

Review Article

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UNDERSTANDING AND MANAGEMENT OF NEUROPSYCHIATRIC SEQUELAE OF STROKE: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

Psychological anxiety and neuropsychiatric issues frequently afflict stroke survivors. The most frequent neuropsychiatric aftereffects of stroke are sadness, anxiety, and apathy, which affect around one-third of stroke survivors. Neuropsychiatric consequences are incapacitating, and they can hinder recovery, lower quality of life, and exhaust the carer. Neuropsychiatric disorders linked to stroke are currently underdiagnosed and undertreated despite the availability of screening tools and efficient treatments. The presence and severity of the psychiatric sequelae of stroke are influenced by the severity of the stroke, stroke-related disability, cerebral small artery disease, prior psychiatric illness, inadequate coping mechanisms, and adverse psychosocial context.

Keywords: Cerebrovascular accident, Ayurveda, Anxiety, Antidepressants, Chittaavasada.

INTRODUCTION:

The most prevalent serious neurological disorder in the world and the main factor in long-term disability is stroke. Stroke is now the fifth greatest cause of disability and the fourth major cause of death in India, where its toll is rising. According to earlier studies, between 105 and 152/100,000, people in India get a stroke each year. ^[1] Since the introduction of stroke units and the use of thrombolysis and/or thrombectomy, the acute treatment of stroke has significantly improved in developed nations. Acute stroke mortality has decreased as a result, and the percentage of survivors with mild to severe impairment has increased. ^[2] Motor and sensory deficits, language difficulties, visuospatial neglect, and impairment of daily living have traditionally been the focus of study into the functional impairments that follow a stroke and treatment of stroke sequelae. Long-term monitoring of stroke survivors by multidisciplinary teams, however, reveals that a significant fraction of these people also experiences psychological discomfort and a variety of mental disorder. ^[3] These incapacitating psychological effects significantly lower the quality of life after stroke; they are a major cause of stress, strain, and tiredness for the carer; and they frequently lead to the patient's institutionalization. Updates on the short- and long-term psychiatric effects of stroke are provided in this article, with a focus on the clinical aspects, molecular and psychological underpinnings, and treatment of stroke-related psychiatric disorders. Disorders that are the most frequent, that are preventable and treatable, and/or for which scientific advances have accumulated in recent years (TABLE 1).

Disorder	Main Clinical Characteristics	Preva lence In Strok e survi vors (%)	Screening Tools	Treatment Options
Depressi on	Depressed moodInsomnia	31	• Beck Depression	AntidepressantsPsychotherapy

Table 1 | Neuropsychiatric disturbances after stroke [3]

	Suicidal thoughts		Inventory	
	• Anhedonia		(BDI)	
	 Loss of energy Decreased concentration Psychomotor retardation Decreased appetite Guilt 		 Montgomery and Åsberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) Hamilton Depression RatingScale (HDRS) HADS 	
Anxiety	 Anxiety or worry Restlessness Decreased energy 	18	• HADS	 Antidepressants (SSRIs) Benzodiazepines
	 Poor concentration 			• Buspirone
	 Irritation 			• Pregabalin
	• Nervous tension			 Psychotherapy
	• Insomnia			Lifestyle modification
PTSD	 Unpleasant and uncontrollablere-experiences of stroke Intrusion symptoms (memories,dreams or flashbacks about stroke) Persistent avoidance of stimuliassociated with the stroke Stroke-related negative alterationsin cognition, mead we are about a stroke and a stroke and	10-20	 Impact of Events Scale Revised Interview 	• Exposure psychotherapy Learning coping skills
	reactivity			
Agrressiv e Personali	Feelings of angerAggressive	15-57	 Personality scales and 	 SSRIs (fluoxetine) Neuroleptics (haloperidol

ty Changes	reactions andbehaviour • Hostility		questionnaireNeuropsychiat ric Inventory	oratypical neuroleptics) Antiepileptic drugs or betablockers
Apatheti c Personali ty Changes	 Low motivation Reduced initiative Loss of self-activation Emotional indifference 	36	 Personality scales and questionnaire Apathy Evaluation Scale Apathy Scale Neuropsychiat ric Inventory 	 Dopaminergic agents Buproprion Noradrenergicantid epressants Nefiracetam Cholinergic agents Stimulants

HADS, Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale; PTSD, post-traumatic stress disorder; SSRI, selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor

DEPRESSIVE DISORDERS:

