

BRAIN COMMUNICATIONS

REVIEW ARTICLE

Persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms after COVID-19: a systematic review and meta-analysis

James B. Badenoch,^{1,2,*} Emma R. Rengasamy,^{3,*} Cameron Watson,^{1,4} Katrin Jansen,⁵ Stuti Chakraborty,^{6,7} Ritika D. Sundaram,⁸ Danish Hafeez,⁹ Ella Burchill,¹⁰ Aman Saini,¹¹ Lucretia Thomas,¹² Benjamin Cross,¹³ Camille K. Hunt,¹⁴ Isabella Conti,¹⁵ Sylvia Ralovska,¹⁶ Zain Hussain,^{17,18} Matthew Butler,¹⁹ Thomas A. Pollak,²⁰ Ivan Koychev,^{21,22} Benedict D. Michael,^{23,24,25} Heinz Holling,⁵ Timothy R. Nicholson,²⁶ Jonathan P. Rogers^{27,28,†} and Alasdair G. Rooney^{29,†}

The nature and extent of persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms after COVID-19 are not established. To help inform mental health service planning in the pandemic recovery phase, we systematically determined the prevalence of neuropsychiatric symptoms in survivors of COVID-19. For this pre-registered systematic review and meta-analysis (PROSPERO ID CRD42021239750), we searched MEDLINE, EMBASE, CINAHL and PsycINFO to 20 February 2021, plus our own curated database. We included peer-reviewed studies reporting neuropsychiatric symptoms at post-acute or later time-points after COVID-19 infection and in control groups where available. For each study, a minimum of two authors extracted summary data. For each symptom, we calculated a pooled prevalence using generalized linear mixed models. Heterogeneity was measured with I^2 . Subgroup analyses were conducted for COVID-19 hospitalization, severity and duration of follow-up. From 2844 unique titles, we included 51 studies ($n = 18\,917$ patients). The mean duration of follow-up after COVID-19 was 77 days (range 14–182 days). Study quality was most commonly moderate. The most prevalent neuropsychiatric symptom was sleep disturbance [pooled prevalence = 27.4% (95% confidence interval 21.4–34.4%)], followed by fatigue [24.4% (17.5–32.9%)], objective cognitive impairment [20.2% (10.3–35.7%)], anxiety [19.1% (13.3–26.8%)] and post-traumatic stress [15.7% (9.9–24.1%)]. Only two studies reported symptoms in control groups, both reporting higher frequencies in COVID-19 survivors versus controls. Between-study heterogeneity was high ($I^2 = 79.6$ –98.6%). There was little or no evidence of differential symptom prevalence based on hospitalization status, severity or follow-up duration. Neuropsychiatric symptoms are common and persistent after recovery from COVID-19. The literature on longer-term consequences is still maturing but indicates a particularly high prevalence of insomnia, fatigue, cognitive impairment and anxiety disorders in the first 6 months after infection.

- 1 Barts Health NHS Trust, London, UK
- 2 Queen Mary University of London, London, UK
- 3 Department of Public Health and Primary Care, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
- 4 Preventive Neurology Unit, Wolfson Institute of Preventive Medicine, Queen Mary University of London, London, UK
- 5 Department of Psychology, University of Münster, Münster, Germany
- 6 Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Christian Medical College and Hospital, Vellore, India
- 7 Occupational Therapy Unit, Department of Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation, Christian Medical College and Hospital, Vellore, India
- 8 School of Medicine, University of Glasgow, Glasgow, UK
- 9 Homerton University Hospitals Foundation Trust, London, UK

Received May 31, 2021. Revised September 10, 2021. Accepted December 15, 2021. Advance access publication December 17, 2021

© The Author(s) 2021. Published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Guarantors of Brain.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted reuse, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

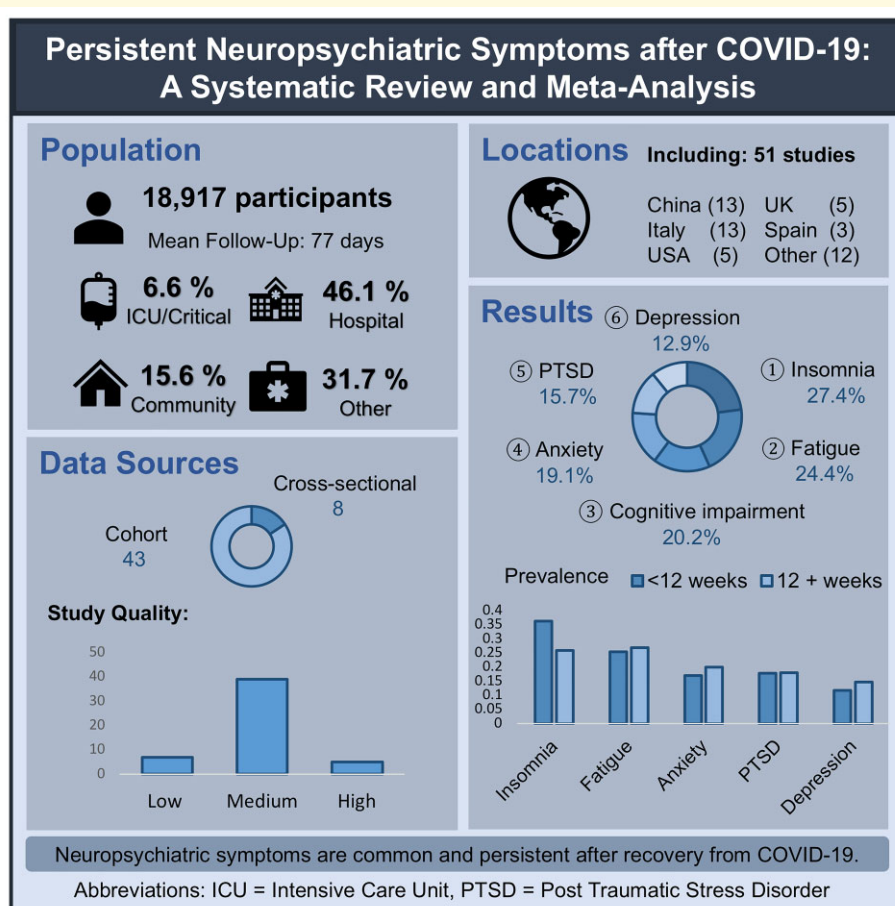
- 10 Faculty of Medicine and Life Sciences, King's College London, London, UK
- 11 Medical School, University College London, London, UK
- 12 College of Medical and Dental Sciences, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK
- 13 East Lancashire Hospitals NHS Trust, Lancashire, UK
- 14 Warwick Medical School, Coventry, UK
- 15 School of Medicine, Dentistry and Biomedical Sciences, Queen's University Belfast, Belfast, UK
- 16 Sofia University 'St Kliment Ohridski', bul, 'Tsar Osvoboditel' 15, Sofia, Bulgaria
- 17 Edinburgh Medical School, College of Medicine and Veterinary Medicine, University of Edinburgh, UK
- 18 School of Medicine, University of Dundee, Dundee, UK
- 19 Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London, UK
- 20 Department of Psychosis Studies, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London, UK
- 21 Department of Psychiatry, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK
- 22 Department of Psychological Medicine, Oxford University Hospitals NHS Foundation Trust, Oxford, UK
- 23 Department of Neurology, The Walton Centre NHS Foundation Trust, Liverpool, UK
- 24 National Institute for Health Research Health Protection Research Unit in Emerging and Zoonotic Infection, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK
- 25 Clinical Infection Microbiology and Immunology, Institute of Infection, Veterinary, and Zoological Science, University of Liverpool, Liverpool, UK
- 26 Section of Cognitive Neuropsychiatry, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, London, UK
- 27 Division of Psychiatry, University College London, London, UK
- 28 South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK
- 29 Centre for Clinical Brain Sciences, The University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh, UK
- * Joint first authors.
- † Joint last authors.

Correspondence to: Dr A. G. Rooney
 Centre for Clinical Brain Sciences
 Chancellor's Building
 Edinburgh BioQuarter
 49 Little France Crescent
 Edinburgh EH16 4SB, UK
 E-mail: ally.rooney@ed.ac.uk

Keywords: COVID-19; neuropsychiatry; Long COVID; post-acute sequelae of COVID-19; chronic COVID syndrome

Abbreviations: ICU = intensive care unit; NICE = National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence; PCR = polymerase chain reaction; PTSD = post-traumatic stress disorder; SARS-CoV-2 = severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; WHO = World Health Organisation.

Graphical Abstract



Introduction

Early in the COVID-19 pandemic, neuropsychiatric symptoms were identified as a prominent feature of coronavirus outbreaks.^{1,2} Analyses subsequently confirmed many neuropsychiatric manifestations of acute infection with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), with non-specific symptoms such as fatigue and headache, the most commonly studied and reported in the early literature.³ Studies assessing the prevalence of depression, anxiety and post-traumatic stress in acute COVID-19 suggested specific psychiatric morbidity. The degree of persistence of neuropsychiatric symptoms in the post-acute and chronic phases after infection, however, remained far from clear.

