SPECTRUM OF NEUROLOGICAL MANIFESTATIONS IN COVID-19: A REVIEW

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Abstract:
The COVID-19 pandemic, caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is causing a worldwide pandemic of COVID-19 within a short span of time. Although patients with COVID-19 primarily present with fever and respiratory illness; a wide range of symptoms involving different systems have been described. While the neurological sequelae of the virus remain poorly understood, there are a growing number of reports of neurological manifestation of COVID-19. The neurological manifestation including both central and peripheral nervous system are increasingly reported in a very subset of COVID-19 patients. The SARS-CoV-2 enters the body mainly via the ACE-2 receptors within the respiratory system, which causes the body to initiate an immunologic response against potential damage to non-renewable cells. There’s increasing evidence of accumulating that COVID-19, particularly in severe cases, can have neurological consequences although respiratory symptoms nearly always develop before neurological ones. Patients with pre-existing neurological conditions could also be at elevated risk for COVID-19 associated neurological symptoms. The neurological presentations of COVID-19 patients maybe acute and post-acute state. The acute presentations are classified into specific (such as stroke, encephalitis, acute polyneuropathy, etc.) and nonspecific (such as delirium, headache, dizziness, etc.) symptoms with anatomical involvement of either central nervous system including brain or spinal cord, and/or peripheral nervous system, neuromuscular junctions or muscles. Several neurological symptoms have also been demonstrated in post-acute or long covid-19 syndrome. There is a possibility to overlook or misinterpretation of neurological symptoms in some COVID-19 patients. In infants and young children, the foremost common CNS phenomena are febrile seizures; in adults, non-focal abnormalities will be either neurological or constitutional. To date, neurological manifestations of COVID-19 are described largely within the disease trajectory, and also the long-term effects of such manifestations still remain unexplored and unfolded. This article is intended to review the possible neuro-invasive routes of SARS-CoV-2 and its mechanisms which initiate the neurological damage with neurological presentations of COVID-19 patients.

Key words: Spectrum, Neurological Manifestations, COVID-19

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Introduction:
Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) is a communicable disease caused by SARS-CoV-2. The primary known case was identified in Wuhan, China, in December 2019¹. The disease has since spread worldwide, resulting in an ongoing historical pandemic². Transmission of COVID-19 occurs mainly when an infected person is in close contact with another person³,⁴. Small droplets containing the virus can spread from an infected person’s nose and mouth as they breathe, cough, sneeze, sing, or speak. People are infected if the virus gets into their mouth, nose, or eyes. The transmission mechanism is additionally sometimes possible, as smaller infected droplets and particles can linger within the air for minutes to hours within enclosed spaces that have inadequate ventilation⁴. Less commonly, the virus may spread via contaminated surfaces⁴. People who are infected can transmit the virus to other person up to two days before they themselves show symptoms, as can people who

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do not experience symptoms\textsuperscript{5,6}. People remain infectious for up to 10 days after the onset of symptoms in moderate cases and up to twenty days in severe cases\textsuperscript{6}. The morbidity and the mortality rate associated with covid-19 varies among different countries, which can be attributed in part to the median age of the affected population and the availability of critical resources needed to diagnose and treat the patients\textsuperscript{7}. The clinical manifestation of the covid-19 are highly variable with 45\% of the covid-19 positive cases being asymptomatic\textsuperscript{8}. The most common observed symptoms of covid-19 were fever, cough and fatigue and most common co-morbidities identified were hypertension and diabetes mellitus\textsuperscript{9}. In a prospective cohort study by Cummings and colleagues with confirmed covid-19 cases 22\% were critically and 67\% of the critically ill patients were men. The most common reported symptoms were shortness of breath 74\%, fever 71\%, and cough 66\%, myalgia 26\%. 39\% of these patients died\textsuperscript{10,11}. According to many reports and studies SARS-CoV2 virus that causes covid-19 is associated with diverse neurological tropism with complications. These complications can involve either central nervous system, peripheral nervous system, neuromuscular junctions and muscles. These manifestations could be nonspecific such as headache, delirium, myalgia or more specific disease or syndromes (such as stroke, encephalitis, seizures, peripheral neuropathy) which require immediate medical attention\textsuperscript{11,12}. So the aim of the present study is to review the possible mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 neuro-pathogenesis together with the most important neurological manifestations reported in patients with COVID-19.

**Epidemiology:**

Based on Johns Hopkins University statistics, the worldwide death-to-case ratio of SARS-CoV-2 is 2.1 percent (3,237,808 deaths for 154,788,122 cases) as of 6 May 2021\textsuperscript{13}. Two large cohort-based studies on neurological manifestations of COVID-19 are reported thus far. During a study that wiped out Wuhan, Mao and colleagues from China noted that among 214 severely affected patients, 78 (36.4\%) had neurological complications. CNS involvement was noted in 53 (24.8\%) patients. In total, 19 (8.9\%) patients had peripheral nervous system involvement. Rest, 23 (10.7\%) had skeletal muscle injury\textsuperscript{11}. Another study conducted in France, by Helms and associates recorded neurological manifestations in 58 severely ill patients. The median age of those patients was 63 years\textsuperscript{14}. Agitation was the foremost frequent neurological complication (69\%; 40/58)\textsuperscript{15}. The differences in percentage between the 2 studies could also be because the second study focused on more severely affected COVID-19 patients.