• Clinical and diagnostic features

Poststroke mood disorders are described in the DSM-5 as mood disorders brought on by a stroke that have depressed traits, a major depressive episode, or mixed-mood characteristics. Vascular neurocognitive disorder, either major or minor, is the only condition in the DSM-5 that is specifically related to cerebrovascular disease. A patient must exhibit a sad mood, lack of interest or pleasure, at least two major depressive symptoms lasting two weeks or more and no more than five of the main depressive symptoms to be diagnosed with a mood disorder brought on by a stroke ^[4]. Three kinds of post-stroke depressive disorders exist. First, major depressive-like episodes are characterized by the presence of five or more of the following symptoms for longer than two weeks: a depressed mood, anhedonia, weight loss or a decrease in appetite, insomnia or hypersomnia, psychomotor agitation or retardation, loss of energy, feelings of worthlessness or guilt, difficulty concentrating, and suicidal ideation. Second, patients are deemed to have depressed features if they exhibit some of the aforementioned symptoms but do not meet the requirements for a major depressive episode. Last but not least, mixed features are defined as both depression and manic symptoms ^[5, 6]. A skilled physician's clinical judgment and expertise, as well as the application of validated questionnaires ^[7] and recognized diagnostic criteria ^[5, 8] are required for the

diagnosis of depression. Most recent studies used a variety of scales to assess strokerelated depression, including the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) [9], the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) ^[10], the Hamilton Depression Rating Scale (HDRS) ^[11], the Montgomery and Sberg Depression Rating Scale (MADRS) ^[12], and the Mini International Neuropsychiatric Interview (M.I.N.I.)^[7].

• Prevalence

According to various individual research and Meta-analyses, the prevalence of PSD is estimated to range from 20% to 65% ^[13].

• Causes of Post-stroke Depression:

After having a stroke, a person may need to accept the loss of many of his or her future goals and aspirations, as well as learn to adapt to a new role in the family and possibly the end of a job. The symptoms of a stroke might result in a loss of self-confidence and poorer self-esteem in these activities because many of us value ourselves through routine activities like bathing, washing, eating, maintaining personal cleanliness, etc. Sometimes a stroke causes immediate damage to the area of the brain that creates and regulates our thoughts, feelings, and actions. It might also be brought on by the psychological effects of a severe disease. Having someone to talk to is crucial to lowering the risk of depression because loneliness can cause low mood. It may take some time to recover from the shock of what has happened after a stroke because it occurs so unexpectedly. Many people experience feelings of fear, worry, frustration, or anger as a result of what has occurred. Although these emotions are common and typically pass with time, for some people they turn into depression [¹⁴].

• Clinical course and outcome

Most episodes of stroke-related depression start within a year following the stroke, according to the South of London Stroke Registry ^[17]. One year after a stroke, the depression recovery rate for people who were depressed a few months after a stroke is moderate (15-57%). ^[17]. the frequency of recurrent episodes of depression in patients with stroke-associated depression steadily rises from 38% at 2 years after stroke to 100% at years 14–15. ^[15] Stroke induced depression also has a harmful consequence on functional outcomes ^[16] and quality of living, and increases the risk of institutionalization, and family and caregiver depression ^[17].

• Pathophysiology and biomarkers

According to studies, frontal lobe glutamate levels were higher in patients with a depressive illness linked to stroke ^[18, 19]. Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that white matter injury in the anterior limb of the internal capsule increases the risk of depression in stroke survivors with small vessel disease, presumably because it compromises the frontal-subcortical circuits ^[20]. This biological susceptibility, along with pressures from the environment, may lead to stroke-associated depressive disorder ^[21]. In addition to blood-based biomarker levels changing after a stroke, imaging indicators may also change in people with post-stroke depression. High homocysteine ^[22] and bilirubin levels ^[23] proteomic evidence of disturbed immunoregulation ^[24] and lipid metabolism, elevated levels of serum leptin ^[25], and elevated levels of plasma glutamate ^[26] are all seen in patients with stroke-induced depression.

In a meta-analysis of association studies including serotonin transporter gene (SLC6A4) polymorphisms, stroke patients who had two short variants of the 5HTTLPR polymorphic area had a two-fold increased risk of stroke-induced depressive disorder ^[27]. Potential genetic markers of depressive disorders linked to stroke include SLC6A4 and BDNF polymorphisms.