Persistent symptoms after COVID-19 illness have been called 'Long COVID'.⁴⁻⁷ The point of onset of Long COVID is imprecisely defined and has been proposed to range from 3 to 12 weeks after infection.⁸ Separately, National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence (NICE) guidelines from the UK conceptualize symptoms persisting between 4 and 12 weeks after infection as 'on-going symptomatic COVID-19', with 'post-COVID-19

syndrome' thereafter.⁹ However it is defined, persistent symptoms after COVID-19 are considered to be multi-system in nature with most likely several distinct pathological mechanisms.¹⁰⁻¹² These uncertainties of definitions, terminology and mechanism reflect the early stage of our knowledge about persisting symptoms after COVID-19, and in particular the lack of systematized descriptions of different components of the syndrome.

Emerging reports suggest a high frequency of neuropsychiatric symptoms after infection with COVID-19. These reports emphasize fatigue, cognitive dysfunction and sleep disorders, with increased rates of newly diagnosed mood or anxiety disorders, and dementia.¹³⁻¹⁵ Whether and how these neuropsychiatric sequelae are influenced by the severity of initial illness, or by the duration since COVID-19, is not known. The answers are however important, both for our theoretical understanding of the extent and scope of COVID-19 sequelae, and to ensure sufficient provision of clinical services for COVID-19 survivors.^{8,16,17} Previous analyses either did not focus specifically on these outcomes¹⁸ or have been superseded by the rapid growth in research.¹⁹

To further characterize the consequences of infection and help inform service planning, therefore, we aimed to estimate the prevalence of persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms in survivors of COVID-19. In secondary analyses, we aimed to identify predictors of symptom prevalence. We hypothesized that persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms would be common among survivors of COVID-19, particularly in those with a more severe form of the illness (i.e. those that have required hospitalization or intensive care), and would lessen in frequency as time passed after infection.

Materials and methods

We conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis based on a pre-registered protocol (PROSPERO ID CRD42021239750) reported according to PRISMA guidelines.²⁰ A detailed list of author contributions is provided (Supplementary Table 1).

Search strategy

We searched Ovid MEDLINE[®] and Epub Ahead of Print, In-Process and Other Non-Indexed Citations and Daily, EMBASE (via Ovid), APA PsycInfo (via OVID) and CINAHL (via EBSCO) from 1 January 2020 to 20 February 2021. We adapted a previously published, librarian-designed search strategy for post-acute, persisting or Long COVID.²¹ To maximize sensitivity, our search strategy (Supplementary Methods) did not specify neuropsychiatric terms. We further examined our weekly curated database of COVID-19 neurology and neuropsychiatry research²² for any papers that were missed by the search strategy and screened the reference lists of relevant systematic reviews published at the time of our primary search.^{18,19}

Eligibility criteria

We included any observational study reporting persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms in adults (aged 18+ years), with a history of polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-confirmed or clinically suspected SARS-CoV-2 infection. We defined the ‘persistence’ of symptoms differently for hospitalized and community-based samples. In hospitalized samples, we considered persistent symptoms as those present after hospital discharge, because discharged individuals are generally beyond the acute illness phase. In community-based samples, which lacked a discharge date, we considered persistent symptoms as those still present at least 4 weeks after the onset of symptoms or a positive PCR test.

We adopted a definition of ‘neuropsychiatric’ symptoms proposed by patient-led research in this area.¹⁵ We studied: affective symptoms (specifically anxiety and panic attacks, depression and mania); hallucinations; sleep disturbance; objectively reported cognitive impairment (i.e. through standardized cognitive tests); subjective cognitive impairment (such as the patient report of ‘brain fog’ or other lay terms); sensorimotor symptoms (such as paraesthesia, numbness or

Box 1 Neuropsychiatric symptoms recorded in this review

Anxiety
Depression
Mania
Sensorimotor*
Dizziness/vertigo
Sleep changes
Objectively measured cognitive dysfunction
Subjectively reported cognitive dysfunction
Headache
Reduced taste
Reduced smell
Speech or language difficulty
Hallucinations
Fatigue
Panic
Post-traumatic stress disorder/symptoms
*Paraesthesia, numbness or weakness of specific body parts.

weakness of specific body parts); dizziness and vertigo; headache; changes in speech or language and changes in taste or smell. We added fatigue, which in our experience is commonly encountered in Long COVID clinics, and post-traumatic stress disorder or symptoms (PTSD/PTSS), which are frequently reported after COVID-19 (Box 1).

We excluded studies which did not report original data; where patients were not infected (or presumed infected) with SARS-CoV-2; had fewer than 10 COVID-19 patients; reported no post-discharge data (hospitalized samples) or no time-points longer than 4 weeks post-diagnosis (community samples); did not report any of the neuropsychiatric symptoms listed above; were not in the English language; were preclinical (animal/laboratory-based); or had not been peer-reviewed. In addition and considering our main aim, studies were only eligible if their design permitted, in our opinion, a reasonably generalizable estimation of point prevalence to the wider population. On this basis, for example, we excluded studies in which participants were eligible solely because of predetermined characteristics (e.g. the presence of neurological symptoms), had been discharged to ongoing inpatient rehabilitation for persisting symptoms, or were primarily drawn from statistically enriched samples such as support groups designed for people with persisting symptoms or those drawn from samples exclusively with a specific pre-existing condition. Senior authors (A.G.R./J.P.R.) discussed and agreed decisions about eligibility taken on this basis (see also the Results section).

Screening and data extraction

Screening of titles, abstracts and the full text was conducted by a minimum of two authors each blinded to the other’s ratings using Rayyan (www.rayyan.ai). Lead authors (A.G.R./J.P.R./J.B.B.) resolved assessment discrepancies. For each eligible study, data were extracted to a customized spreadsheet by one reviewer, then checked for accuracy by a second reviewer.

We aimed to extract all usable data for primary and secondary analyses. For instance, if a study reported data on the total population plus a breakdown of the same data for individual subgroups, we extracted each group (total

population, Subgroup 1, Subgroup 2, etc.) separately to the database. In the primary analysis, we only included data from the total population of each study. In order to qualify for a subgroup analysis, we took the conservative position that a study had to report extractable data on a completely homogeneous subgroup (e.g. we would not label studies reporting a combined 95% community and 5% hospitalized patients as ‘community’ samples; such a study would instead be excluded from the ‘hospital versus community’ secondary analysis). Where a study reported multiple time-points, we included only the longest follow-up time-point. Where data were presented in a way which did not meet our purposes, we contacted study investigators to request clarification. The quality of each study was graded using the Newcastle–Ottawa Scale by a minimum of two authors working independently. A full list of data fields and outcomes extracted is presented in [Supplementary Table 2](#).

Outcomes

The primary outcome was the pooled prevalence of each neuropsychiatric symptom, using estimates of point prevalence where available. We recorded symptoms however defined or measured by study investigators, including on the basis of patient self-report, clinical interview, case-note review or rating scale. Where rating scales were used to quantify symptoms, we noted the specific scale and threshold applied. Where symptoms were characterized as a dichotomous variable (present/absent), including for patients scoring above a rating scale threshold, we recorded the relative frequency (‘ n affected in study’ divided by ‘ n infected with SARS-CoV-2’). Where symptoms were reported as continuous or ordinal variables (e.g. using rating scales) and where such data were available for both COVID-19 patients and a control group, we intended to calculate and then pool the standardized mean differences. Studies reporting continuous or ordinal variables in COVID-19 populations only were summarized narratively in a table.

Statistical analysis

Primary analysis

We conducted the primary analysis on every neuropsychiatric symptom reported by three or more studies. We pooled results based on random-effects meta-analysis, using the metafor package²³ in R version 4.0.2 to calculate generalized linear mixed models for each prevalence outcome,^{24,25} before using the inverse variance method with the Freeman–Tukey double arcsine transformation as a comparative sensitivity analysis.²⁶ We assessed between-study heterogeneity using the I^2 statistic. For interpretation, we reported forest plots with 95% confidence intervals (CIs).

Around one-fifth of eligible studies reported multiple types of cognitive dysfunction. *Post hoc* we separated cognitive dysfunction into ‘objective’ and ‘subjective’ dysfunction. We defined objective cognitive dysfunction as revealed by a cognitive assessment screening tool (e.g. Mini-Mental State

Examination, Montreal Cognitive Assessment or similar). All other forms of cognitive dysfunction (such as patient self-report of memory problems, ‘brain fog’ or similar) were classed as subjective. A small number of studies reported >1 symptom of subjective cognitive dysfunction (for example, self-reported ‘memory disorder’ and ‘concentration disorder’)²⁷ and in such cases, we included the subjective cognitive symptom with the highest prevalence.

Secondary analyses

A priori we intended to conduct secondary analyses examining for differences in neuropsychiatric symptom prevalence between (i) COVID-19 patients and control groups, (ii) COVID-19 patients whose diagnosis was PCR-confirmed and those in whom it was not, (iii) hospitalized and community samples and (iv) different time-points following a positive test for SARS-CoV-2 (specifying <12 weeks versus 12 or more weeks to align with a key time-point in NICE guidance for post-COVID-19 syndrome.⁹ Following data extraction, we discovered that analyses (i) and (ii) could not be run owing to a dearth of studies with control groups or non-PCR-confirmed cases, and the wording of (iv) was too restrictive (excluding, for instance, the many studies measuring the duration of symptoms from the date of hospital discharge, rather than from the date of a positive test).