**Pathophysiology and Pathology:**

The pathophysiology of covid-19 is diverse. It can be categorized as follows:

**Direct viral injury**-

Mechanism of CNS damage associated with SARS-CoV-2 like other well recognized neuro invasive human viruses may invade CNS via trans-synaptic propagation through the olfactory epithelium or through systemic circulation entering the CNS using endothelial ACE-2 receptors expressed in cerebral blood vessels, or crossing the disrupted blood brain barrier (BBB) by systematically produced cytokines (Fig.-1).

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**Fig.-1:** Proposed CNS entry routes, mechanisms and their respective associated clinical pictures

Presentations and mechanisms of CNS disorders related to COVID-19 Marta Bodro, Yaroslau Compta, Raquel Sánchez-Valle, DOI: https://doi.org/10.1212/NXI.000000000000923
The SARS-CoV-2 reaches the CNS by different routes and may induce short term illness such as viral encephalitis like or endotheliitis. On the other hand it might persist in resident cells of CNS and be involved in long term neurological sequel in genetically or otherwise predisposed individuals.16

Beside this ACE2 receptors are highly concentrated in the substantia nigra and ventricles of the brain and also found in many neurons, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, middle temporal gyrus and posterior cingulate cortex.17 (Fig.-2)

Viruses can migrate by infecting sensory or motor nerve endings, achieving retrograde or anterograde neuronal transport through kinesins, dynein, and motor proteins.19

In a study by Ding et al14 SARS-CoV-1 virus was detected exclusively in the neurons of the brain. The SARS-CoV-1 virus has also been found in the CSF. A transgenic-mouse study found SARS-CoV-1 entry into the brain via the olfactory bulb15 and a similar pathway has been postulated in humans. The entry of SARS-CoV-2 to the olfactory bulb through the cribriform plate might explain smell impairment in COVID-19. SARS-CoV-2 could cause respiratory failure through affecting the brain stem as other coronaviruses have been found to invade the CNS.

**Blood circulation pathway:**

Viruses can enter the CNS without infecting neurons. Some viruses such as HIV infect leucocytes and may infiltrate the brain parenchyma. This Trojan horse mechanism is facilitated by the fact that the infected cells are naturally able to cross the blood brain barrier.20

Alternatively other viruses such as Japanese encephalitis virus are released in to the blood and increase the permeability of blood brain barrier through increased production of pro inflammatory cytokines that facilitates entry into the CNS.21

Inflammatory-mediated Injury and cytokine storm in brain: (Fig.-3)

**Neuronal pathway:**

Handful of Human corona viruses such as HCO-OC43,HCOV-229E, and SARS-CoV1 can be considered neurotropic viruses due to their capacity to invade the CNS via neuronal pathway.16,18

**Fig.-2:** Emerging data suggest that ACE2 receptors are expressed in multiple regions of the human and mouse brain, including the motor cortex, posterior cingulate cortex, ventricles, substantia nigra, olfactory bulb, middle temporal gyrus, ventrolateral medulla, nucleus of tractus solitarius, and dorsal motor nucleus of the vagus nerve (A) and on several key cell types that make up the central nervous system, including neurons, microglia, astrocytes, and oligodendrocytes (B).35-37 C, ACE2 receptors on a medullary neuron binding to the SPIKE protein on severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). [Ref: Zubair AS, et al. JAMA Neurol. 2020;77(8):1018–1027]

**Fig.-3:** Multiple Organ Failure because of “Cytokine Storm.” The cartoon representation of how “Cytokine Storm” generated during respiratory viral infections can damage not only its primary infection site (i.e., lungs) but also disrupt the homeostasis at the kidneys, heart, intestine, cerebral parenchyma, and blood vessels because of the ubiquitous presence of ACE2 receptors. In severe cases, this leads to Multiple Organ Failure and the eventual death of patients. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.565521
Cytokine storm could be a condition where the regulators of inflammatory immune responses, and thereby the production of cytokines, becomes out of proportion and out of place. This leads to the assembly of an uncontrolled amount of inflammatory molecules. Cytokine storm happens in multiple bacterial and viral infections and septic conditions, however, the term “Cytokine storm” only gained its popularity after being discussed within the context of Influenza disease in 2005\(^2\). This overreacting innate immunologic response creates matters of “Cytokine Storm” which generally implies that pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory cytokine levels are high within the serum of patients. These cytokine flares are usually destructive for all vital organs like the heart, kidneys, and lungs (Figure: 3). If such a scenario happens within the brain, this becomes extremely devastating and further paves the way for meningitis, encephalitis, meningoencephalitis, and overall neurodegenerative conditions \(^23\).