• Management and treatment

Psychotherapy, antidepressants, and neurostimulation are typically used to treat depression ^[28, 29]. In contrast to their lack of impact on mortality, cognitive impairment, or motor deficits ^[30], SSRIs reduced dependence, disability, neurological impairment, anxiety, and depression. Conventional treatment for depression includes a variety of antidepressants, including selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs), norepinephrine reuptake inhibitors (NRIs), heterocyclic antidepressants, monoamine methylphenidate, oxidase inhibitors (MAO i), nefiracetam, and omega-3 supplementation, but these treatments are not free of side effects. In cases of PSD, there is a need to develop such medications which, in addition to their mood-elevating effects (antidepressants), also contribute to the symptomatic improvement of the patient's motor and cognitive deficits. Supplements containing folic acid, vitamins B1, B6, and B12 can help with post-stroke depression ^[31]. It has also been evaluated how well alternative treatments work for depression linked to stroke [32] .Acupuncture [33],

electroacupuncture ^[34], and music therapy ^[35] have all shown positive benefits in Asia, but these findings still need to be verified.

• *Ayurvedic* perspective on the treatment of PSD:

Vishada and avasada are two states that resemble depression very closely in Ayurvedic literature. Avsada is sinking down, becoming faint, and exhausted, but Vishada is lethargic, inactivity, dejection, despair, and despondency; this contrasts with the strong similarity between Avsad and Vishad from depression. Citing "VishadoRogavardhananam "Agrya," Charaka asserts that Vishada is the primary cause of the disease's progression. This is the first tenet of Ayurveda's psycho-neuroimmunology. Vishada is one of the eighty Vataja nanatmaja vikaras, which signifies that vata dosha is required for its occurrence. Patients with hinasattva have been reported to be more vulnerable to vishada. Vishada is included under manas vyadhi (mental ailments) in the Sushruta Samhita's list of illnesses. According to Ayurvedic principles, it is evident that Dusti of Vata Dosha and mental instability are what create PSD/Pakshaghata janyavasada. The Samhitas recommend Basti, Rasayana, and Satvavajaya chikitsa as the best treatments for Vata dosha. The aforementioned ideas aid in disease management and treatment as well as patient improvement in their mental and motor skills, which hastens their recovery.

Shamshodhana Chikitsa (Biopurificatory Therapies):

The shamshodhana chikitsa includes the therapies like Snehana karma (oleation therapy) / Swedana karma (Medical fomentation) / Virechana karma (Therapeutic Purgation) / Basti karma (Medical Enema), / Nasya karma (Nasal Detox) / Shirodhara / Shiropichu / Shirobasti etc.

<u>Sr.No</u>	Kalpana (Drugs Form)	Drugs
1	Rasa/Bhasma/Pisthi	Rasaraja Rasa, Brihatvata Chintamani Rasa, Yogendra Rasa, Unmadagajkesri Rasa, Chaturbhuja Rasa, etc.
2	Choorna/Vati	Saraswata Choorna, Ashwagandha Choorna, Vacha Choorna Sarpgandhaghana Vati, Brahmi Vati, Medhya Vati etc.

Shamana Chikitsa (Pallative therpy by Diet and Drugs):

3	Kwath/Kashaya	Maharasnadi Kwath, Mashbaladi Kwath etc.	
4	Taila/Ghrita	Madhuyashtyadhi Tail, Brahmi Taila, Bala Tail, Ashwagandha Tail etc.	
5	Ghrita	Chatuhasneha, Ashwagandha Ghrita, Brahmighrita, Panchgavya Ghrita, Kalyanaka Ghrita, Mahakalyanaka Ghrita, Mahapaishachik Ghrita etc.	
6	Guggulu	Yograja Guggulu, Panchamrut Loha Guggulu etc.	
7	Asava/Aristha	Aswagandharistha, Saraswtaristha, Balaristha etc.	
8	Rasayan Yoga	Chyawanprash, Brahma Rasayan, etc.	

- Non-pharmacological treatment of Post-stroke Depression: Antidepressants and other pharmacologic treatments for mood disorders following stroke may have negative side effects. To improve patient outcomes and offer more accessible treatment alternatives, it is crucial to look for alternative, nonpharmacologic treatments.
- Satvavajaya chikitsa [36]

Satvavajaya is a true understanding of psychological restraint that aids in separating ideas from deeds and reveals the root of phobias. To keep mental health normal and return to a healthy state in the event of damage, a thorough psychosomatic-spiritual strategy is required ^[37, 38].

