

The Clinical Observation of Inflammation Theory for Depression: The Initiative of the Formosa Long COVID Multicenter Study (FOCuS)

Shu-Tsen Liu^{1,*}, Sheng-Che Lin^{2,*}, Jane Pei-Chen Chang^{3,4,5}, Kai-Jie Yang^{3,5}, Che-Sheng Chu⁶, Chia-Chun Yang⁷, Chih-Sung Liang⁸, Ching-Fang Sun⁹, Shao-Cheng Wang^{10,11}, Senthil Kumaran Satyanarayanan³, Kuan-Pin Su^{2,3,5}

¹Division of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry & Division of Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, China Medical University Children's Hospital, Taichung, ²An-Nan Hospital, China Medical University, Tainan, ³Mind-Body Interface Laboratory (MBI-Lab), China Medical University Hospital, ⁴Division of Child Psychiatry, Department of Psychiatry, China Medical University Hospital, ⁵Graduate Institute of Biomedical Sciences, College of Medicine, China Medical University, Taichung, ⁶Department of Psychiatry, Kaohsiung Veterans General Hospital, Kaohsiung, ⁷Department of Psychiatry, Taoyuan Psychiatric Center, Taoyuan City, ⁸Department of Psychiatry, Beitou Branch, Tri-Service General Hospital, National Defense Medical Center, Taipei, Taiwan, ⁹Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral Medicine, Virginia Tech Carilion Clinic School of Medicine, Roanoke, VA, USA, ¹⁰Department of Psychiatry, Taoyuan General Hospital, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Taoyuan, Taiwan, ¹¹Department of Mental Health, Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore, MD, USA

There is growing evidence that the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) is associated with increased risks of psychiatric sequelae. Depression, anxiety, cognitive impairments, sleep disturbance, and fatigue during and after the acute phase of COVID-19 are prevalent, long-lasting, and exerting negative consequences on well-being and imposing a huge burden on healthcare systems and society. This current review presented timely updates of clinical research findings, particularly focusing on the pathogenetic mechanisms underlying the neuropsychiatric sequelae, and identified potential key targets for developing effective treatment strategies for long COVID. In addition, we introduced the Formosa Long COVID Multicenter Study (FOCuS), which aims to apply the inflammation theory to the pathogenesis and the psychosocial and nutrition treatments of post-COVID depression and anxiety.

KEY WORDS: COVID-19; Depression; Neuropsychiatric sequelae; Inflammation; Long COVID; Post-acute COVID-19 syndrome.

INTRODUCTION

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), caused by infection with severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus-2 (SARS-CoV-2), is a global health crisis. As the COVID pandemic progresses, there is emerging evidence and a growing health concern that a considerable proportion (approximately 10–20%) of patients surviving acute COVID-19 infection can experience persistent symptoms and complications. This post-COVID con-

dition is commonly denoted as “long COVID”. The UK National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) defines long COVID as “signs and symptoms that continue or develop after acute COVID-19”, including [1] ongoing symptomatic COVID-19 (symptoms lasting from 4 up to 12 weeks after acute COVID-19 infection) and [2] post-COVID-19 syndrome (symptoms lasting 12 weeks or more after the start of acute COVID-19 [1,2]). In order to establish a globally agreed definition, the World Health Organization (WHO) has developed a consensus clinical case definition for adults: “Post-COVID-19 condition occurs in individuals with a history of probable or confirmed SARS CoV-2 infection, usually 3 months from the onset of COVID-19 with symptoms that last for at least 2 months and cannot be explained by an alternative diagnosis.” [3].

Long COVID can involve multiple organs and systems,

Received: October 24, 2022 / **Revised:** November 20, 2022

Accepted: November 21, 2022

Address for correspondence: Kuan-Pin Su
China Medical University, No.2 Yuh-Der Road, North District,
Taichung 404332, Taiwan

E-mail: cobolsu@gmail.com

ORCID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4501-2502>

*These authors contributed equally to this study as co-first authors.

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

including the immune system, pulmonary system, cardiovascular system, gastrointestinal system, liver, kidney, pancreas, spleen, and the brain [4-7]. The clinical manifestations of long COVID encompass a multitude of symptoms with the symptom severity and duration varying substantially. The heterogeneous clinical manifestations represent a challenge for early diagnosis and treatment of long COVID. The main features of long COVID symptoms include depression, anxiety, fatigue, sleep disturbances, cognitive impairments of attention and memory, breathlessness, chronic pain, and myalgia [5]. Long COVID symptoms may fluctuate or relapse over time and are commonly long-lasting [8,9]. A significant minority of patients with long COVID could suffer from symptoms lasting even longer than one year [10-12]. Long COVID symptoms are generally debilitating and exert a devastating impact on daily functioning and well-being, which causes huge healthcare, economic, and mental health burdens to the whole society [13-16].

CLINICAL MANIFESTATIONS OF LONG COVID PSYCHIATRIC SEQUELAE

Numerous surveys and meta-analyses have highlighted psychiatric symptoms as one of the most common complications in COVID-19 survivors [5,17-19]. The most frequently long COVID psychiatric symptoms are depression, heightened anxiety and psychological distress, sleep difficulties, posttraumatic stress symptoms, and cognitive disturbances (difficulties with memory and concentration and impaired executive functions; also commonly termed as “brain fog”) [20,21]. Although the prevalence of the long COVID psychiatric symptoms and disorders varied depending on the measuring tools and time points during the COVID-19 disease course, the prevalence of major depressive disorder (MDD) and anxiety disorder in COVID-19 survivors were found to be around 20–40% [21-23].