**Endotheliitis:**
The binding of SARS-CoV-2 to the ACE-2 receptor may cause or worsen high blood pressure, increase the risk of cerebral hemorrhage. Moreover the interaction of the SARS-CoV-2 with spike protein with ACE-2 receptors expressed in the capillary endothelium of brain blood vessels, may lead to injury of the blood brain barrier. This could explain the increase risk of ischemic stroke accompanied by perivascular inflammation suggestive of endothelitis. \(^24\)

**Hypoxia Mediated Injury and Encephalopathy**
(Fig.-4)
Diffuse alveolar and interstitial inflammatory edema in COVID-19 leads to impairment of alveolar gas exchange and central nervous system hypoxia. Anaerobic metabolism in the mitochondria of the brain cell results in acidosis, vasodilation, increase interstitial edema, obstruction of cerebral blood flow by microthrombus, increased intracranial pressure all contribute to coma and acute confusional state. \(^24\)

This encephalopathy is an independent predictor of mortality and associated with long term cognitive dysfunction. \(^25\)

The mechanisms underlying this encephalopathy are heterogeneous and multifactorial. They include: \(^26\)
- Direct brain injury
- Respiratory, heart, renal or liver failure (multi organ dysfunction, Fig.-3)
- Sepsis and septic shock
- Endocrine or electrolyte imbalance
- Effects of pharmacological agents

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Fig.-4: *Putative mechanisms underlying neurological consequences of COVID-19*

Edward J Needham\(^1,2\), Sherry H-Y Chou\(^3\), Alasdair J Coles, David K Menon *Neurological Implications of COVID-19 Infection,DOI:10.1007/s12028-020-00978-4*
4. Neurological manifestations:
As SARS-CoV-2 presents neurotropic properties, neurological disease manifestations may occur in both symptomatic and asymptomatic patients. In particular, various neurological manifestations have been described in COVID-19 patients, involving the central nervous system, peripheral nervous system, neuromuscular junctions and skeletal muscles. In COVID-19, a variety of neurological complications have been reported. It may be broadly classified into A) Acute Neurological complications and B) Post-Acute or long COVID-19 complications. The acute complications may be i) Non-specific neurological complications ii) Specific Neurological complications. The neurological complications of COVID-19 are either because of direct viral invasion, cytokine storm, or hypoxic metabolic changes, with the involvement of CNS or peripheral nervous system (PNS) or both as shown in Flowsheet 1.

Nonspecific Neurological complications:
The incidence of nonspecific neurological complications in patients with confirmed COVID-19 has been reported in several studies. These symptoms include headache, dizziness, delirium, altered mental state, depressed level of consciousness, loss of taste or altered taste sensation, loss of smell, myalgia, and fatigue. The spectrum of nonspecific neurological symptoms ranges from 30-40%. Neurological symptoms are more common in severe COVID-19 than moderate and mild forms, with more common involvement of Central nervous system than Peripheral one. A retrospective study by Mao and colleagues demonstrated about 24.8% experienced CNS symptoms, 8.9% PNS symptoms (smell, taste, vision), and musculoskeletal symptoms was observed in 10.7% of patients.

Headache and dizziness:
In many meta-analyses, headache and dizziness are the foremost initial neurological manifestations of COVID-19. This two are very common neurological symptoms such as meningitis, encephalitis and vasculitis. They can also occur in temporal association with a systemic viral infection. In these meta-analyses and systematic reviews, the incidence of headache was ranged from 10% to 15%. A recent European study had noted a distinct clinical profile of younger (median 37 years) COVID-19 patients. In 1,420 mild-to-moderate COVID-19 patients, headache (70%) was the foremost prevalent symptom. Wang and colleagues reported headache as the fourth common neurological symptom. Preexisting migraine may worsen due to COVID-19-related stress. Belvis during a recent communication opined that COVID-19-associated acute headaches will be due to systemic viral infection, primary cough headache, and tension-type headache. A headache appearing...
between the 7th and the 10th days of illness is associated with cytokine storm. 32

Several potential underlying pathophysiological mechanisms of headache were suggested. Notably, it could be due to a direct invasion of SARS-CoV-2 to the trigeminal nerve endings in the nasal cavity. The other proposed underlying mechanism is trigemino-vascular activation due to involvement of the endothelial cells of the vessel walls with high expression of angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE-2). A third proposed mechanism, the release of the pro-inflammatory mediators and cytokines during COVID-19 might stimulate the perivascular trigeminal nerve endings and cause headache. 27, 33