The components of therapy include

 Manajnana (elucidation of their strengths, weaknesses,) Manabudhi abnormalities such as misinterpretations, decreased coping skills, lack of communication skills, rigid and maladaptive to changing circumstances, decreased social interaction, mood-congruent judgment, pessimistic view of events, etc.),

- *Manoprasadana* (relaxation techniques such as walking, *pranayama*, *ashawasana*),
- *Manonigraha* (thought control methods such as replacing stressful thoughts with neutral or positive reinforcing techniques, talking to others, and engaging in pleasurable activities),
- Pratidwandwa chikitsa (self-suggestion with positive affirmations against negative perceptions of people/events, actively neutralizing hurtful memories from the past, and harshana technique of engaging in their pleasurable activities),
- *Aashwasanadi* (*santwana* assurance and dhairya motivational approach), feedback approach (self-assessment of worries and relaxed state of mind and revising corrective actions for the next day) and
- Manavijanana (communication skills, problem-solving skills, conflict management, coping skills, socialization skills, *samadhi* - equanimous approach to sense perceptions).
- *Daiwivypashraya chikitsa* included components such as reading spiritual books, singing devotional songs, and writing the names of the gods on a sheet.

Depression in stroke patients is still underdiagnosed and undertreated, despite the high prevalence of stroke-associated depressive illness and the availability of cost-effective treatments ^[39, 40].

 Table 2 | Selection of an antidepressant for the individual patient with depression

 after stroke [34]

Class	Adverse effects	Drug	Co morbidities leading topreferential use
Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI)	 Nausea, vomiting, gastric pain,anxiety, tremor, decreased threshold for seizures, and withdrawal syndrome 	 Escitalopra Paroxetine Fluoxetine Sertraline 	 Anxiety Anxiety, weight loss Hypersexuality, weight gain Weight gain

TeCA, TriCA	• Dry mouth, blurred vision,increased ocular tension,drowsine ss, increased heartrate, cardiac arrhythmias,con stipation, urine retention,postur al hypotension, tremor anddecreased threshold for seizures	 Mirtazapine (TeCA) Amitriptylin e (TriCA) 	 Sleep disturbances,weight loss Sleep disturbances,weight loss, pain
Serotonin – noradren aline reuptake inhibitor (SNRI)	 Nausea, headache, somnolence,ejac ulation disorder, yawning,decreas ed threshold for seizures 	DuloxetineVenlafaxine	PainPain, weight gain
Serotonin antagonis t andreupt ake inhibitor (SARI)	• Dry mouth, constipation, blurredvision, drowsiness	• Trazodone	• Sleep disturbances
Dopamin ergic	• Dry mouth, headache, nausea,weight loss, insomnia, agitation	• Bupropion	• Apathy, weight gain

TeCA, tetracyclic antidepressant; TriCA, tricyclic antidepressant

SUICIDALITY AFTER STROKE:

One of the diagnostic signs of a major depressive episode includes recurrent thoughts of death, which includes suicidal ideation, preparations for, or actual attempts at suicide ^[5]. Despite the fact that stroke patients have a greater suicide risk than the overall

population, ^[41, 42] Younger age, functional limitations ^[41], sleeplessness, pain, apathy, and lobar cerebral microbleeds ^[43-46] are also linked to suicide after stroke.

BIPOLAR AND RELATED DISORDERS:

Rare psychiatric side effects of stroke include manic episodes and bipolar illness, which affect 1-2% of stroke survivors [47, 48]. Poststroke mania is a relatively uncommon (1-2%) and significantly less frequent complication of stroke than post-stroke depression. It is a noticeable and enduring mood instability that is characterized by an upbeat, expansive, or irritated disposition. Increased speech rate or volume, talkativeness, language, thought, and content disturbances such as racing thoughts, grandiose ideation, and a lack of understanding, as well as hyperactivity, social disinhibition, and a decreased desire for sleep, are some clinical markers of poststroke mania^[49]. The 'Ward behavior rating scale' (Beigel Scale) ^[50], the 'Clinician-administered interview scale for mania' (Petterson Scale) ^[51], and the 'Mania Rating Scale' ^[52] can all be used to rate the severity of manic symptoms. The Mania Rating Scale ^[53] has a wider scope and greater sensitivity than the Petterson Scale and is shorter and more explicit than the Beige Scale.Mania is more frequent following right hemisphere infarcts than left hemisphere infarcts ^[54].In the current bipolar therapy guidelines, mood stabilizers like lithium, valproate, or lamotrigine are advised, along with neuroleptics for severe manic episodes and antidepressants for depressed episodes [55].