We added two *post hoc* quantitative secondary analyses to reflect the balance of the literature. The first of these was a further evaluation of disease severity. We had found that some studies reported intensive care unit (ICU) versus non-ICU admission, whereas others used the World Health Organisation (WHO) severity scale.²⁸ We grouped these studies as follows: ICU admission OR reported as having WHO ‘critical’ or ‘severe’ COVID-19, versus hospitalized patients declared as not admitted to ICU. The second analysis was a broadening of the scope of ‘duration’ to include the 19 studies anchoring on discharge (<12 versus 12+ weeks). We did not combine studies anchoring on the date of PCR testing with those using the date of hospital discharge owing to the wide variability in the duration of COVID-19 hospital admissions. However, *post hoc* we did combine studies using the date of PCR testing with those using the date of onset of symptoms, which we reasoned were often likely to be close together in time. In a *post hoc* qualitative analysis, we inspected scatterplots of reported symptom prevalence against time (separately for: dichotomized <12/12+ weeks, mean duration and median duration of follow-up for all symptoms).

We required a minimum of two studies in each subgroup being compared and a minimum of five eligible studies overall per analysis. Every secondary analysis conducted on each symptom is listed in [Supplementary Table 3](#).

Data availability

Our full R code can be freely accessed through a repository: https://github.com/katrija/longcovid/blob/main/longcovid_metacode.R

Results

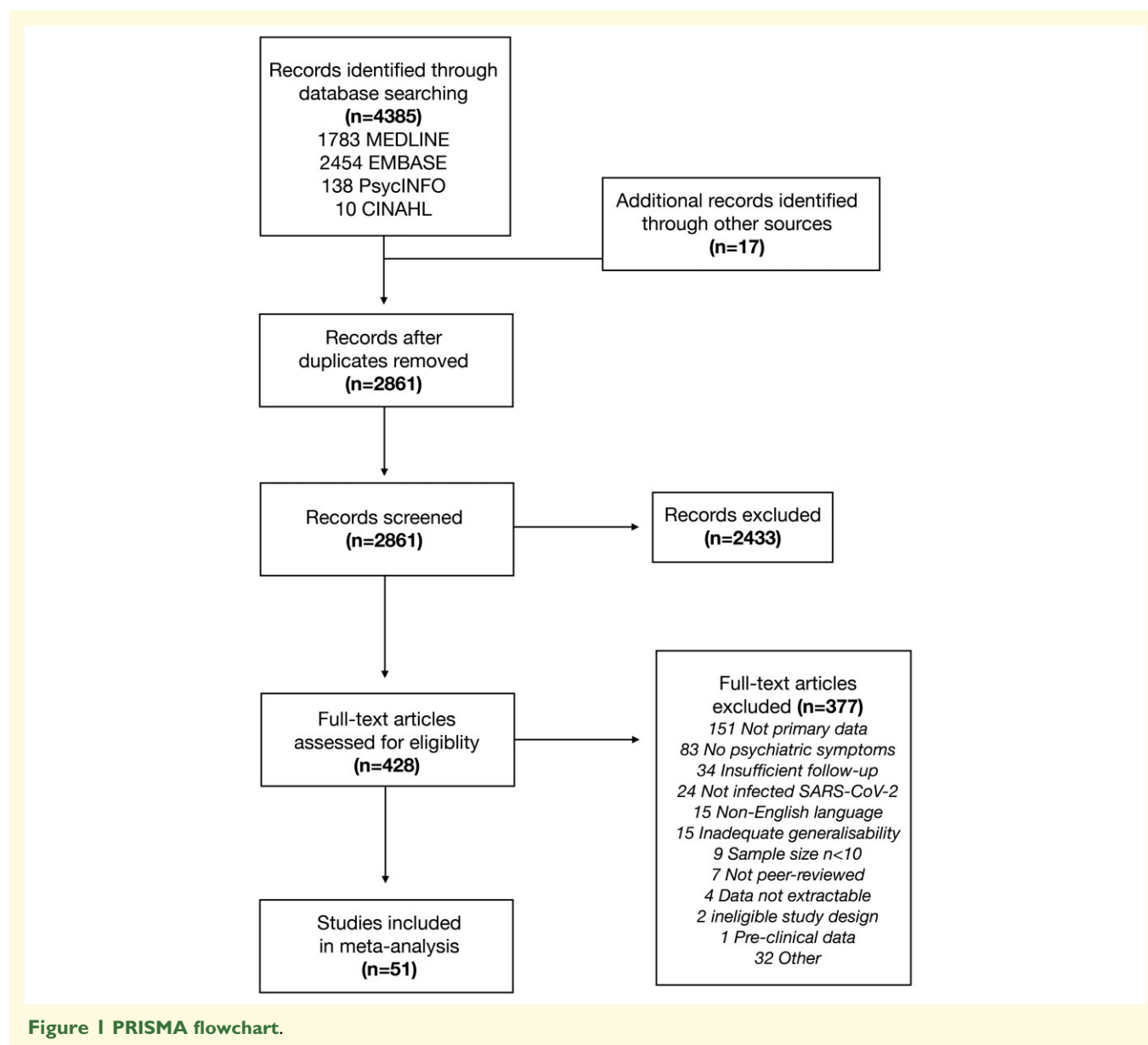
Study selection

The search yielded 4385 studies. After de-duplication, we screened the titles and abstracts of 2861 studies, the full text of 428 studies and included 51 eligible studies^{27,29–78} (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 4). Brief reasons for excluding studies are listed in Supplementary Table 5. We contacted the authors of seven studies which did not report extricable prevalence data; three replied with usable data.

Population and study characteristics

The 51 included studies reported data on a total population $n = 18\,917$ individuals (sample size range 24–5879; median

$n = 134$), $n = 15\,786$ (83.4%) of whom had COVID-19 confirmed by PCR. The mean age reported was 50.9 years (SD = 9.4). The largest study ($n = 5879$, 31.1% of entire sample) did not specify sex; of the remainder $n = 6825$ (33.2%) of patients was specified male. Most patients ($n = 9970$, 52.8%) were post-hospital discharge, $n = 2957$ (15.7%) had been treated solely in the community and in $n = 5962$ (31.5%), the location of care was unstated. A metric of COVID-19 severity was reported by half (26/51) of studies, but the number of severe cases declared was often small: only $n = 1245/18\,917$ (6.6%) of patients in the full sample were specified as having had ICU admission or WHO critical/severe COVID-19. Ethnicity was reported for only $n = 2378/18\,917$ (12.6%) patients, in whom $n = 1172$ (49.3% of specified) were White. Most studies originated in China (13 studies) followed by Italy (six studies), the USA (five



studies) and the UK (five studies) (Supplementary Fig. S4 and Table 1).

Most studies (43/51) had a cohort design. Only 2 out of 51 reported symptoms in a control group. The mean duration of follow-up was 77 days (range 14–182 days). Most studies (30/51) examined patients at <12 weeks with 19 out of 51 examining a time-point at 12+ weeks. There was little consensus on the anchor point for calculating follow-up duration: 23 studies reported duration since hospital discharge, 16 studies reported duration post-symptom onset or post-PCR testing, 11 used another definition (e.g. date of virological clearance) and 2 did not specify the anchor point. Study quality assessed using the Newcastle–Ottawa Scale was low in 7 studies, medium in 39 and high in 5 (Supplementary Fig. S1 and Table S6).

Prevalence of neuropsychiatric symptoms

The most frequent neuropsychiatric symptom was sleep disturbance [pooled prevalence = 27.4% (95% CI 21.4–34.4%)], followed by fatigue [24.4% (17.5–32.9%)], objectively measured cognitive impairment [20.2% (10.3–35.7%)], anxiety [19.1% (13.3–26.8%)] and post-traumatic stress [15.7% (9.9–24.1%)] (Figs 2–4 and Table 2). More classically ‘neurological’ symptoms such as dysgeusia, headache, sensorimotor disturbance and dizziness/vertigo were less frequent but present in non-negligible amounts (pooled prevalence <10% for each). Speech and language symptoms, panic attacks, mania and hallucinations could not be meta-analysed due to the absence of studies. Heterogeneity was high ($I^2 = 79.6$ – 98.6% , Table 2). The results of the sensitivity analysis were in general similar to the results of the main analysis in terms of the point estimate of prevalence, confidence interval boundaries and heterogeneity (Supplementary Table 7).

Only two studies reported symptoms in control groups, both drawn from healthy populations and neither formally matched to the respective COVID-19 groups.^{36,51} Each reported higher frequencies of sleep disorder, fatigue, dizziness, depression, anxiety and/or psychosis in COVID-19 survivors compared to controls (Supplementary Table 8).