Delirium: The overall incidence of delirium across the clinical spectrum from mild to severely ill patients in COVID-19 in unknown. Delirium can be only presenting symptom of SARS-CoV-2 infection even in younger patients. 107 The incidence of delirium in severely ill COVID-19 patients on ICUs is reported to be as high as 84%. 36 Of which more than 2/3rd exhibit hyperactive delirium, despite receiving high sedation and neuroleptics. 36 Delirium in COVID-19 maybe a feature of primary encephalopathy due to the direct intracerebral viral infection. 37 Alternatively secondary encephalopathy may be associated with neuro inflammatory response to SARS-CoV-2 with immune mediated systemic response or independent complications of hypoxemia, sepsis, hypo-perfusion, severe metabolic derangement, and pharmacological side effects. 38, 39

Loss of the sense of taste and smell: It is still uncertain whether the taste and smell alterations are due to inflammation of the nasal tract or damage to the sensory neurons within the neural structure. A large number of cells within the nasal epithelium express the angiotensin-converting enzyme-2 (ACE-2) receptor which is the cell entry receptor for SARS-CoV-2. 40 However, Brann et.al noted an absence of ACE-2 receptors within the olfactory sensory neurons and suggested inflammation could also be the first cause for little impairment. 41 ACE-2 receptors are found to be expressed in olfactory sustentacular cells and other non-neuronal cells within the olfactory epithelium. 42 These cells maintain the integrity of the sensory neurons and damage to those may result in alterations in smell and taste. In an exceedingly study of patients hospitalized in Wuhan, the prevalence of hyposmia and anosmia was 5.6% and 5.1%, respectively, 43 while 19.4% of patients in Italy had some sort of chemosensory dysfunction. 42 Approximately 88.5% and 88.0% of patients in Germany reported olfactory and gustatory dysfunction, respectively. 44 Of patients without nasal congestion, 79.7% were hyposmic. Anosmia has also been noted in other respiratory infections, like influenza. 45 In COVID-19, anosmia is not usually associated with nasal swelling or rhinitis.

A meta-analysis by Wang and colleagues reported 35.7-85.6% olfactory and 33.3-88.8% gustatory dysfunctions in patients with COVID-19. 46 Study by Lechien and colleagues reported 86.6% olfactory disorder in which 11.8% of olfactory dysfunction preceded other symptoms. Olfactory dysfunctions were significantly associated with fever. They also reported in another large prospective study that females and younger patients were frequently report loss of smell. 47 An European study of 417 COVID-19 patients, conducted across four counties, found 85.6% and 88% to possess impairment of the sense of smell and taste, respectively. 44 At present, there are only some studies on this aspect from the Asia-Pacific region. As an example, Mao et al. 18 found 5.6% and 5.1% of their cohort to possess taste and smell impairment, respectively. 11

Other nonspecific neurological symptoms: Other common nonspecific neurological symptoms were asthenia (63%), myalgia (63%). A fewer number of patients reported a reduction in visual sense (n = 6), vertigo (n = 6), and tinnitus (n = 5). Fever and cough was reported only by 45% of patients. 48 It is uncertain whether these two manifestations were caused by an immediate effect of the infection on the system or because of other factors like stress, fear, or anxiety.

Specific Neurological complications: Stroke and Vascular Events: The cerebrovascular disease in COVID-19 is also because of high levels of inflammation and/or a hypercoagulable state. Raised serum interleukin and C-reactive protein concentration are reported, and coagulation abnormalities are increasingly noted with raised D-dimer concentration pointing to a poorer prognosis. 49 Li and associates, during a retrospective study, noted that found 5% to own acute ischemic stroke, 11 each of one patient had cerebral venous thrombosis and one with cerebral hemorrhage. The majorities of stroke patients were elderly and were affected by severe COVID-19. Comorbidities were common. 50 Beyrouti and associates, in an exceedingly report of six severely affected patients with large cerebral infarcts, noted elevated D-dimer levels (e>1000 ig/L), indicating a coagulopathy. 51 More specific viral mechanisms may additionally increase the risk of stroke.