Several longitudinal studies on the trajectories of long COVID psychiatric symptoms have shown that some symptoms, such as anxiety, could recover naturally, but some symptoms, particularly depression and cognitive impairments, tend to be chronic [8-10,12,24,25]. Chronic psychiatric sequelae of long COVID are disabling, exerting a long-lasting destructive impact on well-being, quality of life, and educational and occupational functioning, and causing morbidity [23,26,27].

Notably, the relationship between psychiatric disorders/symptoms and the COVID-19 disease is bidirectional. Patients with a pre-pandemic existing psychiatric disorder were found to be at increased risk for long COVID psychiatric sequelae [24,28]. Life changes and disruptions, restrictions, social isolations, economic loss, and threats of death during the COVID pandemic also create a huge and compound stressful environment where risk factors for psychiatric disorders are exacerbated [29,30]. In addition to COVID-19 infection-associated psychiatric sequelae, exacerbated existing mental health problems, and multiple stressors along with the pandemic can contribute to mental health problems in COVID-19 survivors [15,16]. This creates a great challenge for researchers and clinicians to identify the mechanisms and treatment targets for addressing mental health problems in COVID-19 survivors.

DEPRESSION AS A CENTRAL SYMPTOM OF LONG COVID

Among the neuropsychiatric and physical symptoms of long COVID, depression plays a central role, serving as a risk factor for persistent fatigue, pain, and cognitive impairments in COVID-19 survivors [31-33]. The links between post-COVID depression and other long COVID sequelae may be underpinned by their shared pathogenic inflammatory mechanisms and pathways.

In a follow-up study in hospitalized patients with the COVID-19 disease, rather than other demographic variables and acute COVID-19 severity, post-COVID depression at one-month follow-up was found to be the only and most robust predictor of the severity of long-term fatigue (at 6- and 12- month post-COVID) [31]. In addition, the severity of depressive symptoms one month after hospitalization for COVID-19 was found to be positively associated with persistent pain and dyspnea at the 3-month follow-up [32]. The development of post-COVID fatigue may be related to immune dysregulation and inflammation. In some patients who showed persistent heightened inflammation after recovery from acute COVID-19 disease, the severity of post-COVID fatigue was found to be associated with the level of pro-inflammatory markers [34]. There is some emerging evidence suggesting that depression and fatigue may share a common pathogenic pathway that involves systemic and neuro-inflammation [35]. Therefore, the link between post-COVID depression

and fatigue may be due to common pathogenic inflammatory mechanisms.

Post-COVID depression was found to have a cross-sectional and longitudinal association with cognitive impairments in patients who had ever been hospitalized for severe acute COVID-19 [35]. In this study, depression severity one month after discharge was negatively associated with verbal fluency and information processing and predicted poor attention and executive functions at a 3-month follow-up. Moreover, systemic inflammation at admission for acute COVID-19 predicted both depression severity and cognitive impairments at 3-month follow-up after discharge. Furthermore, for patients who showed reductions in systemic inflammation, the reduction in systemic inflammation could also predict the reduction in their depression severity over time. In contrast, patients who experiences no or few changes in systemic inflammation had persistent severe depression. Taken together, the results suggested that the association between depression and cognitive impairments might be due to a shared underpinned pathogenetic mechanism, unsolved systemic inflammation. This also led us to ask whether we could reduce post-COVID depression and other inflammation-associated long COVID symptoms, such as cognitive impairments, fatigue, and sleep [36] by addressing inflammation processes.

COULD THE INFLAMMATION THEORY OF DEPRESSION APPLY TO LONG COVID SEQUELAE?

The neuropsychiatric sequelae of long COVID are multifactorial. The development of depression and other psychiatric symptoms of long COVID may involve several different mechanisms, including direct brain infection and neuro-injury by SARS-CoV-2, unresolved systemic inflammation and ensuing increased inflammation in the brain through compromised blood-brain barrier (BBB), and oxidative stress [7,35,37,38]. They may operate alone or together, leading to the development of depression, cognitive impairments, and other psychiatric sequelae (sleep disturbances, fatigue) in COVID-19 survivors.

The inflammation theory of depression has proposed inflammation as a key pathogenic mechanism for MDD. Evidence supporting the inflammation theory of depression comes from (a) The association between systemic pe-

ripheral inflammation and depression is well documented with the blood level of inflammatory biomarkers, particularly pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., interleukin [IL]-6) and C-reactive protein (CRP), positively associated with severity of depression [39-44]. (b) Infection, like psychosocial stress, can activate systemic inflammation, and then induced “sickness behaviors” – cognitive-affective behavioral changes like the core symptoms of depression [45,46]. (c) Increased neuroinflammation in patients with MDD, evidenced by increased cytokines found in cerebrospinal fluid and positron emission tomography brain imaging studies showing upregulation of translocator protein by active microglia, in patients with MDD [47-50].