Secondary analyses

With the exception of anxiety, which was reported more frequently in non-hospitalized samples, there was no evidence of a differential prevalence of any symptom among hospitalized versus non-hospitalized samples (eight symptoms eligible to be tested), nor among patients admitted to ICU/having WHO ‘critical’ or ‘severe’ illness versus those not requiring ICU (six symptoms). Similarly, there was no evidence of difference among patients surveyed <12 weeks versus 12+ weeks post-discharge (eight symptoms eligible to be tested), nor the same time-points post-symptom onset/PCR test (four symptoms, Fig. 5 and Table 3).

Table 1 Characteristics of included studies

Population characteristics (n = # of patients)		
Sample size (range, median)	n	%
	24–5879, 134	–
COVID-19 confirmed by PCR	15 786/18 917	83.4
Age (mean, SD)	50.9, 9.4	–
Sex		
Male	6825	33.2
Female	6213	32.8
Unstated	5879	31.1
Location of COVID-19 treatment		
Hospital	9970	52.7
Community	2957	15.7
Mixed or unstated	5990	31.5
COVID-19 severity		
ICU/WHO critical-sev	1245	6.6
Hospitalized unspecified	8725	46.1
Community only	2957	15.6
Mixed or unstated	5990	31.7
Ethnicity		
White	1172	49.3
Asian	210	8.8
Black	182	7.7
Mixed/multiple	8	0.3
Hispanic	272	11.4
Other (Arab or other)	534	22.5
Unstated	16 539	87.4
Study characteristics (n = # of studies)		
Study design	n	%
Cohort	43/51	84.3
Cross-sectional	8/51	15.7
Has control group	3/51	5.9
Follow-up duration (range, mean)	14–182, 77	–
COVID-19 time-point		
<12 weeks	30/51	58.8
12+ weeks	19/51	37.3
Unstated	2/51	3.9
Definition of follow-up duration		
Post-discharge	23/51	45.1
Post-PCR and post-symptom onset	16/51	31.4
Other	11/51	21.6
Unspecified	2/51	3.9

Scatterplots of symptom prevalence reported by individual studies, plotted against duration since COVID-19, are presented in Figs S2 and S3.

Discussion

In this systematic review and meta-analysis, we found that neuropsychiatric symptoms are common and persistent after COVID-19. Sleep disorders and fatigue appear to be especially prevalent and may be experienced by as many as one in four patients. Anxiety and post-traumatic stress symptoms also seem particularly common, and cognitive impairment is often objectively detectable. Sensorimotor disturbances and dizziness or vertigo are less common but present in a non-negligible proportion of patients. The prevalence of these symptoms appears to be relatively stable across different points in the first 6 months, between

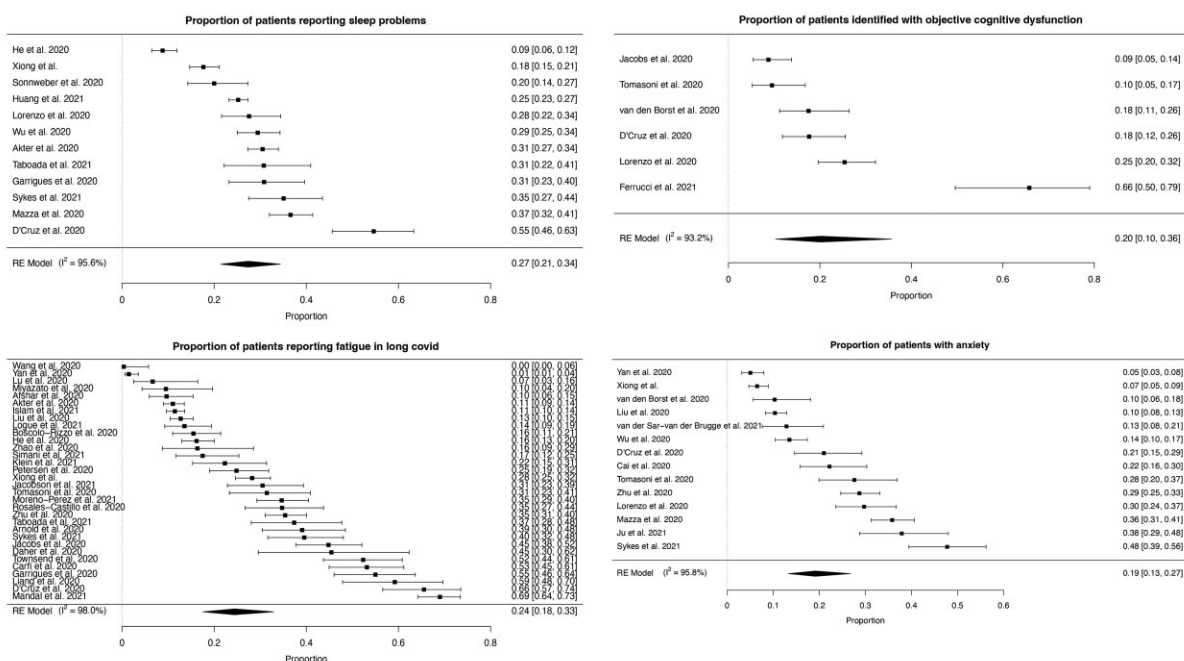


Figure 2 Forest plots for individual neuropsychiatric symptoms (1–4). Sleep problems, fatigue, objective cognitive dysfunction and anxiety. Symptoms are plotted individually. The point prevalence for individual studies is presented with 95% confidence intervals on the right-hand side of each plot. The pooled prevalence and 95% confidence interval for that symptom is shown at the bottom of each plot.

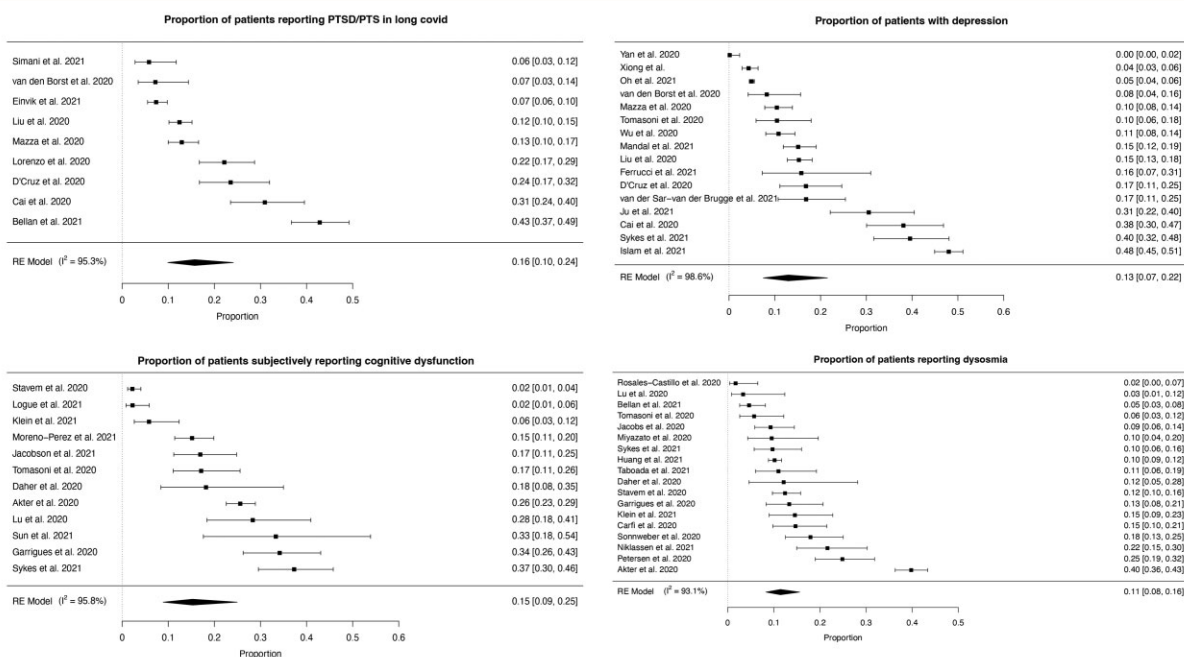


Figure 3 Forest plots for individual neuropsychiatric symptoms (5–8). PTSD/PTS, subjective cognitive dysfunction, depression and dysomnia.

hospitalized and community samples and among hospitalized patients regardless of COVID-19 severity. There are knowledge gaps in the neuropsychiatric consequences of COVID-19 in patients who did not require hospital

admission, the impact of ethnicity and the course and frequency of symptoms in the longer term.