Infection of the vascular endothelial cells and subsequent damage to vasculature may increase the
chance of ischemic and hemorrhagic infarcts. Many infections can increase the risk of stroke, often through systemic inflammation, thrombosis, or vasculitis. Helms et al. reported two cases of acute cerebral ischemic stroke and one of subacute cerebral ischemia. In a very retrospective cohort-based study from New York, USA, 0.9% had imaging-proven acute ischemia and most (65%) strokes were cryptogenic, possibly associated with an acquired hypercoagulability. A recent systematic review showed the incidence of acute Stroke in COVID-19 to be 0.9% to 2.7% with a mortality of 38%. Covid-19-associated coagulopathy and vascular endothelial dysfunction were plausible mechanisms. Patients were more likely to have hypertension and hypercoagulable status and stroke indicated a poor prognostic marker. In a retrospective analysis of 3218 COVID-19 patients admitted in a tertiary care hospital in New York city, Jain and colleagues demonstrated acute stroke was 1.1%. In addition the severity of acute ischemic stroke in Global COVID-19 stroke registry, Ntaios and colleagues found that patients with COVID-19 had higher odds of developing severe illness compared to patients without COVID-19. In patients with stroke, the SARS-CoV-2 virus couldn’t be demonstrated in CSF.
In another study by Shingo and colleagues\textsuperscript{66} observed a significantly greater frequency of large Vessel Occlusion (LVO) strokes in patients with COVID-19 than in patients without COVID-19\textsuperscript{60}. After further control for race and ethnicity in multivariate analysis, patients with COVID-19 had an LVO stroke risk 2.4 times that of patients without COVID-19. Study also highlighted that 62% of the large vessel strokes involved occlusion of the M1-M2 segments of the middle cerebral artery.\textsuperscript{60}

**Subarachnoid Hemorrhage:** Cases of acute subarachnoid hemorrhage have been described by Crean and colleagues and Al Saiegh and colleague\textsuperscript{61}.

**Massive Cerebral Hemorrhage:** Massive cerebral hemorrhage is defined as those lesions at least 3cm in largest dimension in cerebral hemisphere or 1.5cm if lesion is in brain stem\textsuperscript{62}. A case of massive cerebral hemorrhage in a 38 year old with COVID-19 has been reported\textsuperscript{63}. Intracranial hemorrhage was seen in about 0.5% of the patients with COVID-19 in large population studies\textsuperscript{11,64}. In critically ill patients COVID-19 has been associated with coagulopathies such as Disseminated intravascular coagulopathy (DIC), thrombocytopenia, elevated D-dimer, prolonged prothrombin time which can result in hemorrhage\textsuperscript{16}. Another potential mechanism is the effect of SARS-CoV-2 on ACE-2 which is the entry and binding site of the virus. ACE-2 is also a critical component of the counter regulatory pathway of the Renin Angiotensin System (RAS), which is one of the most important regulators of blood pressure. SARS-CoV-2 induced ACE-2 down regulation may lead to vasoconstriction and cerebral autoregulation dysfunction and subsequently blood pressure spikes which eventually can cause arterial wall rupture and hemorrhage\textsuperscript{55}.

**Cerebral Venous sinus Thrombosis:** Cerebral venous sinus thrombosis was reported in 13 patients out of 9 studies\textsuperscript{27}. Overall it was shown that venous and arterial thromboembolic complications are seen in 5-15% of the patients with severe COVID-19\textsuperscript{66}. Combination of low grade DIC and a localized cerebral thrombotic microangiopathy might be the cause\textsuperscript{66}. Besides, in patients with COVID-19 a transient rise of antiphospholipid antibodies is seen which may play a role in pathophysiology of thrombosis\textsuperscript{66}. Cytokine storm which suppresses the anticoagulant pathways and release of von Willebrand factor might lead to venous thrombosis in critically ill COVID-19 patients\textsuperscript{66}.

**Encephalopathy:** Acute encephalopathy is a nonspecific term defined as the acute impairment of brain function present clinically as alteration of level of consciousness\textsuperscript{67}. It is mostly triggered by infections, especially those caused by viruses\textsuperscript{68}. Encephalopathy may also present at the early stage of the disease or as a disease initial symptom. Many forms of COVID-19 associated encephalopathy has been documented as clinical features of SARS CoV-2 infection\textsuperscript{69}. A study by Scullen and colleagues reported out of 76 critically ill patients with COVID-19, 23 patients had evidence of neurological involvement with 74% with encephalopathy and 7% with acute necrotizing encephalopathy\textsuperscript{69}.

**Acute Hemorrhagic Necrotizing Encephalopathy:** Acute necrotizing encephalopathy is a rapidly progressive neurologic disorder that usually occurs subsequent to viral infections\textsuperscript{70}. A review by Poyiadji and colleagues reported a case of acute hemorrhagic necrotizing encephalopathy. The patient had CSF negative for bacterial and common viral infections with negative CSF SARS-CoV2 infection but RT-PCR was positive for Covid-19. Brain MRI showed presence of hyper intensity in bilateral temporal lobes and thalami\textsuperscript{71}.

**CNS Infections/Meningitis/Meningoencephalitis:** There are reports of encephalitis and meningitis in COVID-19. For example, the SARS-CoV-2 virus has been detected within the CSF of two patients with encephalitis\textsuperscript{72,73} raising the likelihood of direct cerebral effects of the virus. Acute meningoencephalitis or meningitis is another complication of coronaviruses in infants and children. A 3-year-old with meningitis within the setting of HCoV-OC43 serology could also be the primary case described within the literature; another case report of HCoV-OC43 encephalitis in an 11-month-old boy with immunodeficiency was published 36 years later\textsuperscript{74,75}. The sole series to this point describing features of coronavirus-associated encephalitis is from the Children’s Hospital of Chenzhou in Hunan province\textsuperscript{56}. Of 183 children under the age of 16 years admitted for acute encephalitis, 22(12%) had coronavirus infection detected by IgM serology\textsuperscript{76}. Eighty-two percent of those children were male, and also the mean age was 3 years. The course of the disease averaged 14.5 days, and everyone had a full recovery with no neurological sequelae.