As the inflammation theory of depression suggests, it is hypothesized that immune dysregulation with systemic and neuro-inflammation is one of the key pathogenic mechanisms linking SARS-CoV-2 infection and post-COVID depression. There are two hypothesized immune pathways by which SARS-CoV-2 infection can lead to the development of enduring depression (see Fig. 1): (a) SARS-CoV-2 infection can induce cytokine dysregulation by activating the mounting release of pro-inflammatory cytokines (e.g., IL-1 β , IL-6, and tumor necrosis factor) and inhibiting anti-inflammatory type-I interferons responses, causing “the cytokine storm”. Cytokine dysregulation drives systemic peripheral inflammatory responses [51-53]. Cytokine dysregulation can compromise the function of the BBB, leading to pro-inflammatory cytokines passing the leaky BBB and activating microglia. Chronic activation of microglia enhances the synthesis and release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, driving neuro-inflammation. Cytokine dysregulation can also disrupt the mechanisms of glutamate and monoamine neurotransmission, alter glucocorticoid receptor resistance and reduce hippocampal neuroplasticity, subsequently impairing cognitive functions and leading to the development of depression. (b) SARS-CoV-2 can directly invade the brain. The neuro-invasion pathway may involve direct brain damage by SARS-CoV-2 and/or the persistence of the coronavirus activating long-lasting inflammation in the brain to cause depression [54,55]. As previously mentioned, depression and other long COVID neuropsychiatric sequelae may share common pathogenic pathways that involve both systemic inflammation and neuroinflammation.

Notably, not all patients with depression have increased inflammation and the relationship between inflammation

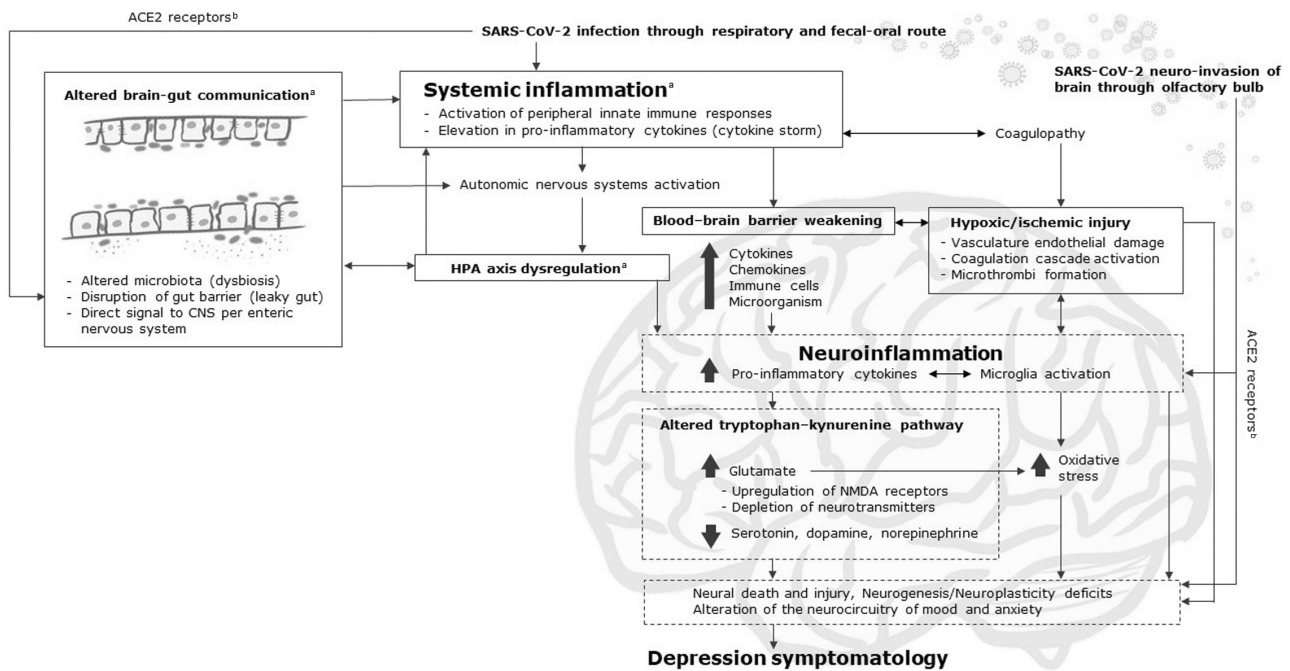


Fig. 1. Immune/inflammatory pathways linking COVID-19 infection and depression.

ACE2 receptors, angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 receptor; SARS-CoV-2, severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2; CNS, central nervous system; HPA, hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal; NMDA, N-methyl D-aspartate.

^aStress exacerbation.

^bSARS-CoV-2 invades organs by binding to angiotensin-converting enzyme type 2 receptors on epithelial and endothelial cells of the gastrointestinal system, respiratory system, blood vessels, central nerve system, *et al.*

and depression is evident only for special subsets of depressive patients (e.g., refractory depression) [56]. This implies that inflammatory biomarkers could help to precisely identify COVID-19 survivors who follow the immune/inflammatory pathways leading to depression and can benefit most from interventions for depression that addresses immune dysregulation and inflammation.

ADDRESSING INFLAMMATION AS A TREATMENT TARGET FOR POST-COVID DEPRESSION

To the best of our knowledge, there are no evidence-based effective interventions available for post-COVID depression or other psychiatric sequelae. Informed by the emerging evidence regarding the mediating role of inflammation in the relationship between SARS-CoV-2 infection and the development of enduring depression [57], it is reasonable to address inflammation as the target of treatment modalities for post-COVID depression [29,58]. Considering the possible adverse effects of immune suppressants, evidence-based psychosocial and nutrition in-

tervention that can address both inflammation and depression seems to be a safe, compelling treatment choice.