These findings should be interpreted cautiously. Three in five studies in this review reported symptoms within

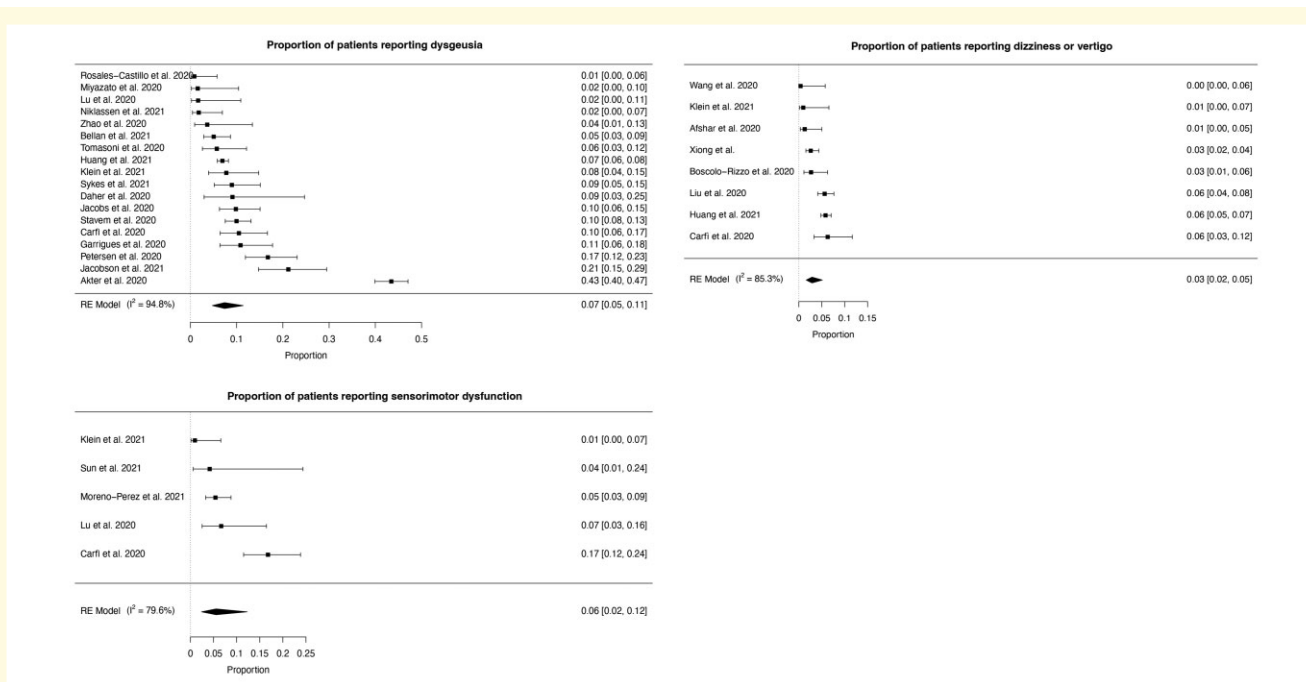


Figure 4 Forest plots for individual neuropsychiatric symptoms (9–11). Dysgeusia, sensorimotor dysfunction and dizziness or vertigo.

Table 2 Pooled prevalence of individual neuropsychiatric symptoms

Symptom	N studies	N subjects	Pooled prevalence	95% CI	I^2 (%)
Fatigue	32	7501	0.244	0.175, 0.329	98.0
Dysosmia	18	4738	0.114	0.082, 0.156	93.1
Dysgeusia	18	4675	0.074	0.047, 0.114	94.8
Depression	16	10 402	0.129	0.075, 0.215	98.6
Headache	15	4023	0.066	0.036, 0.12	95.2
Anxiety	14	3716	0.191	0.133, 0.268	95.8
Sleep problems	12	4991	0.274	0.214, 0.344	95.6
Subj. cog. dysf.	12	2336	0.153	0.089, 0.25	95.8
PTSD/PTSS	9	2545	0.157	0.099, 0.241	95.3
Dizziness	8	3665	0.029	0.016, 0.051	85.3
Obj. cog. dysf.	6	727	0.202	0.103, 0.357	93.2
Sensorimotor	5	607	0.055	0.024, 0.123	79.6

Symptoms are ranked according to the number of studies reporting them.

the NICE guideline-suggested threshold of 12 weeks for the post-acute phase.⁹ Relatively few eligible community-based or ICU-admitted samples reported our outcomes of interest, making rounded conclusions about the impact of COVID-19 severity difficult to draw. If, in due course, significant symptomatic differences emerge from data comparing hospitalized and non-hospitalized patients, then there could be a case that the term ‘Long COVID’ is best reserved for patients who were not hospitalized—or that a subspecifier could be useful to denote the severity of initial respiratory and/or other symptoms. Non-hospitalized patients were in the minority in this review (with only 15.7% confirmed as such), reflecting the early research focus on hospitalized patients. However, non-hospitalized patients were the majority (91.6%) in a recent large patient-led

survey. In our view, patient perspectives on terminology for this initially patient-driven disorder should be considered equally alongside those of clinicians and researchers.¹⁵

Most studies tended to report outcomes based on patient self-report rather than structured clinical assessments. Meanwhile, the lack of active control groups meant that the specific contribution of COVID-19 to such neuropsychiatric symptoms remains unknown. It is possible that the breadth and frequency of these symptoms represent the natural trajectory of recovery from a serious viral illness. The extent to which neuropsychiatric symptoms were new-onset, versus relapse of an existing condition, was not reported. We did not capture data on comorbidities to elucidate if certain premorbid conditions could make people more susceptible to symptom persistence. Nor did we formally appraise

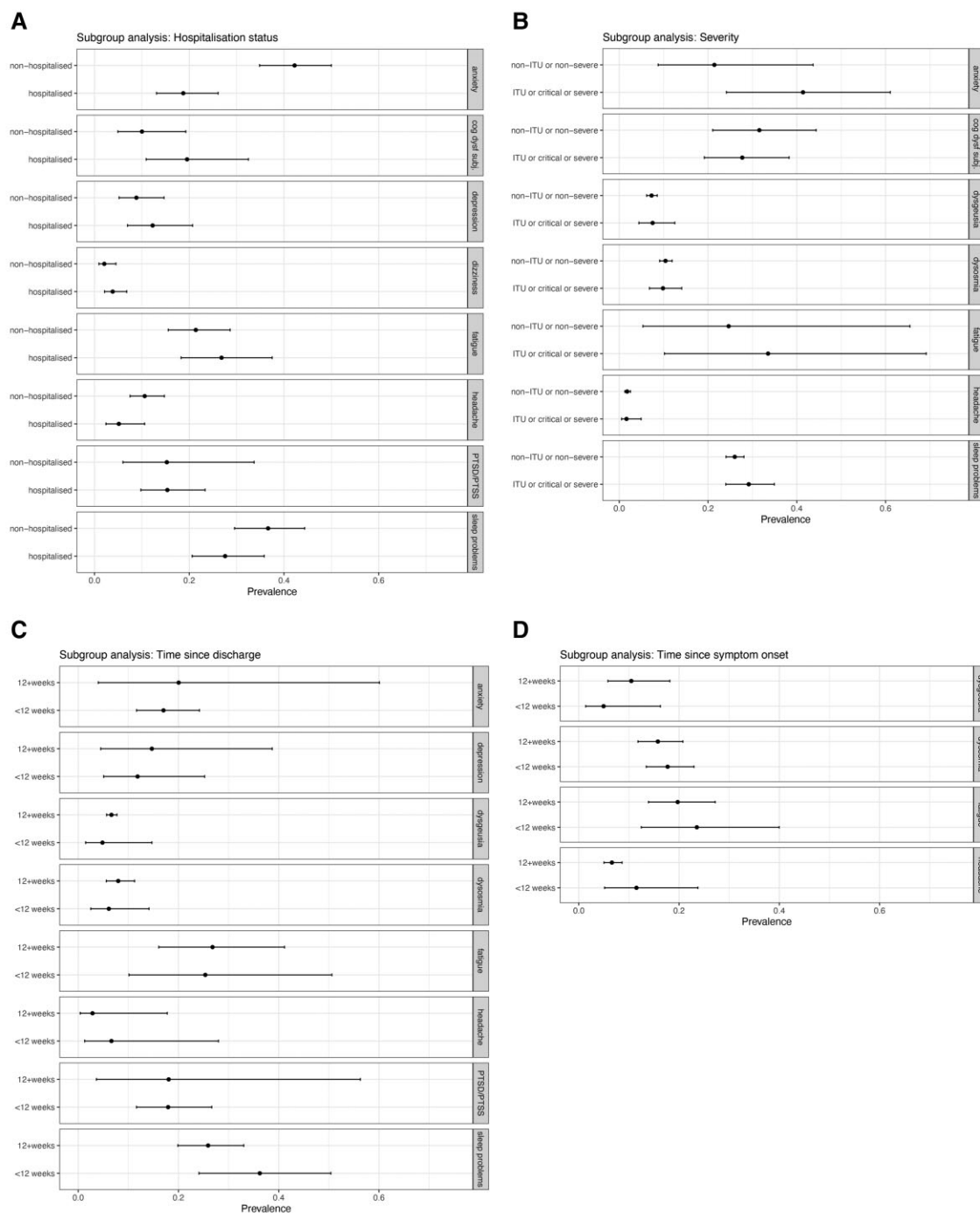


Figure 5 Pooled symptom prevalence by subgroups. Four subgroup analyses are shown (major panels **A–D**). Within each analysis, symptoms which were eligible for analysis are plotted individually (identified in the right-hand tab on each minor panel). **(A)** Comparison of pooled prevalence for studies reporting non-hospitalized versus hospitalized samples. **(B)** Comparison of studies reporting patients who had non-ITU/non-severe versus ITU/critical/severe COVID-19. **(C)** Comparison of studies reporting duration of follow-up shorter than 12 weeks post-hospital discharge, versus those reporting longer follow-up. **(D)** Comparison of studies reporting duration of follow-up shorter than 12 weeks since onset of COVID-19 symptoms, versus those reporting longer follow-up.

the eligibility of 15 studies in which there was no English-language article available.