Fever was present in 82%, headache in 46%, vomiting in 36%, and seizure in 23%. CSF pleocytosis was seen in 46%, normal CSF glucose in 82%, and elevated protein in 36%. Compared to children hospitalized with pulmonary coronavirus, children with encephalitis had lower peripheral blood lymphocyte and eosinophil counts, higher neutrophil counts, and better serum
levels of granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GMCSF). Children with encephalitis also had higher peripheral blood monocyte counts than healthy controls. When paired bio specimens were analyzed, levels of GM-CSF, IL-6, IL-8, and MCP-1 were higher within the CSF than within the serum of the encephalitic children 76.

**Seizure disorders:**
Seizures associated with COVID-19 can occur as a sequel of encephalopathy or because of severe illness associated with non-epileptic seizures without brain injury or metabolic or multiple drug effects used to treat critical illness 77. In either case seizures could be the initial presenting manifestation of COVID-19.

Seizures also can result in impairment of consciousness and are reported in other Corona viral infections. Additionally, subclinical seizures are reported in roughly10% of patients with critical illness 78, and patients with a primary seizure disorder are at higher risk of seizures and status epilepticus within the setting of severe infection 79. In either case seizures could be the initial presenting manifestation of COVID-19.

**Movement Disorders:**
There are few reports of movement disorders in COVID-19. Rabano Suarz P and his colleagues 82 reported 3 patients with generalized myoclonus with both positive and negative jerks, predominantly involved facial, sternocleidomastoid, trapezius and upper extremity muscles. These myoclonus occurred spontaneously and were extremely sensitive to multisensory stimuli (auditive, tactile) or voluntary movements. After immunotherapy all 3 patients improved at least partially 82.

**Parkinsonism / Parkinson’s disease:**
Parkinson’s disease is a common neurodegenerative disease that primarily aﬀects the basal ganglia system. Disruption of motor functions is one of its main clinical manifestations. Parkinson’s disease is often preceded by anosmia which is a common feature of SARS-CoV-2 infection 83. Immune activation of the olfactory system might eventually lead to the misfolding of Alpha-synuclein and the development of Parkinson’s disease 84. This mechanism is supported by post mortem studies, showing increased levels of TNF, IL1, and IL6 85. CSF sero-positivity for several strains of coronaviruses has been reported in Parkinson’s disease compared to age matched healthy controls 86.

**Central Nervous System Demyelination:**
Demyelinating disorders were found to be associated with covid-19 could also affect the central nervous system. MRI imaging identified new demyelinating lesions in the periventricular white matter, bulbo-medullary junction, cervical and dorsal spinal cord. 77

**Spinal cord involvement / Acute Myelitis:**
A case of acute myelitis in a 66 year old male patient with COVID-19 has been reported by Jhao and colleagues. He was SARS-CoV-2 positive with patchy changes in chest CT, developed weakness of both lower limbs with urinary and bowel incontinence, impaired sensations below level of thoracic-10. Upper limb examinations were normal. He had high level of inflammatory mediators such as CRP and IL-6 which indicate an over reactive inflammatory response mediated by hyper activation of the immune system. 88

A clinical case of acute transverse myelitis was reported from Wuhan, but an MRI and CSF finding weren’t available 88. The patient developed flaccid lower-extremity paralysis with loss of pinprick sensation and paresthesia below the thoracic-10 level and was successfully treated with steroids and intravenous immunoglobulin.

Post infectious etiology in terms of secondary immunogenic overreaction was proposed as the underlying mechanism in myelitis in COVID-19 75.

**Guillain-Barré Syndrome and Peripheral Nerve Disorders:**
In the study by Mao et al., 8.9% of patients had peripheral nervous system manifestations 11. The common manifestations include Guillain-Barré syndrome (GBS) and other related variants and loss of the sense of taste and smell. Reports of GBS in patients with COVID-19 are emerging. Currently, a complete of 27 reports on GBS and its variants in COVID-19 are reported. Pathogen-associated antibodies that attack peripheral nerves thanks to molecular mimicry are previously suggested as a disease mechanism in GBS. COVID-19-related GBS is especially seen within the elderly while typical GBS can
occur in all told age groups. None of the patients with post-COVID-19 GBS, tested positive for SARS-CoV-2 within the CSF points to an immune mechanism like inflammation secondary to a cytokine storm as a possible cause. A case series reported 5 cases of GBS in Italy after COVID-19 infection. In cases, patients presented with lower-extremity weakness and paresthesia. Patients developed symptoms a mean of 5 to 10 days after onset of viral symptoms. Electromyography studies showed 2 patients had AIDP and three had AMAN. Additional case reports describe a patient in Iran with AMAN and a patient from Italy with Miller-Fisher-variant GBS.