Literature on psychosocial interventions has documented that cognitive behavior therapy, mindfulness meditation, and mind-body interventions (e.g., Yoga, Tai-chi) can reduce depression, anxiety and stress as well as improve immune dysregulation [59-62]. The association between psychosocial intervention and decreases in pro-inflammatory cytokines and CRP are most consistent and evident for interventions for depression that incorporate cognitive-based treatment and multiple interventions. Furthermore, the intervention effect on reducing hyper-inflammatory status can predict the intervention effect on improving depression [59].

Nutrition science provides another intervention option that can alleviate depression by reducing systemic inflammatory status. Long-chain omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids (omega-3 PUFAs) are a promising choice with solid empirical evidence established for their effects on improving major depressive disorder, anxiety, and antenatal and postnatal depression [63-67]. In addition, there is emerging evidence on the effect of omega-3 PUFAs in

addressing immune dysregulation induced by SARS-CoV-2 infection as well as post-COVID depression, anxiety, and other psychological distress [38,68]. Further research is needed using an experimental design (randomized controlled trial) to test the effect of nutrition interventions with omega-3 PUFAs on post-COVID depression as well as to

test decreased inflammation as the mediating mechanism of the intervention effect. Beyond omega-3 PUFAs, potential nutrition interventions for long COVID include a nutrition supply with vitamin C, polyphenols, probiotics, and vitamin D and keeping a healthy diet to reduce inflammation and oxidative stress [69-71]. However, these

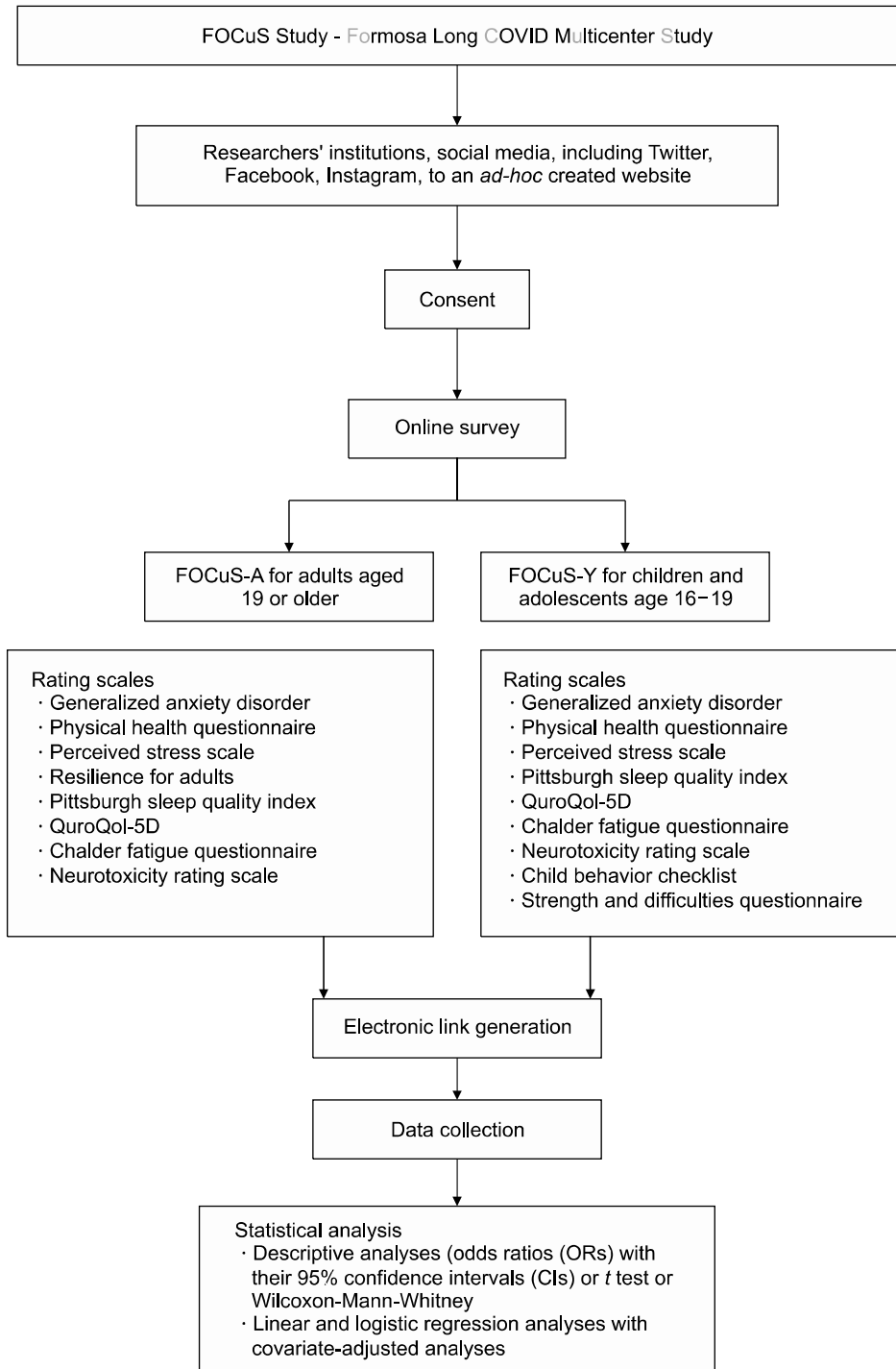


Fig. 2. The flow chart of the initial cohort of the Formosa Long COVID Multicenter Study (FOCuS).

nutrition interventions generally lack solid empirical evidence to support their effects on improving post-COVID depression as well as inflammatory dysregulation.

