Committee of the IHS (2018) The IHS *Cephalalgia* 38: 1-211
11. Huang Y, Cai X, Song X (2013) Steroids for preventing recurrence of acute severe migraine headaches: a meta-analysis. *Eur J Neurol* 20: 1184-1190.
12. Amin FM, Asghar MS, Ravneberg JW (2013) The effect of sumatriptan on cephalic arteries: A 3T MR-angiography study in healthy volunteers. *Cephalalgia* 33: 1009-1016.
13. Bennett MH, French C, Schnabel A (2008) Norm baric and hyperbaric oxygen therapy for migraine and cluster headache *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 16: 3.
14. Gilmore B, Michael M (2011) Treatment of acute migraine headache. *Am Fam Physician* 83: 271-280.
15. Krymchantowski AV, Jevoux CC (2011) Topiramate vs divalproex sodium in the preventive treatment of migraine: a prospective real-world study. *Headache* 51: 554-558.
16. Colleen Doherty (2018) Symptoms and Potential Causes of This Dreaded Headache. *Very Well Health*.
17. João M, Cabrita B, Garcia R et al. (2012) Gas Chromatography in the Analysis of Compounds Released from Wood into Wine. *Intech*.
18. Occipital Neuralgia. *Health Library*.
19. Long DM, Davis RF, Speed WG et al. (2006) Fusion for Occult Posttraumatic Cervical Facet injury *Neurosurgery Quarterly* 3: 129-138.
20. Poletti CE (1996) Third cervical nerve root and ganglion compression: clinical syndrome, surgical anatomy, and pathological findings. *Neurosurgery* 39: 941-948.
21. John J. Carbone (2003) Johns Hopkins University, Presented at the Johns Hopkins Orthopaedic Review Course, Cervical Spine Trauma, Baltimore.
22. Letter to the Editor, Slurpee Headache due to Sphenopalatine Artery Spasm, *New England Journal of Medicine*.
23. Seleklér HM, Erdogan MS, Budak F (2004) Prevalence and clinical characteristics of an experimental model of 'ice-cream headache' in migraine and episodic tension-type headache patients. *Cephalalgia* 24: 293-297.
24. Zierz AM, Mehl T, Kraya T, et al. (2016) Ice cream headache in students and family history of headache: a cross-sectional epidemiological study. *J Neurol* 263: 1106-1110.
25. Kaczorowski M, Kaczorowski J (2002) ICE-H study: randomized trial of accelerated versus cautious ice cream eating regimen. *BMJ* 325: 1445-1446.
26. Edvardsson B, Persson S (2012) Cluster headache and parietal glioblastoma multiform. *Neurologist* 18: 206-207.
27. Sánchez Del Rio M, Leira R, Pozo-Rosich P, et al. (2014) Errors in recognition and management are still frequent in

patients with cluster headache. *Eur Neurol* 72: 209-212.

28. Evers S, Rapoport A (2016) The use of oxygen in cluster headache treatment worldwide - a survey of the IHS. *Cephalalgia* 37: 396-398.

29. Koppen H, Stolwijk J, Wilms EB, et al. (2016) Cardiac monitoring of high-dose verapamil in cluster headache: An international Delphi study. *Cephalalgia* 36: 1385-1388.

30. Leroux E, Valade D, Taifas I, et al. (2011) Sub occipital steroid injections for transitional treatment of patients with more than two cluster headache attacks per day: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial. *Lancet Neurol* 10: 891-897.

31. Holle D, Burmeister J, Scherag A, et al. (2013) PredCH Study Group. Study protocol of PredCH: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled parallel group trial to evaluate the efficacy and safety of oral prednisone as an add-on therapy in the prophylactic treatment of episodic cluster headache with verapamil. *BMC Neurol* 13: 99.

32. Schoenen J, Jensen RH, Lantéri-Minet M, et al. (2013) Stimulation of the SPG for cluster headache treatment. Pathway CH-1: A randomized, sham-controlled study. *Cephalalgia* 33: 816-830.

33. Jürgens TP, Barloese M, May A, et al. (2016) Long-term effectiveness of sphenopalatine ganglion stimulation for cluster headache. *Cephalalgia* 37: 423-434.

34. Kaymakci M, Cikriklar HI, Pay G (2013) The etiology underlying sinus headaches. *J Int Med Res* 41: 218-223.

35. Studahl M, Lindquist L, Eriksson BM (2013) Acute viral infections of the central nervous system in immune competent adults: diagnosis and management. *Drugs* 73: 131-158.

36. Lebedeva ER, Gurary NM, Sakovich VP (2013) Migraine before rupture of intracranial aneurysms. *J Headache Pain* 14: 15-17.

37. Lynch KM, Brett F. (2012) Headaches that kill: a retrospective study of incidence, etiology and clinical features in cases of sudden death. *Cephalalgia* 32: 972-978.

38. Salvarani C, Pipitone N, Versari A, et al. (2012) Clinical features of polymyalgia rheumatica and giant cell arteritis. *Nat Rev Rheumatol* 8: 509-521.

39. Seifert TD (2013) Sports concussion and associated post-traumatic headache. *Headache* 53: 726-36.

40. Hendler N, Cashen A, Morrison C et al. (1995) Divalproex sodium and other medications for headache following craniotomy for acoustic neuroma. *Headache* 35: 490-493.

41. Aggarwal M, Puri V, Puri S (2012) Serotonin and CGRP in migraine. *Ann Neurosci* 19: 88-94.

42. Ivanusic JJ, Kwok MM, Jennings EA (2011) Peripheral targets of 5-HT (1D) receptor immune reactive trigeminal ganglion neurons. *Headache* 51: 744-751.