Miller Fisher syndrome is characterized by the acute onset of external opthalmoplegia, ataxia, and loss of tendon reflexes. Some variants of GBS like Miller Fisher syndrome and polyneuritis cranialis are reported in two COVID-19 patients from Italy; both recovered fully within 2 weeks. The pathogenesis of Miller Fisher syndrome and polyneuritis cranialis in SARS-CoV-2 infection may include immune mechanism or direct viral neuro-pathogenic effects. GBS with COVID-19 should be distinguished from critical illness neuropathy and myopathy, which appear later in the course of critical illness than GBS.

Myasthenic Like Syndromes:
While there are no current reports of de-novo cases of myasthenia caused by COVID-19, episodes of SARS-CoV-2 related exacerbation of pre-existing myasthenia are recently reported. Skeletal muscle injury and Rhabdomyolysis:
Muscle weakness, fatigue or myalgia, and muscle atrophy are among the foremost commonly reported symptoms by patients with COVID-19. For instance, the prevalence of myalgia among currently published reports may range from 21% to over 50% of affected patients. Moreover, myalgia tends to persist after cessation of viral shedding for a median time of 23 days. Skeletal muscle injury was recorded in 10.7% of the COVID-19 patients studied by Mao et al. Creatine kinase (CK), D-dimer, serum globulin, and lactate dehydrogenase levels were found to be elevated in patients with muscle injury. In another report, myalgia was noted in 34.8% of the studied COVID-19 patients. Consistently, some reports have described in patients with COVID-19 related myositis and rhabdomyolysis. These patients presented with elevated serum CK levels, yet as high serum levels of CRP, LDH, and ferritin. In addition to myositis and rhabdomyolysis, critical-illness myopathies, cachexia and sarcopenia have also been described in patients with COVID-19. Gefen and colleagues reported a case of 16 year old boy with covid19 and rhabdomyolysis. He presented with high fever, myalgia, and shortness of breath with dark colored urine. He had elevated liver enzymes with very high creatine kinase (CK-427656 U/L). Urine analysis revealed 11-25 RBC/HPF. With treatment patient improved and discharged at day 12 with creatine kinase level – 6526U/L.

COVID-19 associated psychiatric illness:
Early reports from the continued COVID-19 pandemic suggest psychiatric morbidities that have some resemblance to those reported within the early phase of the SARS outbreak. Patients were reported to experience fear, loneliness, anger, and general distress, which, primarily attributed to the necessity for quarantine; and infection symptoms like fever and cough. Moreover, adverse effects of treatments like insomnia from corticosteroids, and psychotic disorder from chloroquine, might exacerbate patients’ mental status. Additional reasons for psychiatric morbidities include experiencing adverse effects of treatment during hospitalization, uncertainty regarding prognosis, and undergoing ICU care. Therefore, infection with SARS-CoV-2 is taken into account as a traumatic experience; this enhances anxiety and substantial mental distress. Within the immediate aftermath of the SARS epidemic, various psychiatric morbidity was reported. These included depression, adjustment reactions, anxiety, agitation, psychotic symptoms, delirium, and even higher suicidality. Within the early recovery phase, up to 35% of SARS survivors showed signs of tension, depression, or both. Importantly, post-traumatic stress reactions were identified in SARS survivors within the early, 2-4 week period, following discharge. Furthermore, about 45% of the respondents therein outbreaks were diagnosed with a minimum of one psychiatric disorder during the study period. Psychiatric disorders like major depression, post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), and adjustment disorder were described during the 6 months after patients’ discharge.

COVID-19 associated neurological symptoms in pediatrics:
Studies have shown that children experience mild form of COVID-19 disease; rare neurological complications have been reported. Cases of dystonic leg stiffness, abnormal gaze with altered responsiveness has been reported in a child with COVID-19 by Dugue and colleagues. Another case with a child with COVID-19 with encephalitis has been reported. Neurological complications of COVID-19 seem to be higher in children with multi-system inflammatory syndrome (MIS-C).
Review of 187 children with MIS-C from 6 studies showed a high incidence of neurological complications in MIS-C patients with COVID-19. Neurological manifestations includes headache, meningism and mental state alteration. Interestingly most patient achieve full recovery with IV-Immunoglobulin or steroid treatment. Recent international multicenter study analyzed neuro images of 38 children with COVID-19 related neurological complications and found that most common neuro imaging abnormality was para infectious immune mediated. Acute disseminated encephalomyelitis like changes were described in 16 patients, myelitis in 8 patients, neural enhancement in 13 patients, splenial lesions in 7 patients, and myositis in 4 patients. Of which splenial lesions and myositis were predominant findings in patients with MIS-C. 18% of the patient presented with evidence of thromboembolic or vasculitic findings.