POST-COVID CLINICAL OBSERVATION TO TEST THE INFLAMMATION THEORY OF DEPRESSION: THE FOCUS

WHO estimates up to one-tenth of the world population has already been infected with COVID-19. The high prevalence of long COVID, therefore, makes it a globe-wide cohort to test the inflammation theory of depression. However, many questions remain: (1) What are the key inflammatory mechanisms and pathways responsible for the susceptibility of COVID survivors to develop persistent depression, and their biomarkers? How do the inflammatory biomarkers in post-COVID patients link to the molecular biology of depression? (2) How can we treat/prevent post-COVID depression optimally? Till now, there has been neither approved intervention nor treatment consensus for long COVID.

Therefore, we establish a multi-center research group to investigate depression, anxiety, and common neuropsychiatric syndromes of long COVID in COVID survivors in Taiwan, the Formosa Long COVID Multicenter Study (FOCuS). The FOCuS will start with the construction and validation of two questionnaire measures of neuropsychiatric and physical symptoms of long COVID for the adults (FOCuS-A) and for the youths (FOCuS-Y). The initial step of the FOCuS aims to examine the psychometric properties of the FOCuS-A and FOCuS-Y as well as to investigate the prevalence, clinical manifestations, and risk factors of long COVID physical and neuropsychiatric symptoms in Taiwanese COVID patients. Figure 2 shows the flow chart of the proposed procedure of the initial step of the FOCuS to validate FOCuS-A and FOCuS-Y.

The FOCuS study aims to test the inflammation theory of post-COVID depression. This will be done by the prospective study examining the relationship between inflammatory biomarkers and symptom severity of depression. We believe the FOCuS study will help provide a foundation to conduct future clinical trials to test whether we could treat post-COVID depression with an intervention that is evidence-based to improve depressive symptoms through reducing systemic and neuroinflammation.

CONCLUSION

This review highlights the high prevalence and burden of long COVID depression and suggests systemic and neuro-inflammation as the key mechanisms leading to the development of long COVID depression based on available evidence. Future epidemiological and experimental research is needed to test, validate, and translate the hypothesized causal role of inflammation in the pathogenesis of long COVID depression. The information presented in this review would serve as a starting point for further exploration in the FOCuS study.

■ Funding

None.

■ Acknowledgments

The authors of this work were supported by the following grants: MOST 109-2320-B-038-057-MY3, 110-2321-B-006-004, 111-2321-B-006-008, 110-2811-B-039-507, 110-2320-B-039-048-MY2, 110-2320-B-039-047-MY3, 110-2813-C-039-327-B, 110-2314-B-039-029-MY3, and NSTC 111-2314-B-039-041-MY3 from the Ministry of Science and Technology, Taiwan; ANHRF 109-31, 109-40, 110-13, 110-26, 110-44, 110-45, 111-27, 111-28, 111-47, 111-48, and 111-52 from An-Nan Hospital, China Medical University, Tainan, Taiwan; CMRC-CMA-2 from Higher Education Sprout Project by the Ministry of Education (MOE), Taiwan; CMU 110-AWARD-02, 110-N-17, 1110-SR-73 from the China Medical University, Taichung, Taiwan; and DMR 106-101, 106-227, 109-102, 109-244, 110-124, 111-245, 112-097, 112-086, 112-109, and DMR-HHC-109-11, HHC-109-12, HHC-110-10, and HHC-111-8 from the China Medical University Hospital, Taichung, Taiwan.

■ Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflict of interest relevant to this article was reported.

■ Author Contributions

Conceptualization: All authors contributed to the study conceptualization and design, including Shu-Tsen Liu, Sheng-Che Lin, Jane Pei-Chen Chang, Chia-Chun Yang, Ching-Fang Sun, Che-Sheng Chu, Chih-Sung Liang, Kai-Jie Yang, Senthil Kumaran Satyanarayanan, Shao-Cheng

Wang, Kuan-Pin Su. Data collection: Shu-Tsen Liu, Kuan-Pin Su, Jane Pei-Chen Chang, Sheng-Che Lin. Supervision: Kuan-Pin Su. Writing—original draft: Shu-Tsen Liu. Writing—review & editing: Kuan-Pin Su. The final version of this manuscript was approved by all authors.