43. Muñoz-Islas E, Gupta S, Jiménez-Mena LR, et al. (2006) Donitriptan, but not sumatriptan, inhibits capsaicin-induced canine external carotid vasodilatation via 5-HT1B rather than 5-HT1D receptors. *Br J Pharmacol* 149: 82-91.

44. Bopp C, Auger C, Diemunsch P, et al. (2016) The effect of urapidil, an alpha-1 adrenoceptor antagonist and a 5-HT1A agonist, on the vascular tone of the porcine coronary and pulmonary arteries, the rat aorta and the human pulmonary artery. *Eur J Pharmacol* 779: 53-58.

45. Nishikawa T, Tsuno NH, Shuno Y, et al. (2010) Antiangiogenic effect of a selective 5-HT4 receptor agonist. *J Surg Res* 159: 696-704.

46. Doly S, Fischer J, Brisorgueil MJ, et al. (2005) Pre- and postsynaptic localization of the 5-HT7 receptor in rat dorsal spinal cord: immune cyto chemical evidence. *J Comp Neurol* 490: 256-269.

47. Hendler N (2018) Headaches-migraine versus muscle tension versus dental versus tumors, in why 40%-80% of Chronic Pain Patients Are misdiagnosed and How to Correct That. Nova Science Publishers, New York.

48. Hendler N (2018) Medication Treatment of Chronic Pain without Opioids, Scimaze Anaesthesia and Pain Management in press.

49. Landro L (2013) *The Wall Street J*.

50. Hendler N, Cashen A, Hendler S (2005) A Multi-Center Study for Validating The Complaint of Chronic Back, Neck and Limb Pain Using. The Mensana Clinic Pain Validity Test Forensic Examiner 41-49.

51. Hendler N, Baker A (2008) An Internet questionnaire to predict the presence or absence of organic pathology in chronic back, neck and limb pain patients, *Pan Arab J Neurosurgery* 12: 15-24.

52. Hendler N, Mollett A, Levin S (1988) A Comparison

Between the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Mensana Clinic Pain validity for Validating the Complaint of Chronic Back Pain. 11 J Occup Med 98-102.

53. Hendler N (2017) An Internet based Questionnaire to Identify Drug Seeking Behavior in a Patient in the ED and Office. J Anesth Crit Care Open Access 8: 00306.

54. Hendler N, Berzoksky C, Davis RJ (2007) Comparison of Clinical Diagnoses Versus Computerized Test Diagnoses Using the Mensana Clinic Diagnostic Paradigm (Expert System) for Diagnosing Chronic Pain in the Neck, Back and Limbs. Pan Arab Journal of Neurosurgery 8-17.

55. Landi A, Davis R, Hendler N, et al. (2016) Diagnoses from an On-Line Expert System for Chronic Pain Confirmed by Intra-Operative Findings. J Clin Anesth Pain med 1-7.

56. Metaxiotis KS, Samouilidis JE (2000) Expert systems in medicine: academic exercise or practical tool? J Med Eng Technol 24: 68-72.

57. Engelbrecht R (1997) Expert Systems for Medicine-functions and Development. Zentralbl Gynakol 119: 428-434.

58. Babic A (1999) Knowledge Discovery for Advanced Clinical Data Management. Stud Health Technol Inform 68: 409-413.

59. Schewe S, Herzer P, Kruger K (1990) Prospective Application of an Expert System for the Medical History of Joint Pain. Klin Wochenschr 68: 466-471.

60. Schewe S, Schreiber MA (1993) Stepwise development of a Clinical Expert System in Rheumatology. Clin Investig 71: 139-144.

61. Molino G, Marzuoli M, Molino F, et al. (2000) Validation of ICTERUS, a Knowledge-Based Expert System for Jaundice Diagnosis. Methods Inf. Med 39: 311-318.

62. Camma C, Garofalo G, Almasio P, et al. (1991) A Performance Evaluation of the Expert System Jaundice in Comparison with that of Three Hepatologists. J Hepatol 13: 279-285.

63. Kentala E, Auramo Y, Juhola, M, et al. (1998) Comparison Between Diagnoses of Human Experts and a Neurotologic Expert System. Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol 107: 135-140.

64. Kentala EL, Laurikkala JP, Viikki K, et al. (2001) Experiences of Otoneurological Expert System for Vertigo, Sand Audiol Suppl 52: 90-91.

65. Cawthorpe D (2001) An Evaluation of a Computer

Based Psychiatric Assessment: Evidence of Expanded Use. Cyberpsychol Behav.

66. Miller PR, Dasher R, Collins R, et al. (2001) Inpatient Diagnostic Assessments: 1. Accuracy of Structured vs. Unstructured Interviews. Psychiatry Res 105: 255-264.

67. van der Lei J, van der Does E, Man Veld AJ, et al. (1993) Response of General Practitioners to Computer Generated Critiques of Hypertension Therapy. Methods of Information Medicine 32: 146-153.

68. Silverman BG, Andonyadis C, Morales A (1998) Web Based Health Care Agents: the case of reminders and R2Do2. Artificial Intell Med 14: 295-316.

69. Sinnott MM, Carr B, Markey J, et al. (1993) Knowledge Based Lipd Management System for General Practitioners. Clin Chim Acta 222: 71-77.

70. Kuilboer MM, van der Lei J, de Jongste JC, et al. (1998) Simulating an Integrated Critiquing System. J Am Med Inform Assoc 5: 194-202.

Citation: Nelson Hendler (2018) Comparison of Clinical Diagnoses versus Computerized Test (Expert System) Diagnoses from the Headache Diagnostic Paradigm (Expert System). SF J Headache Pain 1:1.