ANXIETY DISORDERS

• Clinical and diagnostic features

Despite being more prevalent after stroke, anxiety disorders are less thoroughly researched than depressive symptoms. Generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) is the most prevalent anxiety illness linked to stroke ^{[56].} GAD is characterized as nearly constant anxiety or concern that is difficult to regulate, to the point where it negatively affects well-being and day-to-day functioning.[5]. Patients with anxiety after a stroke are frequently assessed using the Hospital Anxiety and Depression Scale (HADS) to determine the severity of their symptoms.

• Prevalence

When measured via a clinical interview, the prevalence of anxiety was 18%, and when measured by a rating scale, it was 25% ^[57].

• Predictors

The most reliable mental predictors of anxiety brought on by a stroke are prior depression, prior anxiety, and prior alcohol addiction. Young age and feminine sex are demographic factors that predict anxiety. After a stroke, impairment in daily living tasks, impairment in social function, inability to work, being single, living alone, or having no social contacts outside of the family are all functional and social predictors of anxiety ^[58,59].

• Clinical course and outcome

In patients who have acute anxiety after a stroke, 25–50% goes on to develop chronic anxiety.

• Advances in pathophysiology

According to a small sample genetic association study conducted in China, tryptophan hydroxylase 2 (TPH2) gene polymorphisms may play a role in the emergence of anxiety related to stroke ^[60].

• Management and treatment

Patient education and lifestyle changes, psychotherapy, and medication with antidepressants, benzodiazepines, buspirone, or pregabalin are all used in the management of generalized anxiety disorder ^[61].

POST-TRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER (PTSD)

• Clinical and diagnostic features

Stroke and TIA are unexpected events that have the potential to be fatal and result in major disability. In addition, they have the potential to return after the actual event in an unpleasant and uncontrollable way ^[62]. Stroke-related PTSD is characterized by intrusive symptoms (memories, dreams, and flashbacks of the stroke or TIA), persistent avoidance of stroke-related stimuli, negative cognitive and mood changes, noticeable changes in arousal, and increased reactivity (irritability, angry outbursts, exaggerated startle response) ^[5]. To diagnose PTSD in patients, the PTSD Impact of Events Scale-Revised and Interview might be employed. ^[63] With various degrees of success, PTSD can be diagnosed using scales, questionnaires, or a formal psychiatric interview.

• Prevalence

The estimated prevalence of PTSD in stroke survivors ranges from 10% to 31% [62, 64, 65].

• Predictors

Women, younger patients, those with lower educational levels, past strokes, more severe impairment, comorbidities (such as depression and anxiety), pre-stroke neuroticism, or prior psychiatric morbidity are more likely to experience post-stroke PTSD.

• Course and outcome

The quality of life and mental health are both negatively impacted by PTSD. Additionally, it raises the risk of not taking medications as prescribed ^[66].

• Management and treatments

Exposure therapy is one behavioral therapeutic technique that has been demonstrated to alleviate PTSD in combat veterans ^[67] and may be attempted in stroke patients. It would be beneficial to examine the efficacy of methods that teach patients more efficient coping mechanisms and that carefully inform them of the real danger of having another stroke.

PERSONALITY CHANGES

Stroke and personality have a complicated back-and-forth relationship. Anger, type A behavior, and pessimism are some personality traits ^[5], that increase the incidence of stroke, alter the course of the stroke, and how well a patient responds to therapeutic therapies ^[68]. High extraversion was linked to an increased risk of stroke; high neuroticism was linked to an increased risk of stroke-related mortality; and high consciousness was linked to a decreased risk of death in a pooled analysis of three cohort studies.

• Clinical and diagnostic features

The five forms of personality changes—labile, disinhibited, aggressive, apathetic, and paranoid—represent a change from the person's prior pattern of behavior. Personality measures can be utilized to determine the proper diagnosis ^[69, 70], and straight forward tests, like the Neuropsychiatric Inventory ^[71], are frequently employed for screening.

• Apathetic personality change.

Reduced spontaneous mental and physical activities as well as emotional indifference are characteristics of the motivational disease apathy ^[72, 73]. Patients who are apathetic have significantly less physical, verbal, and behavioral initiative. Although they cannot initiate new activities on their own, they can carry out existing ones well when directed to do so by others. Lack of interest in previous interests and activities as well as a predisposition for inactive pursuits are typical characteristics of apathetic people. Depression is widespread and severe in apathetic patients ^[76, 78], and some patients with apathy following stroke also have depression ^[74-77]. Validated scales, like the Apathy Scale, which was modified from the original Apathy Evaluation Scale ^[79], can be used for screening and grading the severity of apathy symptoms, but they cannot take the place of an expert's diagnosis of apathetic personality change.