ORCID

Shu-Tsen Liu	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7924-9025
Sheng-Che Lin	https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0846-9789
Jane Pei-Chen Chang	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5582-0928
Kai-Jie Yang	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3964-9339
Che-Sheng Chu	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6911-1839
Chia-Chun Yang	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7034-3736
Chih-Sung Liang	https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1138-5586
Ching-Fang Sun	https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5146-4575
Shao-Cheng Wang	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7009-5338
Senthil Kumaran Satyanarayanan	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0513-4943
Kuan-Pin Su	https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4501-2502

REFERENCES

- Sivan M, Taylor S. *NICE guideline on long covid*. *BMJ* 2020; 371:m4938.
- Venkatesan P. *NICE guideline on long COVID*. *Lancet Respir Med* 2021;9:129.
- Soriano JB, Murthy S, Marshall JC, Relan P, Diaz JV. *A clinical case definition of post-COVID-19 condition by a Delphi consensus*. *Lancet Infect Dis* 2022;22:e102-e107.
- Desai AD, Lavelle M, Boursiquot BC, Wan EY. *Long-term complications of COVID-19*. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 2022; 322:C1-C11.
- Nalbandian A, Sehgal K, Gupta A, Madhavan MV, McGroder C, Stevens JS, et al. *Post-acute COVID-19 syndrome*. *Nat Med* 2021;27:601-615.
- Crook H, Raza S, Nowell J, Young M, Edison P. *Long covid-mechanisms, risk factors, and management*. *BMJ* 2021;374: n1648. Erratum in: *BMJ* 2021;374:n1944.
- Liang CS, Gałeczki P, Su KP. *Unresolved systemic inflammation, long COVID, and the common pathomechanisms of somatic and psychiatric comorbidity*. *J Clin Med* 2022;11: 5114.
- Sykes DL, Holdsworth L, Jawad N, Gunasekera P, Morice AH, Crooks MG. *Post-COVID-19 symptom burden: what is long-COVID and how should we manage it?* *Lung* 2021;199: 113-119.
- Seeßle J, Waterboer T, Hippchen T, Simon J, Kirchner M, Lim A, et al. *Persistent symptoms in adult patients 1 year after coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19): a prospective cohort study*. *Clin Infect Dis* 2022;74:1191-1198.
- Wulf Hanson S, Abbafati C, Aerts JG, Al-Aly Z, Ashbaugh C, Ballouz T, et al. *A global systematic analysis of the occurrence, severity, and recovery pattern of long COVID in 2020 and 2021*. *medRxiv*. 22275532 [Online]. 2022 [cited 2022 Sep 4]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.05.26.22275532>.
- Taquet M, Sillett R, Zhu L, Mendel J, Camplisson I, Dercon Q, et al. *Neurological and psychiatric risk trajectories after SARS-CoV-2 infection: an analysis of 2-year retrospective cohort studies including 1 284 437 patients*. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2022;9:815-827.
- Miskowiak KW, Fugledalen L, Jespersen AE, Sattler SM, Podlekareva D, Rungby J, et al. *Trajectory of cognitive impairments over 1 year after COVID-19 hospitalisation: pattern, severity, and functional implications*. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2022;59:82-92.
- Thompson EJ, Williams DM, Walker AJ, Mitchell RE, Niedzwiedz CL, Yang TC, et al. *Long COVID burden and risk factors in 10 UK longitudinal studies and electronic health records*. *Nat Commun* 2022;13:3528.
- Angeles MR, Wann Arachchige Dona S, Nguyen HD, Le LK, Hensher M. *Modelling the potential acute and post-acute burden of COVID-19 under the Australian border re-opening plan*. *BMC Public Health* 2022;22:757.
- Solmi M, Estradé A, Thompson T, Agorastos A, Radua J, Cortese S, et al. *Physical and mental health impact of COVID-19 on children, adolescents, and their families: The Collaborative Outcomes study on Health and Functioning during Infection Times- Children and Adolescents (COH-FIT-C&A)*. *J Affect Disord* 2022;299:367-376.
- Solmi M, Estradé A, Thompson T, Agorastos A, Radua J, Cortese S, et al. *The collaborative outcomes study on health and functioning during infection times in adults (COH-FIT-Adults): design and methods of an international online survey targeting physical and mental health effects of the COVID-19 pandemic*. *J Affect Disord* 2022;299:393-407.
- Vanderlind WM, Rabinovitz BB, Miao IY, Oberlin LE, Bueno-Castellano C, Fridman C, et al. *A systematic review of neuropsychological and psychiatric sequelae of COVID-19: implications for treatment*. *Curr Opin Psychiatry* 2021;34:420-433.
- Rogers JP, Chesney E, Oliver D, Pollak TA, McGuire P, Fusar-Poli P, 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.
- Llach CD, Vieta E. *Mind long COVID: psychiatric sequelae of SARS-CoV-2 infection*. *Eur Neuropsychopharmacol* 2021;49: 119-121.
- Bourmistrova NW, Solomon T, Braude P, Strawbridge R, Carter B. *Long-term effects of COVID-19 on mental health: a systematic review*. *J Affect Disord* 2022;299:118-125.