**Long COVID-19 Syndrome/Post-acute COVID-19 Syndrome:**

Long COVID-19 syndrome or post-acute COVID-19 syndrome is a term that has been used to describe the complications that extend beyond the duration of initial illness and after recovery of SARS-CoV-2 infection. Recently these complications have becoming well recognized status and suggested as post infectious entity. Post-acute COVID-19 syndrome has been defined by Ani Nalbandian and colleagues as persistence symptoms and/or delayed or long-term complications of SARS-CoV-2 complications beyond 4 weeks from the onset of the symptoms. (Fig.5).

Ani Nalbandian, Kartik Sehgal, Aakriti Gupta, Mahesh V. Madhavan, et.al Nature Medicine, https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-021-01283-z

Based on recent literature it is further divided into two categories 1) Subacute or ongoing systematic COVID-19, which includes symptoms and abnormalities present for 4-12 weeks beyond acute COVID-19 and 2) Chronic or post COVID-19 syndrome which include symptoms and abnormalities persisting or present beyond 12 week of the onset of the acute COVID-19 and not attributable to alternative diagnosis.

Early reports have now emerged on post-acute infectious consequences of COVID-19, with studies formed in United States, Europe, China reporting.
outcome for those who survive hospitalization for acute COVID-19. The findings from such studies include involvement of the pulmonary, hematologic, cardiovascular, renal, endocrine, gastrointestinal, hepatobiliary, dermatologic and multi system inflammatory syndrome (MIS-C) and neuropsychiatric.111 (Fig.-5)

These complications are mainly neurological symptoms which maybe a persistence of some symptoms or appearance of the new symptoms after the recovery.110 A report from the CDC indicated that 35% of the patients with mild COVID-19 did not return to baseline after recovery.114

Fatigue, changes in the concentration, loss of memory, foggy brain, sleep disorders, cough dyspnea were the main reported symptoms.166 Study by Tobacof and colleagues110 investigated post-acute COVID-19 symptoms that persist more than 6 weeks after the onset of acute symptoms found that most of the persistence symptoms along the patients were fatigue (92%), loss of concentration or memory (74%), weakness (68%), headache (65%), dizziness (64%).110

Another study by Carfi and colleagues found that 87.4% of COVID-19 patients reported the persistence of at least one symptom, with fatigue being most common reported. The Quality of life was affected in 44.1% of the patient.115

The pathophysiology of neuropsychiatric complication in post-acute COVID-19 is mechanistically diverse and entails immune dysregulation, inflammation, microvascular thrombosis, iatrogenic effect of medication and psycho-social impact of infection170. A chronic low level brain inflammation along with the reduced ability to respond to new antigens and accumulation of memory T-cells may play a role in persistent effect of COVID-19.111

Other proposed mechanism include dysfunctional lymphatic drainage from the circumventricular organs.116

Conclusions:

This review summarizes the available information of the effects of SARS-CoV-2 on the nervous system, with an emphasis on the etio-pathogenesis and clinical features. The neurological symptoms are common in SARS-CoV-2 infection, although from the large number of cases reported from all over the world daily, the true prevalence, underlying mechanism (infectious, autoimmune, secondary to systemic complications), and outcomes of COVID-19 neurological manifestations still remain a key knowledge gap. Many global initiatives have emerged to address these critical questions. However the rapid and parallel implementation of these initiatives in a pandemic has resulted in some discrepant data elements and definitions of neurological symptoms and signs. These factors threaten the scientific rigor and need to be addressed by combined global efforts. Coronaviruses belong to a large family with extensive animal reservoirs and potential to make a leap to humans. This is unlikely to be the last pandemic humanity has faced and future pandemics caused by pathogens including viruses with higher infectivity and mortality may be even more severe. We are to gain an advantage in this battle with scientific knowledge and devotions to protect and optimize global health and prosperity.

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Abbreviations:

COVID-19 corona virus disease19, SARS-CoV-2 severe acute respiratory syndrome-corona virus2; CNS central nervous system; PNS peripheral nervous system; CRP C-reactive protein; IL-6 interleukin-6; CK creatine kinase; PCR polymerase chain reaction; MRI magnetic resonance imaging; CT computed tomography; EEG electro encephalogram; BBB blood brain barrier; ICU intensive care unit; CSF cerebrospinal fluid; RNA ribonucleic acid; NMDAR N-methyl-D-aspartic acid receptor; ACE-2 angiotensin converting enzyme 2; AIDP acute infective demyelinating polyneuropathy; AMAN acute motor axonal neuropathy; HIV human immunodeficiency virus; RAS Renin angiotensin system; LDH lactic dehydrogenase

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