• Aggressive Personality Change

The emotional, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of anger, as well as the subjective experience of anger and the behavior associated with it, may all be separated in stroke patients ^[80, 81]. A number of neuropsychiatric illnesses, such as delirium, mania, psychosis, vascular cognitive impairment, and catastrophic reaction ^[82], can show symptoms of angry or violent behavior in stroke survivors.

• Prevalence

Anger was shown to be quite prevalent, with substantial diversity between researches (15-57%), according to the 2015 comprehensive review ^[83].

• Predictors

Apathy was more prevalent in older patients, stroke survivors, patients with cognitive impairment, and patients with depression ^[88]. After ischaemic and hemorrhagic strokes, as well as right and left hemisphere strokes, the prevalence of apathy was comparable in both sexes ^[84-88]. Apathy was found to be more prevalent in the study when the frontal pole, gyrus rectus, corpus callosum, cingulate gyrus, or superior frontal lobe was affected by the stroke. Pontine infarcts have been associated with a higher chance of developing a pathy following stroke in another investigation ^[89].

• Course and outcome

In general, stroke patients who are apathetic don't generally get much better with time. Long-term poststroke apathy is predicted by indifference during the acute stage of stroke. Following a stroke, persistent apathy is linked to depression, recurrent strokes, cognitive decline, more severe functional limitations, and suicide ^[46].

• Advances in pathophysiology

Apathy is associated with damage to the genu and splenium of the corpus callosum, left anterior corona radiata, and white matter of the right inferior frontal lobe, according to a voxel-based analysis of fractional anisotropy in 54 patients with stroke ^{[90].} The hospital setting may be seen as unfriendly or degrading, which might contribute to the emergence of aggressive behavior.

• Management and treatment

Behavioral treatments for apathy prevention were evaluated. Both problem-solving treatment and training in coping mechanisms have shown promise in the fight against apathy ^[91]. Given the importance of dopamine in motivation, dopaminergic drugs may be the first line of treatment for apathy ^[92]. A tiny randomized experiment found that the nootropic nefiracetam, which improves GABAergic, cholinergic, and monoaminergic signaling, reduced post-stroke apathy ^[93]. Other cholinergic medications, like donepezil ^{[94],} and stimulants, such as modafinil ^[95] or methylphenidrate ^[96], have also been shown to reduce apathy, but their usage is restricted in older patients with stroke and concomitant hypertension or cardiovascular disorders due to their negative cardiovascular side effects. We recommend psychological counseling to set reasonable rehabilitation goals, and coping mechanisms to deal with stroke-related deficiencies, and teach the carer how to handle hostile patients. SSRIs ^[97] can be used to treat anger following a stroke.

CONCLUSIONS:

Researchers have successfully reported the significant prevalence of neuropsychiatric after effects of stroke and their primary clinical and psychosocial correlations throughout the past ten years. In stroke survivors, emotional and behavioral disorders are a common complication. They frequently lead to institutionalization, are underdiagnosed, and have a significant influence on the quality of life. Typically, a

single exam and cut-off scores on a scale were used to determine the diagnosis of the mental illness. The majority of research on the neuropsychiatric effects of stroke has not been able to consistently link mental disorders to the anatomical sites of stroke lesions. Research that has studied blood or cerebrospinal fluid biomarkers or genetic polymorphisms that may predispose people to psychiatric disorders after stroke is still rare. Much of the research that is now accessible, such as the catecholamine hypothesis, claims that depression is related to a drop in central catecholamine levels. It is obvious that further research on the biological causes and pathophysiology of stroke-related psychiatric problems is required, as well as better study designs. A better understanding of patients' behavior and improved communication are both made possible by our enhanced understanding of the emotional and behavioral abnormalities following a stroke. There is a demand for such medications that have no side effects or fewer negative effects because conventional pharmacological treatment does not come without side effects. Herbo-mineral management formulas have produced dramatic benefits in such circumstances. Therefore, there is a need to create drugs that aid in treating both the psychological and physical aspects of neuropsychiatric problems. For example, it is necessary to create drugs for Post-Stroke Depression that, in addition to their mood-elevating effects (antidepressants), also help the patient's motor and cognitive deficiencies symptomatically improve.

Conflicts of interest: None

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