Our pooled data, however, imply frequent neuropsychiatric morbidity among COVID-19 survivors in the post-acute

phase. These observations echo a recent large study associating COVID-19 with an increased risk of neuropsychiatric clinical diagnoses in the first 6 months, including first-onset insomnia, mood, anxiety, or psychotic disorders and dementia.¹⁴ The

Table 3 Pooled symptom prevalence by subgroups

Subgroup analysis	Symptom	Subgroup	N studies	N subjects	Pooled prevalence	95% CI
Hospitalization status	Anxiety	Hospitalized	14	3555	0.187	0.131, 0.261
		Non-hospitalized	2	161	0.422	0.348, 0.500
	Depression	Hospitalized	14	3419	0.123	0.070, 0.207
		Non-hospitalized	2	560	0.088	0.052, 0.147
	Sleep problems	Hospitalized	10	4594	0.276	0.206, 0.358
		Non-hospitalized	2	161	0.366	0.296, 0.444
	Subj cog dysf.	Hospitalized	8	1659	0.195	0.109, 0.325
		Non-hospitalized	2	199	0.100	0.049, 0.193
	Dizziness	Hospitalized	5	3220	0.038	0.021, 0.068
		Non-hospitalized	2	290	0.021	0.009, 0.045
	Headache	Hospitalized	10	3049	0.051	0.024, 0.106
		Non-hospitalized	2	283	0.106	0.075, 0.148
	Fatigue	Hospitalized	23	5112	0.268	0.183, 0.375
		Non-hospitalized	3	386	0.214	0.156, 0.286
Severity	PTSD/PTSS	Hospitalized	9	1926	0.154	0.098, 0.233
		Non-hospitalized	3	619	0.153	0.060, 0.337
	Anxiety	ITU/critical/severe	3	220	0.414	0.241, 0.611
		Non-ITU	3	443	0.214	0.088, 0.437
	Sleep problems	ITU/critical/severe	4	264	0.292	0.24, 0.349
		Non-ITU	3	1814	0.260	0.241, 0.281
	Subj cog dysf.	ITU/critical/severe	3	83	0.277	0.192, 0.383
		Non-ITU	3	271	0.316	0.211, 0.444
	Headache	ITU/critical/severe	2	184	0.016	0.005, 0.049
		Non-ITU	2	1680	0.018	0.013, 0.025
	Fatigue	ITU/critical/severe	6	383	0.335	0.102, 0.692
		Non-ITU	5	625	0.246	0.053, 0.655
	Dysgeusia	ITU/critical/severe	3	173	0.075	0.044, 0.125
		Non-ITU	3	1814	0.073	0.062, 0.086
Time since discharge	Dysosmia	ITU/critical/severe	4	264	0.098	0.068, 0.141
		Non-ITU	3	1814	0.104	0.091, 0.119
	Anxiety	<12 weeks	10	2537	0.170	0.116, 0.242
		12+ weeks	2	672	0.200	0.040, 0.601
	Depression	<12 weeks	9	2304	0.118	0.051, 0.252
		12+ weeks	3	710	0.147	0.045, 0.387
	Sleep problems	<12 weeks	3	674	0.362	0.241, 0.504
		12+ weeks	4	2496	0.259	0.199, 0.330
	Headache	<12 weeks	4	624	0.066	0.013, 0.280
		12+ weeks	4	2086	0.029	0.004, 0.178
	Fatigue	<12 weeks	11	2817	0.254	0.101, 0.506
		12+ weeks	7	1074	0.268	0.161, 0.412
	Dysgeusia	<12 weeks	3	334	0.048	0.015, 0.147
		12+ weeks	5	2220	0.066	0.057, 0.077
Time since symptom onset	Dysosmia	<12 weeks	3	334	0.061	0.025, 0.141
		12+ weeks	5	2256	0.080	0.056, 0.112
	PTSD/PTSS	<12 weeks	5	1202	0.179	0.116, 0.266
		12+ weeks	2	358	0.180	0.036, 0.563
	Headache	<12 weeks	4	571	0.115	0.051, 0.238
		12+ weeks	3	742	0.066	0.050, 0.086
	Fatigue	<12 weeks	5	1015	0.235	0.125, 0.400
		12+ weeks	5	634	0.197	0.139, 0.272
	Dysgeusia	<12 weeks	2	254	0.049	0.014, 0.163
		12+ weeks	5	908	0.105	0.058, 0.182
	Dysosmia	<12 weeks	2	254	0.177	0.135, 0.230
		12+ weeks	5	935	0.158	0.118, 0.208

same study found a higher risk of such disorders after COVID-19 compared to other respiratory tract illnesses, indicating that at least some of the apparent neuropsychiatric burden may be COVID-19-specific. Notably, the trajectory of accrual of new psychiatric diagnoses flattened only slightly in the first 6 months, supporting the hypothesis that neuropsychiatric symptoms persist within this timeframe. Our data

also broadly support the aforementioned patient-led survey, of 3762 mainly non-hospitalized COVID-19 patients,¹⁵ in which fatigue, self-reported cognitive dysfunction and other neuropsychiatric symptoms (e.g. dizziness and sensorimotor symptoms) were highly prevalent. Owing to the self-selected nature of that study population—which was recruited mostly via Long COVID support groups and similar organizations

—their data would be ineligible to contribute to generalizable estimates of community prevalence in the current meta-analysis; a characteristic which illustrates the difficulty of finding generalizable community-based samples.⁷⁹

The extent to which neuropsychiatric symptom burden impacts upon clinical services remains to be seen, although structuring Long COVID services to be proactive in case identification and treatment seems sensible. It remains possible that the most common symptoms, such as (in descending order of frequency) insomnia, fatigue, cognitive impairment, anxiety, post-traumatic stress and depression may respond to combinations of pharmacological, rehabilitative (e.g. physical and/or occupational therapy), psychological and other treatments.^{80–84} In some instances, persisting symptoms after COVID-19 may reflect initial direct tissue injury mechanisms (e.g. inflammation) overlapping with other or additional mechanisms (e.g. cognitive) as can be seen in other complex disorders arising after an illness like chronic pain. Multidisciplinary approaches are often appropriate for such disorders,⁸⁵ including combinations of neurology, neurorehabilitation, neuropsychiatry, physiotherapy, occupational therapy and psychological input. Such approaches should be incorporated into the planning for 'Long COVID' services.

Our results identify areas for further research. Controlled studies are required to separate out the neuropsychiatric consequences of viral illness in general from those potentially specific to COVID-19 in particular. The impact of ethnicity and COVID-19 severity remains to be clarified. Classical epidemiological approaches may be required to generate representative community-based samples, and longer-term follow-up is required. Emerging prospective, longitudinal and multicentre studies will probe the characteristics and aetiology of persistent neuropsychiatric symptoms in patients with COVID-19.⁸⁶ Future trials meanwhile may examine treatments known to be effective in treating neuropsychiatric symptoms in other populations.

Conclusion

Neuropsychiatric symptoms are common and persistent after recovery from COVID-19. Sleep problems and fatigue predominate and appear to affect roughly one-quarter of survivors. Cognitive impairment, anxiety, post-traumatic symptoms and depression are also common in the first 6 months. There is as yet little evidence that these persisting symptoms relate to the severity of, or duration since, initial infection. Although more research is needed, these early signals suggest a high burden of neuropsychiatric symptoms among COVID-19 survivors. Multidisciplinary services should be resourced accordingly in the post-COVID era.

Funding

This research is supported by the COVID-19 Clinical Neuroscience Study (COVID-CNS), a Medical Research

Council/UK Research and Innovation funded grant: MR/V03605X/1. J.P.R. is supported by the Wellcome Trust (102186/B/13/Z). I.K. is funded through the National Institute for Health Research (Oxford Health Biomedical Research Facility, Development and Skills Enhancement Award) and the Medical Research Council (Dementias Platform UK and Deep and Frequent Phenotyping study project grants). H.H. is funded by the German Research Foundation (Grant: HO 1286/16-1). The funders played no role in the design, analysis or decision to publish.

Competing interests

J.P.R. held one advisory meeting with representatives from Promentis Pharmaceuticals regarding drug development. No payment was made. J.P.R. received payment from Alberta Psychiatric Association for lecturing at the Annual Scientific Conference. I.K. receives a contribution towards his salary from the Medical Research Council (Dementias Platform UK grant), NIHR Oxford Health Biomedical Research Centre, NIHR Development and Skills Enhancement award. I.K. has received the following grants: Medical Research Council Deep and Frequent Phenotyping study project grant, Oxford Global Challenges Research Fund project grant, MRC-NIH Partnership in Neurodegeneration award. I.K. has received consulting fees from Mantrah Ltd, Sharp Tx Ltd, Cognitivity Ltd. He has served as an advisory board member and has stock options in Mantrah Ltd and Sharp Tx Ltd.