21. Khraisat B, Toubasi A, AlZoubi L, Al-Sayegh T, Mansour A. *Meta-analysis of prevalence: the psychological sequelae among COVID-19 survivors. Int J Psychiatry Clin Pract* 2022; 26:234-243.
22. Mazza MG, Palladini M, Poletti S, Benedetti F. *Post-COVID-19 depressive symptoms: epidemiology, pathophysiology, and pharmacological treatment. CNS Drugs* 2022;36:681-702.
23. COVID-19 Mental Disorders Collaborators. *Global prevalence and burden of depressive and anxiety disorders in 204 countries and territories in 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Lancet* 2021;398:1700-1712.
24. Fancourt D, Steptoe A, Bu F. *Long-term psychological consequences of long COVID: a propensity score matching analysis comparing trajectories of depression and anxiety symptoms before and after contracting long COVID vs short COVID. medRxiv. 22273305 [Online]. 2022 [cited 2022 Sep 4]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2022.04.01.22273305>.*
25. Johnson SU, Amundsen OM, Johnson MS, Hoffart A, Halsøy Ø, Skjerdingsstad N, et al. *Psychiatric symptoms in COVID-19-positive individuals in the general population: trajectories of depression, anxiety, and insomnia. Psychiatry Res* 2022; 317:114806.
26. Gruber J, Prinstein MJ, Clark LA, Rottenberg J, Abramowitz JS, Albano AM, et al. *Mental health and clinical psychological science in the time of COVID-19: challenges, opportunities, and a call to action. Am Psychol* 2021;76:409-426.
27. Adhanom Ghebreyesus T. *Addressing mental health needs: an integral part of COVID-19 response. World Psychiatry* 2020; 19:129-130.
28. Taquet M, Luciano S, Geddes JR, Harrison PJ. *Bidirectional associations between COVID-19 and psychiatric disorder: retrospective cohort studies of 62 354 COVID-19 cases in the USA. Lancet Psychiatry* 2021;8:130-140. Erratum in: *Lancet Psychiatry* 2021;8:e1.
29. Kim SW, Su KP. *Using psychoneuroimmunity against COVID-19. Brain Behav Immun* 2020;87:4-5.
30. Bliźniewska-Kowalska KM, Halaris A, Wang SC, Su KP, Maes M, Berk M, et al. *A review of the global impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on public mental health, with a comparison between the USA, Australia, and Poland with Taiwan and Thailand. Med Sci Monit* 2021;27:e932220.
31. Mazza MG, Palladini M, Villa G, De Lorenzo R, Rovere Querini P, Benedetti F. *Prevalence, trajectory over time, and risk factor of post-COVID-19 fatigue. J Psychiatr Res* 2022; 155:112-119.
32. Botteman H, Gouraud C, Hulot JS, Blanchard A, Ranque B, Lahlou-Laforêt K, et al. *Do anxiety and depression predict persistent physical symptoms after a severe COVID-19 episode? A prospective study. Front Psychiatry* 2021;12:757685.
33. Mazza MG, Palladini M, De Lorenzo R, Magnaghi C, Poletti S, Furlan R, et al. *Persistent psychopathology and neurocognitive impairment in COVID-19 survivors: effect of inflammatory biomarkers at three-month follow-up. Brain Behav Immun* 2021;94:138-147.
34. Ceban F, Ling S, Lui LMW, Lee Y, Gill H, Teopiz KM, et al. *Fatigue and cognitive impairment in Post-COVID-19 syndrome: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Brain Behav Immun* 2022;101:93-135.
35. Lee CH, Giuliani F. *The role of inflammation in depression and fatigue. Front Immunol* 2019;10:1696.
36. Semyachkina-Glushkovskaya O, Mamedova A, Vinnik V, Klimova M, Saranceva E, Ageev V, et al. *Brain mechanisms of COVID-19-sleep disorders. Int J Mol Sci* 2021;22:6917.
37. Boldrini M, Canoll PD, Klein RS. *How COVID-19 affects the brain. JAMA Psychiatry* 2021;78:682-683.
38. Yang CP, Chang CM, Yang CC, Pariante CM, Su KP. *Long COVID and long chain fatty acids (LCFAs): psychoneuroimmunity implication of omega-3 LCFAs in delayed consequences of COVID-19. Brain Behav Immun* 2022;103:19-27.
39. Han QQ, Yu J. *Inflammation: a mechanism of depression? Neurosci Bull* 2014;30:515-523.
40. Miller AH, Raison CL. *The role of inflammation in depression: from evolutionary imperative to modern treatment target. Nat Rev Immunol* 2016;16:22-34.
41. Beurel E, Toups M, Nemeroff CB. *The bidirectional relationship of depression and inflammation: double trouble. Neuron* 2020;107:234-256.
42. Milaneschi Y, Kappelmann N, Ye Z, Lamers F, Moser S, Jones PB, et al. *Association of inflammation with depression and anxiety: evidence for symptom-specificity and potential causality from UK Biobank and NESDA cohorts. Mol Psychiatry* 2021;26:7393-7402. Erratum in: *Mol Psychiatry* 2022;27:1856.
43. Osimo EF, Baxter LJ, Lewis G, Jones PB, Khandaker GM. *Prevalence of low-grade inflammation in depression: a systematic review and meta-analysis of CRP levels. Psychol Med* 2019;49:1958-1970.
44. Osimo EF, Pillinger T, Rodriguez IM, Khandaker GM, Pariante CM, Howes OD. *Inflammatory markers in depression: a meta-analysis of mean differences and variability in 5,166 patients and 5,083 controls. Brain Behav Immun* 2020;87:901-909.
45. Dantzer R, O'Connor JC, Freund GG, Johnson RW, Kelley KW. *From inflammation to sickness and depression: when the immune system subjugates the brain. Nat Rev Neurosci* 2008; 9:46-56.
46. Dooley LN, Kuhlman KR, Robles TF, Eisenberger NI, Craske MG, Bower JE. *The role of inflammation in core features of depression: insights from paradigms using exogenously-induced inflammation. Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2018;94:219-237.
47. Gritti D, Delvecchio G, Ferro A, Bressi C, Brambilla P. *Neuroinflammation in major depressive disorder: a review of PET imaging studies examining the 18-kDa translocator protein. J Affect Disord* 2021;292:642-651.
48. Nettis MA, Pariante CM. *Is there neuroinflammation in de-*