Contributors

J.B.B., T.R.N., J.P.R., M.B. and A.G.R. conceived the review. J.B.B. and E.R.R. led the project. J.B.B. and A.G.R. ran the searches. All authors bar C.W., K.J., H.H., M.B., T.A.P., I.K., B.D.M. and T.R.N. extracted data. C.W. and K.J. did the statistical analysis. A.G.R., J.B.B., K.J., S.C. and E.B. wrote the first draft of the report. All authors had the opportunity to comment and all approved the final version. H.H., M.B., T.A.P., I.K., B.D.M., T.R.N., J.P.R. and A.G.R. provided executive oversight and/or direct supervision. J.B.B. and A.G.R. verified the data. All authors had full access to all the data in the study and had final responsibility for the decision to submit for publication.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Brain Communications* online.

References

1. Wu Y, Xu X, Chen Z, et al. Nervous system involvement after infection with COVID-19 and other coronaviruses. *Brain Behav Immun.* 2020;87:18–22.

2. Rogers JP, Chesney E, Oliver D, *et al.* Psychiatric and neuropsychiatric presentations associated with severe coronavirus infections: A systematic review and meta-analysis with comparison to the COVID-19 pandemic. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2020;7:611–627.
3. Rogers JP, Watson C, Badenoch J, *et al.* Neurology and neuropsychiatry of COVID-19: A systematic review and meta-analysis of the early literature reveals frequent CNS manifestations and key emerging narratives. *J Neurol Neurosurg Psychiatry*. 2021;92(9):932–941.
4. Lokugamage A, Taylor S, Rayner C. Patients' experiences of "long-covid" are missing from the NHS narrative. *BMJ Opinion Blog*. 2020. Accessed 23 April 2021. <https://blogs.bmj.com/bmj/2020/07/10/patients-experiences-of-longcovid-are-missing-from-the-nhs-narrative/>
5. Alwan NA, Attree E, Blair J-M, *et al.* From doctors as patients: A manifesto for tackling persisting symptoms of Covid-19. *BMJ*. 2020;370:m3565.
6. Perego E, Callard F, Stras L, *et al.* Why we need to keep using the patient made term "Long Covid". *BMJ Opinion Blog*. 2020. Accessed 23 April 2021. <https://blogs.bmj.com/bmj/2020/10/01/why-we-need-to-keep-using-the-patient-made-term-long-covid/>
7. Callard F, Perego E. How and why patients made Long Covid. *Soc Sci Med*. 2021;268:113426.
8. Greenhalgh T, Knight M, A'Court C, Buxton M., Husain L. Management of post-acute Covid-19 in primary care. *BMJ* 2020; 370:m3026.
9. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. COVID-19 rapid guideline: Managing the long-term effects of COVID-19 NICE guideline [NG188]. 2020. Accessed 23 April 2021. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/ng188>
10. Puntmann VO, Carerj ML, Wieters I, *et al.* Outcomes of cardiovascular magnetic resonance imaging in patients recently recovered from coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). *JAMA Cardiol*. 2020;5:1265.
11. Pan F, Ye T, Sun P, *et al.* Time course of lung changes at chest CT during recovery from coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19). *Radiology*. 2020;295:715–721.
12. Galván Casas G, Català A, Carretero Hernández G, *et al.* Classification of the cutaneous manifestations of COVID-19: A rapid prospective nationwide consensus study in Spain with 375 cases. *Br J Dermatol*. 2020;183:71–77.
13. Pilotto A, Cristillo V, Piccinelli SC, *et al.* Long-term neurological manifestations of COVID-19: Prevalence and predictive factors. *MedRxiv*. 2021.
14. Taquet M, Geddes JR, Husain M, Luciano S, Harrison PJ. 6-month neurological and psychiatric outcomes in 236 379 survivors of COVID-19: A retrospective cohort study using electronic health records. *Lancet Psychiatry*. 2021;8(5):416–427.
15. Davis HE, Assaf GS, McCorkell L, *et al.* Characterizing Long COVID in an international cohort: 7 months of symptoms and their impact. *EClinicalMedicine*. 2020;38:101019.
16. NHS England. Long COVID patients to get help at more than 60 clinics. 2020. Accessed 23 April 2021. <https://www.england.nhs.uk/2020/12/long-covid-patients-to-get-help-at-more-than-60-clinics/>
17. Nabavi N. Long Covid: How to define it and how to manage it. *BMJ*. 2020;370:m3489.
18. Lopez-Leon S, Wegman-Ostrosky T, Perelman C, *et al.* More than 50 long-term effects of COVID-19: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Res Sq*. 2021;11(1):16144.
19. Michelen M, Manoharan L, Elkheir N, *et al.* Characterising long-term Covid-19: A rapid living systematic review. *MedRxiv*. 2020.
20. Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, *et al.* The PRISMA 2020 statement: An updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ*. 2021;372:n71.
21. Ludvigsson JF. Case report and systematic review suggest that children may experience similar long-term effects to adults after clinical COVID-19. *Acta Paediatr*. 2021;110:914–921.
22. Butler M, Watson C, Rooney AG, *et al.* The neurology and neuropsychiatry of COVID-19. *JNNP Blog*. 2020. Accessed 23 April 2021. <https://blogs.bmj.com/jnnp/2020/05/01/the-neurology-and-neuropsychiatry-of-covid-19/>
23. Viechtbauer W. Conducting meta-analyses in R with the metafor Package. *J Stat Softw*. 2010;36:1–48.
24. Hamza TH, van Houwelingen HC, Stijnen T. The binomial distribution of meta-analysis was preferred to model within-study variability. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 2008;61:41–51.
25. Stijnen T, Hamza TH, Özdemir P. Random effects meta-analysis of event outcome in the framework of the generalized linear mixed model with applications in sparse data. *Stat Med*. 2010;29:3046–3067.
26. Freeman MF, Tukey JW. Transformations related to the angular and the square root. *Ann Math Stat*. 1950;21:607–611.
27. Klein H, Asseo K, Karni N, *et al.* Onset, duration and unresolved symptoms, including smell and taste changes, in mild COVID-19 infection: A cohort study in Israeli patients. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2021;27(5):769–774.
28. WHO Headquarters (HQ). COVID-19 Clinical management: Living guidance. 2021. Accessed 27 April 2021. <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-2019-nCoV-clinical-2021-1>
29. De Lorenzo R, Conte C, Lanzani C, *et al.* Residual clinical damage after COVID-19: A retrospective and prospective observational cohort study. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15:e0239570.
30. Ju Y, Chen W, Liu J, *et al.* Effects of centralized isolation vs. home isolation on psychological distress in patients with COVID-19. *J Psychosom Res*. 2021;143:110365.
31. Simani L, Ramezani M, Darazam IA, *et al.* Prevalence and correlates of chronic fatigue syndrome and post-traumatic stress disorder after the outbreak of the COVID-19. *J Neurovirol*. 2021;27:154–159.
32. Niklassen AS, Drafi J, Huart C, *et al.* COVID-19: Recovery from chemosensory dysfunction. A multicentre study on smell and taste. *Laryngoscope*. 2021;131:1095–1100.
33. Tomasoni D, Bai F, Castoldi R, *et al.* Anxiety and depression symptoms after virological clearance of COVID-19: A cross-sectional study in Milan, Italy. *J Med Virol*. 2021;93:1175–1179.
34. Taboada M, Moreno E, Cariñena A, *et al.* Quality of life, functional status, and persistent symptoms after intensive care of COVID-19 patients. *Br J Anaesth*. 2021;126:e110–e113.
35. Bellan M, Soddu D, Balbo PE, *et al.* Respiratory and psychophysical sequelae among patients with COVID-19 four months after hospital discharge. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2021;4:e2036142.
36. Oh TK, Park HY, Song I-A. Risk of psychological sequelae among coronavirus disease-2019 survivors: A nationwide cohort study in South Korea. *Depress Anxiety*. 2021;38:247–254.
37. Miyazato Y, Morioka S, Tsuzuki S, *et al.* Prolonged and late-onset symptoms of coronavirus disease 2019. *Open Forum Infect Dis*. 2020;7:ofaa507.
38. Liang L, Yang B, Jiang N, *et al.* Three-month follow-up study of survivors of coronavirus disease 2019 after discharge. *J Korean Med Sci*. 2020;35:e418.
39. Sonnweber T, Sahanic S, Pizzini A, *et al.* Cardiopulmonary recovery after COVID-19—An observational prospective multi-center trial. *Eur Respir J*. 2020;57(4):2003481.
40. Garrigues E, Janvier P, Kherabi Y, *et al.* Post-discharge persistent symptoms and health-related quality of life after hospitalization for COVID-19. *J Infect*. 2020;81:e4–e6.
41. Afshar Y, Gaw SL, Flaherman VJ, *et al.* Clinical presentation of coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in pregnant and recently pregnant people. *Obstet Gynecol*. 2020;136:1117–1125.
42. He S, Tian J, Li X, *et al.* Positive RT-PCR test results in 420 patients recovered from COVID-19 in Wuhan: An observational study. *Front Pharmacol*. 2020;11:549117.
43. Akter F, Mannan A, Mehedi HMH, *et al.* Clinical characteristics and short term outcomes after recovery from COVID-19 in patients with and without diabetes in Bangladesh. *Diabetes Metab Syndr*. 2020;14(6):2031–2038.

44. Zhao Y-M, Shang Y-M, Song W-B., et al. Follow-up study of the pulmonary function and related physiological characteristics of COVID-19 survivors three months after recovery. *EClinicalMedicine*. 2020;25:100463.
45. D'Cruz RF, Waller MD, Perrin F, et al. Chest radiography is a poor predictor of respiratory symptoms and functional impairment in survivors of severe COVID-19 pneumonia. *ERJ Open Res*. 2021; 7:00655-2020.
46. Sun B, Tang N, Peluso MJ, et al. Characterization and biomarker analyses of post-COVID-19 complications and neurological manifestations. *Cells*. 2021;10:386.
47. Islam MS, Ferdous MZ, Islam US, et al. Treatment, persistent symptoms, and depression in people infected with COVID-19 in Bangladesh. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2021;18:1453.
48. Huang C, Huang L, Wang Y, et al. 6-month consequences of COVID-19 in patients discharged from hospital: A cohort study. *Lancet*. 2021;397:220-232.
49. Moreno-Pérez O, Merino E, Leon-Ramirez J-M, et al. Post-acute COVID-19 syndrome. Incidence and risk factors: A Mediterranean cohort study. *J Infect*. 2021;82:378-383.
50. Halpin SJ, McIvor C, Whyatt G, et al. Postdischarge symptoms and rehabilitation needs in survivors of COVID-19 infection: A cross-sectional evaluation. *J Med Virol*. 2021;93:1013-1022.
51. Xiong Q, Xu M, Li J, et al. Clinical sequelae of COVID-19 survivors in Wuhan, China: A single-centre longitudinal study. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2021;27:89-95.
52. Rosales-Castillo A, García de los Ríos C, Mediavilla García JD. Persistencia de manifestaciones clínicas tras la infección COVID-19: Importancia del seguimiento. *Med Clínica* 2021;156: 35-36.
53. Jacobs LG, Gourni Paleoudis E, Lesky-Di Bari D, et al. Persistence of symptoms and quality of life at 35 days after hospitalization for COVID-19 infection. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15:e0243882.
54. Daher A, Balfanz P, Cornelissen C, et al. Follow up of patients with severe coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): Pulmonary and extrapulmonary disease sequelae. *Respir Med*. 2020;174: 106197.
55. Arnold DT, Hamilton FW, Milne A, et al. Patient outcomes after hospitalisation with COVID-19 and implications for follow-up: results from a prospective UK cohort. *Thorax*. 2021;76: 399-401.
56. Stavem K, Ghanima W, Olsen MK, Gilboe HM, Einvik G. Persistent symptoms 1.5-6 months after COVID-19 in non-hospitalised subjects: A population-based cohort study. *Thorax*. 2021;76:405-407.
57. Petersen MS, Kristiansen MF, Hanusson KD, et al. Long COVID in the Faroe Islands: A longitudinal study among nonhospitalized patients. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;11: e4058-e4063.
58. Boscolo-Rizzo P, Borsetto D, Fabbri C, et al. Evolution of altered sense of smell or taste in patients with mildly symptomatic COVID-19. *JAMA Otolaryngol Neck Surg*. 2020;146:729.
59. van den Borst B, Peters JB, Brink M, et al. Comprehensive health assessment three months after recovery from acute COVID-19. *Clin Infect Dis* 2021;73: e1089-e1098.
60. Carvalho-Schneider C, Laurent E, Lemaignan A, et al. Follow-up of adults with noncritical COVID-19 two months after symptom onset. *Clin Microbiol Infect*. 2021;27:258-263.
61. Mandal S, Barnett J, Brill SE, et al. 'Long-COVID': A cross-sectional study of persisting symptoms, biomarker and imaging abnormalities following hospitalisation for COVID-19. *Thorax*. 2021;76:396-398.
62. Mazza MG, De Lorenzo R, Conte C, et al. Anxiety and depression in COVID-19 survivors: Role of inflammatory and clinical predictors. *Brain Behav Immun*. 2020;89:594-600.
63. Pellaud C, Grandmaison G, Hoa Phong PHT, et al. Characteristics, comorbidities, 30-day outcome and in-hospital mortality of patients hospitalised with COVID-19 in a Swiss area—a retrospective cohort study. *Swiss Med Wkly*. 2020;150:w20314.
64. Lu Y, Li X, Geng D, et al. Cerebral micro-structural changes in COVID-19 patients – an MRI-based 3-month follow-up study. *EClinicalMedicine*. 2020;25:100484.
65. Zhu S, Gao Q, Yang L, et al. Prevalence and risk factors of disability and anxiety in a retrospective cohort of 432 survivors of Coronavirus Disease-2019 (Covid-19) from China. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15:e0243883.
66. Jacobson KB, Rao M, Bonilla H, et al. Patients with uncomplicated COVID-19 have long-term persistent symptoms and functional impairment similar to patients with severe COVID-19: A cautionary tale during a global pandemic. *Clin Infect Dis*. 2021;73(3): e826-e829.
67. Sykes DL, Holdsworth L, Jawad N, et al. Post-COVID-19 symptom burden: What is Long-COVID and how should we manage it? *Lung*. 2021;199(2):113-119.
68. van der Sar-van der Brugge S, Talman S, Boonman-de Winter LJM, et al. Pulmonary function and health-related quality of life after COVID-19 pneumonia. *Respir Med*. 2021;176:106272.
69. Townsend L, Dyer AH, Jones K, et al. Persistent fatigue following SARS-CoV-2 infection is common and independent of severity of initial infection. *PLoS ONE*. 2020;15:e0240784.
70. Wu C, Hu X, Song J, et al. Mental health status and related influencing factors of COVID-19 survivors in Wuhan, China. *Clin Transl Med*. 2020;10:e52.
71. Yan N, Wang W, Gao Y, et al. Medium term follow-up of 337 patients with coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) in a Fangcang Shelter Hospital in Wuhan, China. *Front Med*. 2020;7:373.
72. Cai X, Hu X, Ekumi IO, et al. Psychological distress and its correlates among COVID-19 survivors during early convalescence across age groups. *Am J Geriatr Psychiatry* 2020;28(10):1030-1039.
73. Liu D, Baumeister RF, Veilleux JC, et al. Risk factors associated with mental illness in hospital discharged patients infected with COVID-19 in Wuhan, China. *Psychiatry Res*. 2020;292:113297.
74. Wang X, Xu H, Jiang H, et al. Clinical features and outcomes of discharged coronavirus disease 2019 patients: A prospective cohort study. *QJM*. 2020;113:657-665.
75. Carfi A, Bernabei R, Landi F. Persistent symptoms in patients after acute COVID-19. *JAMA*. 2020;324:603-605.
76. Einvik G, Dammen T, Ghanima W, Heir T, Stavem K. Prevalence and risk factors for post-traumatic stress in hospitalized and non-hospitalized COVID-19 patients. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2021;18:2079.
77. Logue JK, Franko NM, McCulloch DJ, et al. Sequelae in adults at 6 months after COVID-19 infection. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2021;4: e210830.
78. Ferrucci R, Dini M, Groppo E, et al. Long-lasting cognitive abnormalities after COVID-19. *Brain Sci*. 2021;11:235.
79. Munn Z, Moola S, Lisy K, Riitano D, Tufanaru C. Methodological guidance for systematic reviews of observational epidemiological studies reporting prevalence and cumulative incidence data. *Int J Evid Based Healthc*. 2015;13:147-153.
80. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Depression in adults: Recognition and management. 2009. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/cg90>
81. National Institute for Health and Care Excellence. Generalised anxiety disorder and panic disorder in adults: management. 2011. Accessed 28 April 2021. <https://www.nice.org.uk/guidance/cg113>
82. Montgomery P, Dennis J. Cognitive behavioural interventions for sleep problems in adults aged 60+. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev*. 2003(1):CD003161.
83. Bisson JI, Roberts NP, Andrew M, Cooper R, Lewis C. Psychological therapies for chronic post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2013;2013(12): CD003388.
84. Heine M, van de Port I, Rietberg MB, van Wegen EEH, Kwakkel G. Exercise therapy for fatigue in multiple sclerosis. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev* 2015;(9):CD009956.

85. Williams AC de C, Eccleston C, Morley S. Psychological therapies for the management of chronic pain (excluding headache) in adults. *Cochrane Database Syst Rev.* 2012;11(11): CD007407.
86. Evans R, McAuley H, Harrison E, *et al.* Physical, cognitive, and mental health impacts of COVID-19 following hospitalisation—a multi-centre prospective cohort study. *Lancet Respir Med.* 2021; 9:1275–1287