- pression? Understanding the link between the brain and the peripheral immune system in depression. *Int Rev Neurobiol* 2020;152:23-40.
49. Green C, Shen X, Stevenson AJ, Conole ELS, Harris MA, Barbu MC, et al. Structural brain correlates of serum and epigenetic markers of inflammation in major depressive disorder. *Brain Behav Immun* 2021;92:39-48.
 50. Hidese S, Hattori K, Sasayama D, Tsumagari T, Miyakawa T, Matsumura R, et al. Cerebrospinal fluid inflammatory cytokine levels in patients with major psychiatric disorders: a multiplex immunoassay study. *Front Pharmacol* 2021;11:594394.
 51. Coperchini F, Chiovato L, Croce L, Magri F, Rotondi M. The cytokine storm in COVID-19: an overview of the involvement of the chemokine/chemokine-receptor system. *Cytokine Growth Factor Rev* 2020;53:25-32.
 52. Zhang C, Wu Z, Li JW, Zhao H, Wang GQ. Cytokine release syndrome in severe COVID-19: interleukin-6 receptor antagonist tocilizumab may be the key to reduce mortality. *Int J Antimicrob Agents* 2020;55:105954.
 53. Wan S, Yi Q, Fan S, Lv J, Zhang X, Guo L, et al. Characteristics of lymphocyte subsets and cytokines in peripheral blood of 123 hospitalized patients with 2019 novel coronavirus pneumonia (NCP). *medRxiv*. 2021832 [Online]. 2020 [cited 2022 Sep 4]. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.02.10.20021832>.
 54. Vizslayová D, Sojka M, Dobrodenková S, Szabó S, Bilec O, Turzová M, et al. SARS-CoV-2 RNA in the cerebrospinal fluid of a patient with long COVID. *Ther Adv Infect Dis* 2021;8:20499361211048572.
 55. Sodagar A, Javed R, Tahir H, Razak SIA, Shakir M, Naeem M, et al. Pathological features and neuroinflammatory mechanisms of SARS-CoV-2 in the brain and potential therapeutic approaches. *Biomolecules* 2022;12:971.
 56. Pariante CM. Increased inflammation in depression: a little in all, or a lot in a few? *Am J Psychiatry* 2021;178:1077-1079.
 57. Slavich GM, Irwin MR. From stress to inflammation and major depressive disorder: a social signal transduction theory of depression. *Psychol Bull* 2014;140:774-815.
 58. Wang SC, Su KP, Pariante CM. The three frontlines against COVID-19: brain, behavior, and immunity. *Brain Behav Immun* 2021;93:409-414.
 59. Shields GS, Spahr CM, Slavich GM. Psychosocial interventions and immune system function: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized clinical trials. *JAMA Psychiatry* 2020;77:1031-1043.
 60. Black DS, Slavich GM. Mindfulness meditation and the immune system: a systematic review of randomized controlled trials. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2016;1373:13-24.
 61. Bower JE, Irwin MR. Mind-body therapies and control of inflammatory biology: a descriptive review. *Brain Behav Immun* 2016;51:1-11.
 62. Morgan N, Irwin MR, Chung M, Wang C. The effects of mind-body therapies on the immune system: meta-analysis. *PLoS One* 2014;9:e100903.
 63. Guu TW, Mischoulon D, Sarris J, Hibbeln J, McNamara RK, Hamazaki K, et al. International Society for Nutritional Psychiatry Research practice guidelines for Omega-3 fatty acids in the treatment of major depressive disorder. *Psychother Psychosom* 2019;88:263-273.
 64. Lin PY, Su KP. A meta-analytic review of double-blind, placebo-controlled trials of antidepressant efficacy of omega-3 fatty acids. *J Clin Psychiatry* 2007;68:1056-1061.
 65. Nishi D, Su KP, Usuda K, Pei-Chen Chang J, Chiang YJ, Chen HT, et al. The efficacy of Omega-3 fatty acids for depressive symptoms among pregnant women in Japan and Taiwan: a randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled trial (SYNCHRO; NCT01948596). *Psychother Psychosom* 2019;88:122-124.
 66. Chiu CC, Huang SY, Su KP. Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids for postpartum depression. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 2004;190:582-583; author reply 583.
 67. Su KP, Tseng PT, Lin PY, Okubo R, Chen TY, Chen YW, et al. Association of use of Omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids with changes in severity of anxiety symptoms: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *JAMA Netw Open* 2018;1:e182327.
 68. Chang JP, Pariante CM, Su KP. Omega-3 fatty acids in the psychological and physiological resilience against COVID-19. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids* 2020;161:102177.
 69. Shabbir MA, Mehak F, Khan ZM, Ahmed W, Haq SMAU, Khan MR, et al. Delving the role of nutritional psychiatry to mitigate the COVID-19 pandemic induced stress, anxiety and depression. *Trends Food Sci Technol* 2022;120:25-35.
 70. Iddir M, Brito A, Dingenio G, Fernandez Del Campo SS, Samouda H, La Frano MR, et al. Strengthening the immune system and reducing inflammation and oxidative stress through diet and nutrition: considerations during the COVID-19 crisis. *Nutrients* 2020;12:1562.
 71. Singh B, Eshaghian E, Chuang J, Covasa M. Do diet and dietary supplements mitigate clinical outcomes in COVID-19? *Nutrients* 2022;14:1909.